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Japanese History

Origins: 10,000 BC–AD 500

by Jon Spayde

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No one knows for certain how long human beings have lived in the Japanese islands. Stone tools excavated in many places can be dated to periods well before 10,000 BC, and archaeologists are convinced that the sheer variety of these artifacts suggests a well-established culture even in those early times. But who these people may have been and how they arrived on the Japanese islands are still matters of conjecture.

Just as uncertain is this pre-pottery culture's relationship with the fascinating pottery-making one that followed it after about 10,000 BC. The hand-shaped pots of the so-called Jomon culture teem with so much surface ornamentation that they look as if they had been overgrown with some uncanny form of plant life. Female figures with bulging, insectlike eyes and conical legs suggest the solemn religiosity of an earth cult. And Jomon men and women may very well have been deeply religious, because they depended on hunting and fishing luck to sustain them as they traveled from camp to camp and pitched by the seaside or next to mountain springs.

Wherever it appears, agriculture marks a revolution in man's control over his environment; with its arrival in Japan around 300 BC we also become aware for the first time of something that will be a major theme in Japanese history: the nearness and prestige of the continent of Asia, particularly of Korean and Chinese culture. The charred grains of rice found at the bottom of the pots of the Yayoi culture (300 BC–AD 200) originated in eastern China. The continent also gave Japan the other great technologies of the age: metalworking, and pottery-making with the wheel. Political turmoil was driving refugees across the Sea of Japan to the forested hills and fertile valleys of the eastern islands, and these exiles seem to have been the ones who first brought Japan into the orbit of the much older cultures of the continent. Then as now, weaponry led the way; bronze halberds and swords found in Yayoi sites are based directly on Chinese models. But metal mirrors —ritual objects based on entirely secular Chinese originals— have also been discovered in these burials.

Yayoi-era changes began shaping Japan into the sort of place it would remain for many centuries: an agricultural country of settled villages growing irrigated rice and dry-field crops— but also possessed of a restless military elite on horseback, doing its best to dominate, and then unify, Japan.

The history of the period between about AD 200 and 500 is chiefly the tale of a scattering of small independent kingdoms coming to recognize the power of one of their number, based in the Yamato lowlands south of Kyoto. By 300, the chieftains of the Yamato clan had managed to subordinate several of their neighbors; for the next 250 years, these chieftains combined negotiation, political marriage, and warfare to build their kingdom into the greatest power in the country. Their greatness is plain to see even today by examining the mammoth tumuli (artificial mounds) they created as final resting places. The largest *kofun*, as the tumuli are known, is the tomb of the leader whom a later age called the Emperor Nintoku. Outside of the city of Osaka, this 5th-century creation occupies some 80 acres; shaped like a giant keyhole, it resembles a forested mountain at ground level. Whoever the shadowy Nintoku may have been, he clearly had the clout to keep thousands of workers busy for some 20 years on a project of truly Egyptian proportions.

Classical Japan: 500–1156

As long as the rulers of Yamato were merely building kofun, forging swords, and riding down their enemies in cavalry raids, their fortunes were peripheral to the history of Asia. With the coming of literacy and the Buddhist religion in the 6th century, however, Japan entered the stage of history as a junior participant in a brilliant composite civilization that stretched from Iran to Korea and Vietnam; a civilization whose common denominator was Buddhism but which also included sculptural traditions from Hellenistic Greece, the political legacy of Confucius, and the music of the Persian court.

The Yamato rulers had for many years been powerful enough to meddle in Korean politics; in 553, according to later chroniclers, the king of the small Korean state of Paekche sent a copper-and-gold image of the Buddha and other religious paraphernalia, including scriptures, to the Yamato court as part of a petition for Japanese troops to fight against his enemies. This event (probably used by the chronicler to symbolize a more gradual process of importation and Korean immigration) set off a dispute at court between the Soga, a clan well disposed to the new religion, and the Mononobe and Nakatomi, families of hereditary priests and ritualists of the good old native faith that was later named Shintoism, "the way of the gods" (gods who, in their thousands, supposedly presided over and protected Japan).

After bitter struggles, the Soga triumphed. This parvenu family, without an ancient pedigree, hitched its wagon to the star of Buddhist culture and rode it to power. After 587, when the Mononobe were crushed, the Soga led Japan's aristocracy in a wholesale adoption of Buddhism and Sino-Korean culture.

The man who has long stood as the outstanding symbol of Japan's earnest apprenticeship in the opening years of the 7th century is Prince Shotoku (574–622), who, as regent for an infant empress, was an ally of the Soga but no mere tool in their hands. He supported the serious application of Confucian principles to the ruling of Japan and was a genuinely devout student of Buddhism. Shotoku founded temples and monasteries (including the beautiful Horyuji at Nara) and penetrated beyond the power-conferring glamour of the new religion to the vision of compassionate kingship that is at the heart of Buddhist politics.

But Shotoku's humane vision didn't carry the day in this still-rugged society. When the Soga tried to seize the emperorship, their long-suffering rivals, the Nakatomi, struck back in a coup d'état that has resounded throughout Japanese history: the Taika Reform of 645. The leaders of the rebellion were imperial legitimists but were no longer hostile to continental culture. Like the tough-minded pragmatists who Westernized Japan 13 centuries later, they put foreign ideas at the service of their Japanese goal: a centralized Japan under an emperor powerful enough to resist both invaders and usurpers.

After several false starts and at least one serious rebellion, the greatest concrete symbol of the new regime was completed in 710: the permanent capital at Nara, modeled on glorious Changan, seat of China's Tang Dynasty and one of the most gracious and cosmopolitan cities Asia had ever seen. Nara may have been a sort of poor-man's Changan, but the delight the Japanese took in their first real city knew no bounds. Poets in Japan's first imperially commissioned anthology, the *Manyoshu*, took joyous pleasure in the mere sight of "goodly green-red Nara" (green for the tile roofs, red for the wooden walls of the sturdy city).

The good fortune that Buddhism enjoyed in the Nara period is symbolized by the Todaiji Temple, built by the pious Emperor Shomu (reigned 724–749). The rebuilt temple tourists see today is immense; the original was gargantuan, occupying the equivalent of 16 city blocks, with twin pagodas over 300 feet high. The fact is that, in the Nara age, Japan belonged to a world culture no less than she does today. The treasure-house museum called the Shoso-in, on the grounds of the Todaiji, contains beautiful and useful objects enjoyed by Shomu during his lifetime. There is an Iranian lute inlaid with a mother-of-pearl picture of a camel under a palm tree; textiles from desert cities beyond the last Chinese frontier forts; herbal medicines from Southeast Asia; and masks with superbly Persian noses. This was an age in which Japanese monks traveled regularly to China and even India, and Chinese abbots and Korean sculptors held forth before crowds of eager young Japanese disciples in the monasteries and workshops of the "goodly green-red" city.

In 784, a new capital marked the opening of a new era. In that year, the Emperor Kammu (737–806) took the court away from Nara to Nagaoka, about 20 miles to the northwest. Ten years later, he forced his courtiers to move again, this time to the spot on the Kamogawa River where Kyoto now stands. This resolute and politically savvy ruler was fleeing the very Buddhist power that Shomu had done so much to build up. Heian-kyo, as the new metropolis was named, would be a larger and more resplendent Nara, built on the same Chinese principles, a fit seat for an emperor who intended to rule unimpeded by ambitious clerics.

After 850, the cultural self-confidence of this regime was so great that government-sponsored voyages to China stopped; Japan declared herself a graduate of Chinese tutelage, and politics, the arts, and literature took a brilliant native turn.

Native politics had always meant family politics, and the main theme of the political history of the Heian era was the rise of the powerful Fujiwara family, the direct descendants of the Nakatomi, those enemies of Buddhism turned reformers in 645. Fujiwara grandees served as regents for youthful emperors, then stayed on as "mayors of the palace," exercising near-total control when, as eventually happened, weak rulers ascended the throne.

The courtiers of Heian were wealthy, supremely self-satisfied, and reverent toward the sitting emperor, but they were increasingly independent of him as they built up agricultural estates in the countryside. They created a culture that broke with the themes of the Nara age. The austere Buddhism of the earlier period gave way to sects that attuned themselves to the metropolitan values of the aristocrats; dour Buddhist doctors, venerated in Nara, became figures of fun to Heian's elite, who appreciated Buddhism for its ability to gratify their visual sense with gorgeous ceremonies and to deepen the literary melancholy that they treasured.

The literary and cultural high noon of this age was the regency of Michinaga Fujiwara (served 996–1027), and the masterpiece of Michinaga's heyday was *Genji Monogatari (The Tale of Genji)*. This enormous work of fiction was given to world literature by the greatest of Heian's many women authors and poets, the prim, scholarly court lady we know as Murasaki Shikibu (ca. 970–ca. 1030). Her book is an extended portrait of the age's beau ideal: Hikaru Genji, the complete courtier. Genji composes poetry with effortless brilliance, judges elegant handwriting with a connoisseur's eye, and plays the great drum or the flute beautifully at court music sessions. But mainly, Genji is a lover, and the novel is, among other things, a great catalogue of womankind. Its sophisticated truthfulness and psychological subtlety easily survive 900 years and translation into another tongue.

The Genji world, both fictional and real, was obsessed with its own beauty and fragility, and when the Heian court lost its power, it lost it in a manner we would call tragic: It fell on the heels of a series of catastrophes that convinced many sensitive thinkers and writers that the world itself was coming to an end. Another elite had been flexing its muscles while the snobbish courtiers of Heian carried on their elegant pastimes and spoke of the provinces as purgatory and of commoners as animals. It was an elite of horse-riding warriors, descended from aristocrats but brought up far from Heian, both geographically and psychologically. As they began to appear in the streets of the capital, they became *the* harbingers of the seven centuries to come, during which—directly or indirectly—soldiers ruled Japan. It was an era that, on one reckoning, didn't end until the signing of the instrument of surrender on board the U.S.S. *Missouri* in 1945.

Feudal Japan: 1185–1600

For all the refinement of the capital, the Heian period was a restless age in the country as a whole, especially after about 1060. Banditry, piracy, and insurrection flared up, and a succession of ambitious emperors tested the limits of Fujiwara power. Japan became a place where disciplined bands of armed men could be kept busy.

Such bands grew up in the provinces. Fiercely loyal to their families and their commanders, they protected the agricultural estates of the aristocracy and were often called upon to become de facto imperial armies fighting rebels or the aboriginal Ainu. These bands were rewarded with land and court titles.

In 1156, a succession dispute broke out between court factions, and the party led by the retired but still influential Emperor Shirakawa (1053–1129) invited soldiers of the Taira clan into the capital to crush the opposition. This was easily managed; but after it was over, the Taira under Kiyomori (1118–1181) refused to leave the city; in fact, Kiyomori stayed on as virtual military dictator of the country, ruling in the circumspect Fujiwara style and marrying his daughters to imperial princes.

To the Japanese, the Taira are symbols of the impermanence of worldly glory; their reign was short. In 1180, another great warrior family, the Minamoto (who had made their name fighting rebels in northern Japan), rose up against Kiyomori; thus began the most romanticized war in the treasury of Japanese song and story. The Minamoto clan leader Yoritomo (1147–1199) and his brilliant younger brother Yoshitsune (1159–1189) capped a series of land victories with a great sea fight at Dannoura in the Inland Sea, in which the baby Emperor Antoku was drowned along with countless Taira seamen and warriors.

The renown of the victory, engineered by the dashing Yoshitsune (a hero who became the Prince Genji of a warlike age), roused the jealousy of the supremely unromantic and hardheaded Yoritomo, who had his brother hunted down and killed. The Taira-Minamoto war and Yoritomo's fratricide contributed to a new artistic sensibility: The great Buddhist theme of the impermanence of all earthly things, which in Heian had been treated with great subtlety in individual lives, was now played out on battlefields and in the histories of proud warrior clans. Prose literature turned from the courtly diary and the novel to the military epic, sung with the accompaniment of the *biwa* (lute) to audiences of warriors and common folk. Painters depicted the torments of Buddhist hells, and traveling evangelists preached salvation through simple faith in the Buddha Amida.

Yoritomo and his successors ruled this troubled and newly dynamic Japan not from Kyoto but from Kamakura on the great eastern plain called the Kanto (where Tokyo would one day stand), the heartland of the warrior class. The efficiency of this regime was not diminished—at least not for a while—by the rise within it of that familiar phenomenon, indirect rule by regents. The Hojo family, prominent retainers of the Minamoto, began playing the Fujiwara role, standing in the stead of the ruling *shoguns* (generals). A figurehead imperial house was now further removed from real power by a figurehead shogun and his regent, and a resolute, tragic emperor rose up to challenge this state of affairs.

The revolt in 1221 of the Emperor Go-Toba (1180–1239), who declared the Hojo regent an outlaw, was a test of the nerve of the entire warrior class. Spurred on by Yoritomo's widow Masako (1156–1225), the Minamoto vassals and allies stood firm. In this standoff between a samurai woman and the emperor of Japan, the emperor lost. He was exiled to the remote Oki Islands, where he spent his last days as the compiler of one of the greatest anthologies of classical verse, the *Shinkokinshu*.

An even greater test of *bakufu* (military government) strength was the seaborne invasion of Japan by Mongol troops of Kublai Khan's Yuan Dynasty in China. On two separate occasions (1274 and 1281), the bakufu's vassals in Kyushu did what Persian and Chinese armies had failed to do—they held back the horde. Both times, the Japanese were aided by their native gods, who saw fit to send devastating winds and high seas to swamp the Korean ships the invaders rode.

What Kublai could not engineer—the fall of the Hojo/Minamoto regime—was brought about at home through the machinations of another of Japan's great rebel emperors, Go-Daigo (1288–1339). In Go-Daigo, the bakufu had an imperial foe to reckon with. With a patience and a cunning

that contrasted sharply with Go-Toba's impulsiveness, Go-Daigo strengthened the finances of the imperial house and courted samurai who were unhappy with Hojo rule. But before the coup could be mounted, the bakufu struck, and another emperor was packed off to the desolate Okis.

Go-Daigo, however, had no intention of ending his days, like his predecessor had, in a limbo of literature and regret. With the aid of his son, he escaped from the Okis and returned to the mainland, raising the standard of legitimacy and rebellion once more. This time the insurrection took. Powerful families, led by the warrior Takauji Ashikaga (1304–1358), forswore Kamakura. In 1333, Ashikaga's soldiers murdered the last Hojo regent and ushered in two full centuries of political disintegration.

The next casualty of Go-Daigo's rebellion was Go-Daigo's court. Takauji Ashikaga, who more than matched Yoritomo in craft and ambition, declared himself displeased with the new emperor's administration (it does seem to have been inept). He turned on the sovereign and placed him under house arrest in Kyoto. With his back to the wall once more, Go-Daigo kept his nerve. When Takauji placed a rival emperor on the throne (who later declared Takauji shogun), Go-Daigo fled south to the old imperial pleasure ground at Yoshino, where he established a rival court. For the next 60 years, the enemy courts fought an inconclusive war. Incessant campaigning weakened the new bakufu and forced the Ashikaga rulers to depend upon the powerful military families to keep order in the country at large. But the grandees at the head of these families were evolving from the loyal vassals of Kamakura days into practically autonomous local lords who built up their castle towns into trade centers and increasingly thought of their relationship with the bakufu as an alliance between equals.

The Ashikaga years (1333–1523) could have been culturally barren, at least if one thinks great art requires great peace. But as in the roughly contemporary Italian Renaissance, a violent time produced an unprecedented inventiveness and refinement in the arts. Paradoxically, the chief arts of the Ashikaga period were those of tranquillity: garden design, ink painting, the tea ceremony, the Noh drama. And even more paradoxically, the peak time for these arts, which seem to us the essence of the Japanese spirit, was an age of intense admiration for China. Medieval Japan was back in touch with the continent, mainly via Zen, or meditative, Buddhism.

The Zen sect had been established in Japan under the Kamakura regime—military men were attracted to its asceticism and elitism—and under the Ashikaga (whose headquarters in the Muromachi quarter of Kyoto has given its name to the age), Zen priests became diplomats and spiritual advisers of the elite. Although Zen rejects scripture in favor of direct perception of the Buddhist truth

universal emptiness—a perception reached during arduous meditation—in the Muromachi period (1338–1573), Zen priests were well-read intellectuals who imbued the arts they influenced with a continental up-to-dateness that was secular and deeply spiritual at the same time.

A cultural achievement such as the Japanese garden is a case in point. It is a rich hybrid of Zen practice (in that it is mainly intended to aid meditation), Chinese elegance (gardens re-create Chinese, not Japanese, beauty spots), and the classical Japanese cult of the changing seasons. Similarly, flower arrangement and the very popular tea ceremony, with roots in Sino-Buddhist culture, have blossomed into distinctly Japanese hybrids during this age.

The Ashikaga Shogun Yoshimasa (1436–1490) was the era's greatest patron of the arts, but he was no soldier, and he found himself presiding over a Japan slipping into anarchy. When the influential Yamana and Hosokawa families went to war over which family would determine shogunal succession, the battleground was Kyoto. A decade of fighting, which the Ashikaga were utterly powerless to stop and which embroiled the armies of more and more provincial lords, left Kyoto a smoking ruin. When it was over, the *daimyo* (as these lords were now known) who had been busy in the capital suddenly found themselves challenged by rebellious vassals back in the provinces, and they hurried home with flags flying. Those lords who had been entrusted with the responsibility of keeping order in the countryside found themselves holding the bag for an impotent bakufu.

In short, Japan was in a situation it had not faced since the 4th century: It was every clan for itself. The imperial house was bankrupt, the shogunate a formality. All bets were off, and an age was dawning when the shrewdest and most ruthless warrior, whatever his social origins or connections with traditional power, could be the ruler of the nation if he could hammer its pieces back together.

In the 16th century, Japan first made the acquaintance of European civilization in the humble guise of a handful of Portuguese sailors who were shipwrecked off the coast of Kyushu in 1543. These were expansive years for European power, and, by the 1560s, Portuguese and Spanish missionaries had established themselves at Nagasaki and elsewhere in Japan, and Nagasaki was a regular port of call for Portuguese and Spanish merchant ships. But unlike many another country visited by Europeans in these years, Japan was in no danger of falling under their domination. Never in her history, before or since, has she had such forceful leaders as the triumvirate of Nobunaga Oda (1534–1582), Hideyoshi Toyotomi (1536–1598), and Ieyasu Tokugawa (1546–1616), who together pulled their country out of the rubble of the Ashikaga collapse and forged a formidably self-protective and self-conscious Japan.

Nobunaga, who by 1560 had fought his way to the lordship of the Owari domain east of Lake Biwa, looked longingly at nearby Kyoto. Since 1156, military control of the capital had meant eventual overlordship of Japan. After securing his rear through campaigns and alliances with lords to his east and north, Nobunaga marched into the capital in 1568 in the company of Yoshiaki Ashikaga, whom he set up as shogun. But when Yoshiaki grew restive as lord of Owari's puppet, Nobunaga drove the last of the Ashikaga out of the city gates; thus passed the dynasty established by the fierce Takauji two centuries before.

Ruthless and practical, Nobunaga was also something of a Europhile; he affected a Spanish cape and liked red wine. Best of all of Europe's gifts he liked firearms, and he put them to devastating use when he moved east against the Takeda family, of Kai province in central Honshu, one of his allies during the Kyoto campaign. The Minamoto vassals had met Kublai Khan's Mongols as individual warriors, calling out their lineages and staking their lives on their superb swords, the world's best; Nobunaga's musketeers were peasant foot soldiers who mowed down the Takeda chivalry with massed firepower, rather in the manner of conquistadors versus Aztecs. (Not accidentally, this age saw the building of massive castles girded with stone to withstand such assaults.)

With the Kyoto heartland and the east under his belt, Nobunaga next dispatched two of his best generals, Mitsuhide Akechi (1528–1582) and Hideyoshi Toyotomi (1537–1598), to western Japan. In one of the greatest double-crosses in Japanese history, Mitsuhide reversed his line of march, reentered Kyoto, and murdered Nobunaga in 1582. Hideyoshi saw his opportunity, the perfect coalescence of feudal piety and naked self-interest. He assaulted Kyoto and destroyed his lord's destroyer, thus becoming paramount himself.

With a dogged prudence that matched Nobunaga's open ruthlessness, Hideyoshi campaigned in northern Honshu and Shikoku in 1585, then invaded the southernmost island of Kyushu, where he humbled the proud Shimazu house of Satsuma, a feudal state that was used to such independence that it even carried on its own foreign relations with China and Okinawa.

Hideyoshi's control of Japan was assured when, in 1590, he ousted the Hojo, the ancient family of regents, from their domains in the Kanto Plain. He bestowed this rich land upon his ally Ieyasu Tokugawa, who was to make good use of it in the next decades.

Hideyoshi Toyotomi was more than Japan's first unifier-by-force in 1,200 years; he was also a symbol of his age. This farmer's son was the first peasant to rule Japan (though his lineage prevented him from even attempting to have himself named shogun), and he had an unparalleled grasp of the

nuts-and-bolts requirements of power. Among his most careful and effective plans was a nationwide "sword hunt" that disarmed the peasantry (thereby creating a gulf between the common people and the samurai and also ensuring that no upstart would follow in Hideyoshi's footsteps).

But Hideyoshi was capable of follies that were as great as his triumphs. The years 1592–1595 saw two of them. Childless, he appointed a capable 20-year-old nephew, Hidetsugu, as his heir; at the same time he launched an invasion of Korea and China from Kyushu. By 1593, one of his concubines had given birth. Two years later, he ordered the now superfluous Hidetsugu to commit suicide with his entire household. Even by the relaxed standards of this ruthless age, it was a cruel measure, and some of Hideyoshi's allies went so far as to question his sanity. Meanwhile, the continental campaign had bogged down in inconclusive fighting against a heroic Korean navy and the armies of the Ming Dynasty. Another assault fared no better, and, when the old dictator died in 1598, his forces were weary and ready to come home.

The council of regents that the dying Hideyoshi had convened to rule on behalf of his infant heir, Hideyori, saw to the repatriation of the troops at the end of 1598. It was practically the last thing they agreed on. The Kanto baron Ieyasu was the paramount regent, and, when a subordinate lord named Mitsunari Ishida stirred up jealousy against him Ieyasu realized he was no safer from treachery than Nobunaga had been. A lifetime of warfare had taught this plodding, prudent warrior of bland demeanor that there were times when the only safety was in ruthless action. He led an army of 80,000 Kanto region troops against Ishida and his western allies and crushed them on the plain of Sekigahara on October 21, 1600.

Tokugawa power was now unchallengeable. With the rise of the phlegmatic Ieyasu to the office of shogun in 1603 (a letter from the emperor was arranged, and Minamoto lineage was "discovered" in Ieyasu's undistinguished background), the era of great personalities was over. So were 300 devastating years of war. Ieyasu Tokugawa reversed the course of Japanese history by devising a political system so carefully balanced and set against disruption that the next 250 years would seem to some like a charmed era, a serene and changeless golden age of traditional Japan.

Tokugawa Japan: 1603–1853

Of course, the Tokugawa era was anything but changeless. In the 250 years between Ieyasu's assumption of the shogunate and the arrival of Commodore Matthew C. Perry at the harbor of Uraga in 1853, Ieyasu's system preserved a peace that allowed major changes at all levels of society and culture.

That system was a network of regulations applied to every one of the institutions that had disturbed Japan in the recent past. First among these, of course, were the great lords themselves. Ieyasu established trusted and long-term allies in the heartland of Japan, the capital region and the Kanto. Lords who had opposed him before Sekigahara were granted lands far away from this strategic central zone. All the lords were kept in a sort of genteel poverty by the requirement that they spend half of every year in attendance upon the shogun at his capital, Edo (today's Tokyo), and also by the periodic exactions that the Tokugawa bakufu made for road repairs and other public works. The idea was simple: the bakufu police could keep tabs on the daimyo, and the lords' coffers would be too bare to pay for revolt.

The Kyoto court that had once produced insurgent emperors was placed under polite but firm curbs; aristocrats were effectively forbidden from leaving the palace complex except on ceremonial errands.

The Buddhist establishment was supported, but only as a sort of vaccine against Christianity. Ieyasu was particularly anxious to remove the cancer of international religious politics from his dominions; he had no wish to see Japan made a battleground between Spanish and Portuguese traders, Franciscans and Jesuits, or Protestants and Catholics. He also feared domestic Catholics, and with reason; samurai converts who carried the cross into battle and invoked St. James as Spanish soldiers did had been among his opponents when he laid siege to the remnants of Hideyoshi's family in Osakajo Castle in 1615. So, in 1618, the shogunate began to torture and even crucify converts who would not abjure the faith, driving many underground to form secret Christian communities that preserved a strange Buddhist-tinged Catholicism for 200 years.

After 1639, the country was closed, not just to missionaries but also to most foreign trade. The Protestant Dutch (whose warships had helped the shogunate massacre Catholics) were permitted to maintain a cramped little outpost on an artificial island in Nagasaki harbor, which eventually became a window into (and out of) sealed Japan.

With the screws turned down so far on potential sources of disruption, change went on at a more stately pace than during the bloody centuries preceding Sekigahara. The military in Edo and the dominions turned into administrators instead of fighters; swordsmanship became only one of many samurai accomplishments, along with the tea ceremony, scholarship, philosophy, and poetry. The populace got slowly and steadily richer, as domestic markets grew in complexity and the banking and brokerage businesses developed.

The most unstable and exciting places in this stable society were the major cities: Kyoto, home of proud artisans; Osaka, the great city of sake brewers, rice brokers and moneylenders; and Edo, the Washington, DC, of Japan, which was filled with samurai bureaucrats of the central government and all the domains. Artisans and merchants were at the bottom of the Tokugawa social scale, but as these urban commoners grew rich during the course of the long peace, the whole society came to dance to their tune. Financially strapped samurai families found themselves in debt to their social inferiors, and some merchants were even granted samurai pedigrees and the right to wear two swords in exchange for discreet fiscal favors.

These proud and powerful merchants created one of the world's great urban cultures. In Kyoto, Osaka, and Edo, the licensed brothel quarters, teahouses, bathhouses, and restaurants teemed with stylishly dressed (and undressed) pleasure seekers. To belong to this world, you had to know your way around the ladies-for-hire, keep up with the latest topical puppet plays, and stay in tune with the trends in fashion and deportment set by the leading actors and the most elegant courtesans.

The prim official Confucianism of the authorities made little headway here—censorship was tightened periodically, but, after all, the pleasure quarters called as seductively to many sedentary samurai as they did to rice-brokerage apprentices and tattooed gamblers. The Balzac of this world was Saikaku Ihara (1642–1693), whose novels capture a new version of the great theme of impermanence. These middle-class high-livers call themselves the inhabitants of the *ukiyo*, the "floating world" of momentary wealth and passing pleasure. The falling cherry blossom meant the changeable heart of one's lover to a Heian aristocrat; to the poetic spirit of the feudal age, it suggested a warrior dying in battle; to Saikaku's heroes and heroines, who chase love and money with equal devotion and are proud of their modishness and savvy, the cherry's brief splendor is a reminder that joy, like fashion, is fragile and of the moment. Tokugawa-period hedonism and stylishness become profound when they remind us (ever so gently) of death.

In many respects, Tokugawa culture was a great summing-up of everything that had preceded it in Japanese art and thought. Puppet-play writers, novelists, and poets—such as the great Basho Matsuo (1644–1694), who elevated the witty poetry called *haikai* into high art—drew upon classical Chinese and Japanese learning even when they wrote comedies and parodies. A school of consummate craftsmen in Kyoto revived the palette and the sensibility of the Heian court. Cultured samurai amateurs painted like Chinese literati. And everywhere, great labors of essay writing, library building, and connoisseurship were carried on.

In Japanese thought, an obsession with the past is sometimes a means of moving forward. The most backward-looking of Tokugawa-era thinkers were the scholars of "na-

tional learning" *(kokugaku)*—philologists and linguists who worked on the oldest Japanese texts and who also cherished a political agenda. In a Sinophilic age, they boosted ancient Japan; in the era of shogunal bureaucracy, they looked back to the great ages of direct imperial rule and revered the medieval rebel emperors.

Their rivals included not only the Confucianists but also a tiny community of "Dutch-scholars," students allowed by the shogunate to examine Dutch books provided by the traders in Nagasaki harbor. These were iconoclastic men whose studies sometimes led them surprisingly far from Tokugawa ideals. As their command of Dutch grew greater and they explored mysteries such as copperplate etching, Western medicine, vanishing-point perspective, and even camera-obscura photography, they grew restless under Ieyasu's orderly system and longed to study the world face-to-face and to cast away all authorities—Chinese, Japanese, feudal, and familial—in the pursuit of a new body of science.

After 1853 and a grave political crisis, the Tokugawa peace came to a boil, and this time the disruption was more profound and interesting than simple war. A massive, self-confident urban population, a class of young idealists who revered the emperor, and inquirers into things Western joined together in a great backward leap that, with startling speed, produced modern Japan.

Modern Japan: 1853–Present

The profound political crisis after 1853 was not merely the result of the arrival of Commodore Perry and his "black ships" on their mission to set up trade and diplomatic relations with a closed Japan. It was the Tokugawa bakufu's response, seen by many as treasonous cowardice. Perry's 1853 voyage had been a simple show of force; as promised, he returned in 1854 and compelled a flustered shogunate to sign a diplomatic treaty. Full commercial relations with the United States, including a consulate on Japanese soil, followed in 1858. Similar treaties were soon signed with European nations, and Ieyasu's closed-country policy became a relic.

The result was an explosion of antiforeign violence and antibakufu agitation. Young samurai from the domains of Satsuma and Choshu in Kyushu and Tosa in Shikoku took up the great slogan of the age: *sonno-joi*, "revere the emperor and expel the barbarians." They struck up alliances with like-minded young courtiers in Kyoto, and from the cocoons of these radical "men of purpose" *(shishi)* emerged—or rather reemerged—the vision of a Japan united under a powerful emperor, with the bakufu swept away once and for all. Only such a Japan, they reasoned, could abrogate the humiliating and unequal treaties.

These activities eventually persuaded key daimyo and senior nobles to fall in with their plans, and a demoralized bakufu capitulated again, this time to the sonno-joi advocates. The last reigning shogun in Japanese history, Keiki Tokugawa (1837–1913), voluntarily stepped down in 1867. On the morning of January 3, 1868, the formal restoration of direct imperial rule was proclaimed by the 16-year-old Emperor Meiji (1852–1912).

One thing the Meiji Restoration was not, however, was a genuine return of the reins of government to the emperor. It was instead the accession to power of a remarkable young clique of ex-samurai officials from the western domains—men whose antiforeignism soon underwent a sea change. They clothed their policies in the language of imperial loyalism; they reorganized and promoted the native cult of Shintoism into a state religion; they built an educational system that stressed the personal loyalty of every Japanese to the imperial house; and, in many other ways, they fulfilled the agenda of the philosophers of "national learning" in the Tokugawa period. But they also set the country on the tracks of "civilization and enlightenment" *(bummei kaika)*—the thought and technology of the West. They intended to defend Japan's honor by joining the club of her potential enemies, the modern industrialized nations.

The Meiji period (1868–1912) was, therefore, a time of dizzying change, as the government sought the aid of foreign experts in many fields. With their help, a national-conscript army and a modern navy were created; Japanese industry grew up from silkworm culture to steel making; new modes of farming were tried in the virgin lands of Hokkaido; and even such things as the teaching of art and music were totally transformed.

The men and women of Meiji were experimenters: in dress, in cuisine (beef restaurants made their first appearance in this era), in art and literature (the heirs of Murasaki and Saikaku discovered Shakespeare and Shaw at the same time), in sexual relations. Twenty-five years after the fall of the last shogun, Tokyo had a municipal street railway, and Japan had a national parliament, which had been convened in 1890 after a decade of struggle between two factions of the ruling clique.

These authoritarian rulers of Japan, led by the first prime minister, Hirobumi Ito (1841–1909), had initiated the Meiji changes not to create a more liberal society but to make a stronger nation. The tests of their success were diplomacy and warfare. In 1895, Japan humiliated the Chinese empire in a brief war for control of Korea, but it was forced by a consortium of European powers (which were themselves busy gobbling up China) to give up their territorial claims on the continent.

It was a bittersweet victory that fed Japanese resentment of the Western powers. But Japan's smashing defeat of Russia in a 1904–1905 war (fought to keep the czarist state out of Korea) was an unambiguous triumph. Japan, which had been powerless before a handful of American sailors and marines in 1853, had defeated a great (if ailing) European power. She even acquired a colony on the mainland with the annexation of Korea in 1910.

World War I may have been a tragedy for Europe, but it was a boon for Japan. Her minimal participation in the Allied cause left her unscathed, and war needs strengthened her industry and expanded her trade with Asia. The postwar era also saw a strengthening of representative government as the influence of the elderly heroes of the Restoration waned and the torch was passed to party politicians who had never known feudalism.

Even the terrible earthquake that shook the Tokyo region in 1923 became a symbol of renewal. The Tokyo that emerged from the rubble and the ash in the ensuing years had a more cosmopolitan look, and it struggled to become a real world city, not just a modernized Edo. Japanese film made its first substantial achievements in the 1920s, and arts such as oil painting, poetry in the modern style, and photography essentially caught up with Western developments. By the end of the decade, there were competent Japanese futurists, surrealists, expressionists, and Freudians, at least in Tokyo; even in Kyoto, young people danced to "Tokyo Conga" by the rhumba band called the Tokyo Cuban Boys.

Culturally, the 1930s were a deepening of this cosmopolitanism, as well as the heyday of the Left in literature and art. But politically, it was an increasingly dangerous time for liberalism. Military influence over civilian cabinets increased, and ultranationalist young officers called for a second Restoration that would cleanse Japan, not of the bakufu this time but of the scourges of capitalism, liberalism, Marxism, modernism, and other diseases that were sapping Japan's will to fight and her single-minded devotion to the emperor. It goes without saying that the young officers sought a greater role for Japan in Asia.

On September 18, 1931, a bomb planted by Japanese agents exploded on the tracks of the Japanese-owned South Manchuria Railway. Local Chinese troops were blamed, and the Japanese garrison seized control of Manchuria itself. Six years later, Japanese troops stationed in Peking, Shanghai, and Nanking, under the terms of the settlement of the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, moved to protect Japanese interests against what they saw as a dangerously powerful Nationalist Chinese government. It escalated into a full-scale, protracted Japanese invasion of China.

To patriotic Japanese, the China campaign had an irrefutable logic: the territorial gains for which Japanese servicemen had shed their blood in 1895 and 1905 had been stolen by the jealous West; tiny Japan needed an overseas sphere of influence for her very survival; and those who sought to restrain Japanese expansion were really strangling her.

The other, and more tragic, consequence of the China campaign was that it required the Japanese to advance south into the tin-and-rubber-rich French, English, and Dutch colonies of Southeast Asia to obtain war materiel that could no longer be had from the United States, which was leading the international opposition to Japan's China adventure. And finally, as Japanese-American diplomacy broke down, the security of the sea-lanes required Japanese strategists to neutralize American power in the Philippines and at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii.

With the December 7, 1941, attack, liberalism in Japan came to a dead halt. Intellectuals fell in line, almost to a man; artists cooperated; and poets who had helped Japan discover her modern soul turned to praise-poems of the imperial house and the valor of Japanese arms. In the prevailing view, Pearl Harbor was really a sort of attack on Japan; exposed now to the full might of America, Japan was the one in danger. Propaganda touted glorious victories, of course, but what the Japanese really loved was the spirit of sacrifice, and that somber spirit characterized the Japanese attitude toward this unwinnable war almost from the beginning.

It was a realistic attitude. After the Japanese defeats at Midway and the Coral Sea in the very first year of the conflict, Japan had no real chance of turning back the American amphibious and airborne advance that ended with the firebombing of Tokyo and the dawn of the nuclear age. In an ironic footnote to Japan's troubled history of love and hate for the West, the cities chosen for atomic annihilation were Hiroshima, the headquarters of Protestantism in Japan, and Nagasaki, the Catholic city of the 16th century, graveyard of martyrs, and Japan's first window on the rest of the world.

The rebuilding of Japan after her destruction at American hands is one of the great success stories of the century. General Douglas MacArthur, who led the 1946–1952 occupation of the country, became the first foreign ruler of the Japanese islands—and a hero to millions of war-weary, genuinely disillusioned Japanese greatly in need of a strong hand in Tokyo. Ex-New Dealers in the occupation bureaucracy dismantled Japanese industry and rehabilitated the Japanese Left. With the escalating Cold War, and some careful prodding by Prime Minister Shigeru Yoshida (1878–1967), however, the Americans were persuaded to use their economic might to build Japan up into a reliable ally in the Pacific. With the end of the occupation in 1952, Japan em-

barked upon her career of economic growth, domestic political consensus, and expanding trade with Asia and the world.

Living under an American-drafted constitution that renounces war, and shielded by a 1952 treaty with the United States that makes the latter responsible for Japanese security in the event of a major war, Japan has been free to pursue the arts of peace for nearly 40 years now. She has become an economic giant (the world's leading creditor nation), and her architects, artists, and designers are at last taking positions of leadership in the creation of the international culture of the late 20th century. Her increasing international presence is bringing calls for her to adjust her inward-looking political attitudes and reassess her pacifism. All is not rosy for this successful nation. She faces challenges that could become dangers: absurdly crowded cities, an aging population, slower growth, the competition of an economically vibrant South Korea, and the resentment of an America hurt by Japanese exports. The outstanding spiritual problem for her wealthy younger generation will be finding a way to define itself as two things at once: the heirs of a rich and very particular tradition, self-involved and ambivalent about the outside world; and confident *kokusaijin* (international people), poised for something new in their history: world leadership.

Japan at a Glance: A Chronology

10,000–300 BC Neolithic Jomon hunting and fishing culture leaves richly decorated pottery.

300 AD Yayoi culture displays knowledge of farming and metallurgy imported from Korea.

After 300 The Yamato tribe consolidates power in the rich Kansai plain and expands westward, forming the kind of military aristocratic society that was to dominate Japan's history.

c. 500 Yamato leaders, claiming to be descended from the sun goddess, Amaterasu, take the title of emperor.

552 Buddhism, introduced to the Yamato court from China by way of Korea, complements rather than replaces the indigenous Shinto religion. Horyuji, a Buddhist temple built at Nara in 607, includes the oldest surviving wooden building in the world.

593–622 Prince Shotoku encourages the Japanese to embrace Chinese culture.

710–784 Nara Period

Japan has first permanent capital (at Nara); great age of Buddhist sculpture, piety, and poetry.

794–1160 The Fujiwara or Heian Period

The capital is moved from Nara to Heiankyo (Kyoto), where the imperial court is dominated by the Fujiwara family. Lady Murasaki's novel *The Tale of Genji*, written c. 1020, describes the elegant, ceremonious court life.

1185–1335 The Kamakura Period

Feudalism enters, with military and economic power in the provinces and the emperor a powerless, ceremonial figurehead in Kyoto. Samurai warriors welcome Zen, a new sect of Buddhism from China.

1192 After a war with the Taira family, Yoritomo of the Minamoto family becomes the first shogun; he places his capital in Kamakura.

1274, 1281 The fleets sent by Chinese emperor Kublai Khan to invade Japan are destroyed by typhoons, praised in Japanese history as *kamikaze*, or divine wind.

1336–1568 Ashikaga Period

The Ashikaga family assumes the title of shogun and settles in Kyoto. The Zen aesthetic flourishes in painting, landscape gardening, and tea ceremony. The Silver Pavilion on Ginkaku-ji in Kyoto, built in 1483, is the quintessential example of Zen-inspired architecture. The period is marked by constant war-

fare but also by increased trade with the mainland. Osaka develops into an important commercial city, and trade guilds appear.

1543 Portuguese sailors, the first Europeans to reach Japan, initiate trade relations with the lords of western Japan and introduce the musket, which changes Japanese warfare.

1549–1551 St. Francis Xavier, the first Jesuit missionary, introduces Christianity.

1568–1600 **The Momoyama Period of National Unification**

Two generals, Nobunga Oda and Hideyoshi Toyotomi, are the central figures of this period.

1592, 1597 Hideyoshi invades Korea. He brings back Korean potters, who rapidly develop a Japanese ceramic industry.

1600–1868 **The Tokugawa Period**

Ieyasu Tokugawa becomes shogun after the battle of Sekigahara. The military capital is established at Edo (Tokyo), which shows phenomenal economic and cultural growth. A hierarchy of four social classes—warriors, farmers, artisans, and merchants—is rigorously enforced. The merchant class, however, is increasingly prosperous and effects a transition from a rice to a money economy. Also, merchants patronize new, popular forms of art: kabuki, haiku, and the ukiyo-e school of painting. The life of the latter part of this era is beautifully illustrated in the wood block prints of the artist Hokusai (1760–1849).

1618 Persecution of Christians who refuse to recant.

1637–1638 Japanese Christians massacred in the Shimabara uprising. Japan is closed to the outside world except for a Dutch trading post in Nagasaki harbor.

1853 The American Commodore Perry reopens Japan to foreign trade.

1868–1912 **The Meiji Restoration**

Supporters of Emperor Meiji, calling for direct imperial rule, depose the shogun and move the capital to Edo, renaming it Tokyo. Japan is modernized along Western lines with a constitution proclaimed in 1889; a system of compulsory education and a surge of industrialization follow.

1902–1905 Japan defeats Russia in the Russo–Japanese War and achieves world-power status.

1910 Japan annexes Korea.

1914–1918 Japan joins the Allies in World War I.

1923 A catastrophic earthquake shakes Tokyo and Yokohama.

1931 Japan seizes the Chinese province of Manchuria.

1937 Following years of increasing military and diplomatic activity in northern China, open warfare breaks out (until 1945); it is resisted by both Nationalists and Communists.

1939–1945 Japan, having signed anti-Communist treaties with Nazi Germany and Italy (1936 and 1937), invades and occupies French Indochina.

1941 The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7 brings the United States into war against Japan in the Pacific.

1942 Japan's empire extends to Indo-China, Burma, Malaya, the Philippines, and Indonesia. Defeat by U.S. forces at Midway in June turns the tide of Japanese military success.

1945 Tokyo and 50 other Japanese cities are devastated by U.S. bombing raids. The United States drops atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, precipitating Japanese surrender.

1945–1952 The American occupation under General Douglas MacArthur disarms Japan and encourages the establishment of a democratic government. Emperor Hirohito retains his position.

1953 After the Korean War Japan begins a period of great economic growth.

1964 Tokyo hosts the Summer Olympic games.

Late 1960s Japan develops into one of the major industrial nations in the world.

mid-1970s Japanese production of electronics, cars, cameras, and computers places her at the heart of the emerging "Pacific Rim" economic sphere and threatens to spark a trade war with the industrial nations of Europe and the United States.

1989 Emperor Hirohito dies.



CONSULATE GENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.

The Horyu-ji Temple in Nara, founded in 607 A. D., is a striking example of architecture of the Asuka period.

JAPAN: Art, Language, Literature, and Science

Japanese artistic tradition is one of the oldest and most remarkable in the world. Already during the Neolithic age the Jomon ceramics (about 5000 B.C.) show a high degree of originality and artistic quality. Japanese art of historical times, although strongly influenced by the arts of Korea and especially of China, also exhibits certain qualities that are truly indigenous. The native strain is particularly marked in the Shinto shrines and other domestic architecture, as well as in certain schools of painting, such as Yamato-e and Ukiyo-e, and in the craft production of the country. Most Buddhist art, however, exhibits a strong Chinese influence.

The two characteristics that are typically Japanese are a love of simple, subdued beauty, such as is evident in the Ise Grand Shrines, the Katsura villa, or the arts connected with the Cha-no-yu, or tea ceremony; and a love of decorative splendor, as seen in the gorgeous screens and colorful garments of Japan's feudal period. These two qualities are often found side by side, illustrating two different aspects of the Japanese mentality.

Perhaps the single most characteristic Japanese creation is the traditional Japanese house, which, with its use of natural, often unfinished, materials, and its free flowing space and functional construction, is one of the great achievements of world architecture. Closely related to it is the Japanese garden, which in its finest examples such as the gardens of the Zen temples and the teahouse gardens of the 16th century, is second to none in this art form.

In painting, the spirited calligraphic line and the emphasis on abstract color patterns are typical of Japanese art, while in sculpture a preference for wood and a feeling for the plastic form are noticeable. In the decorative arts, the Japanese craftsmen rank among the finest of all times and civilizations. In lacquerwork and textiles they surpass even the Chinese, who had taught them these arts. Japanese porcelains have enjoyed great popularity and were much imitated in Europe, and Japanese pottery has exerted a profound influence on ceramics of modern Europe and the United States.

During the years since the Meiji Restoration, Japanese art has been greatly affected by the contact with the Western world, and Japanese contemporary art has become part of the international modern art movement.

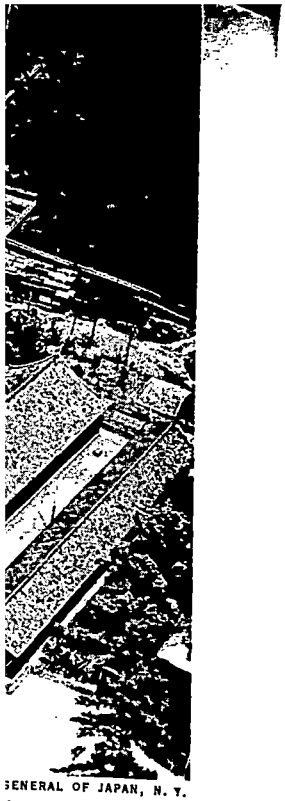
HUGO MUNSTERBERG
New York State University College at New Paltz

17. Architecture

Although Japanese architecture owes much of its development to foreign influences, it nevertheless evolved its own unique style on the bases of utility and the availability of raw materials.

ANCIENT PERIOD

The Jomon and Yayoi Periods (About 5500 B.C.–200 A.D.). The names Jomon and Yayoi are derived from the types of pottery created by two successive early societies. Architectural remains from the Jomon period, in addition to dwellings, include a number of circular stone groupings, dating from the later years of the period. They are found in the Tohoku (northeast) district of Honshu, Japan's main island, and on the northern-



ENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.
f the Asuka period.

most island of Hokkaido. The largest group is at Oyu in Akita prefecture. In this latter set, various stone groups are arranged in two large concentric circles, the outer of which has a diameter of nearly 164 feet (50 meters). Between the two circles are two other particularly beautiful stone groups. It is unclear whether these stone arrangements are collections of grave stones or the remains of religious worship sites.

Cave dwellings like those found in Europe and China are rare in Japan. The overwhelming majority of dwelling remains are of the *tateana*, or pit-dwelling, type. Though called pits, the holes in which the houses were built are less than one meter deep. In the Jomon period, these pits were either elliptical or rectangular with rounded corners; but in the Yayoi period, round plans predominated. Whatever the plan shape, however, most of the dwellings had a hearth near the center, about four posts sunk into the ground, and a grass thatch roof.

Yayoi period houses include, in addition to pit dwellings, houses with floors raised above the ground (*takayuka* houses). At a place called Toro in Shizuoka prefecture, remains of a number of pit dwellings and of one wooden building with a raised floor have been uncovered. The presence nearby of a rice field suggests that the latter may have been a granary, but in the succeeding Kofun, or Tumulus, period, the elevated house was to become the residence of the Japanese aristocracy, just as the pit dwelling was to develop into the commoner's house, which traditionally has one room with a dirt floor (*doma*).

The Kofun Period (About 200–552 A. D.). Deriving its name from the vast grave mounds (*kofun*) constructed at that time, this period of Japanese cultural development corresponds to the Iron Age. Two architectural forms became especially developed during this period: the huge grave mounds erected by the people for their clan chieftains and the Shinto shrines.

The Grave Mounds. The great tumuli, or grave mounds, of the period, unlike the round or square ones found in China, have a ground plan shaped like a keyhole, with square front and rounded back. The front section of the mound is where the funeral ceremonies took place. The round rear section houses a stone chamber that serves as the crypt. These grave mounds are always surrounded by moats.

The largest of these mounds, believed to commemorate Emperor Nintoku (reigned 313–400 A.D.), is located near Sakai city in Osaka prefecture. It was built about the middle of the 4th century. This mound is 1,560 feet (475 meters) long, and the square front section is 980 feet (300 meters) wide. The circular rear section has a diameter of 800 feet (245 meters). Surrounded by a triple moat, the mound is so large that it can easily be mistaken for a hill.

Shinto Shrines. Shinto, the indigenous Japanese religion, is derived from a form of nature worship that needed no images and therefore no buildings to house them. As the religion became more sophisticated, however, temporary sanctuaries were built in traditional localities for the use of gods, who were thought to make periodic visits, such as during the growing and harvesting seasons. In time these shrines came to be semipermanent, but they were still periodically destroyed and rebuilt in conformity to Shinto tenets of purification. Even today the famous Ise Grand Shrines (q.v.) are rebuilt every 20 years. The shrines are built in accordance with the raised-floor plan used for building houses of the aristocracy.

In all probability, the plans of the two oldest Japanese shrines, the Izumo Taisha (q.v.) and the Ise shrine, were completed by the end of the 3d century. Neither shrine has foundation stones —instead their elevated board floors rest on posts sunk in the ground—and they have board walls surmounted by gabled roofs that are thatched with miscanthus grass. At Izumo the entrance is in the gable end of the building, whereas at Ise it is in the side parallel with the ridge of the roof. These famous buildings are the original representatives of two styles of shrine building: the *Taisha-zukuri*, named for the Izumo Taisha, and the *Shimmei-zukuri*, the style used at Ise. The Izumo shrine is believed to have once been 164 feet (50 meters) tall.

The Asuka and Nara Periods (552–794). With the introduction of Buddhism from Korea and its adoption by the Japanese aristocracy, a flood of Chinese cultural influence swept over Japan. Up to this time Japanese architectural techniques were limited to post-and-beam construction and thatched roofs. Therefore it is not surprising that the Japanese of the day regarded the Chinese-style Buddhist temples with their stylobates, elaborate bracketing, gracefully curved eaves, tile roofs, and brilliant red, yellow, and green painted ornamentation as the epitome of architectural beauty. Equally awe-inspiring was the grandeur, as well as the loveliness, of the unified temple compounds surrounded by imposing corridors and fences.

Before the permanent capital was established at Nara in 710, most temples were faithful copies of Chinese models. It was estimated that by 625, only 70 years after the introduction of Buddhism, a total of 46 temples were built in Japan. This tempo suggests that a large number of architects, artisans, and skilled workmen must have been brought in from the continent to participate in the building projects. Of the three most famous temples of that period—the Asuka-dera, the

KATSURA IMPERIAL VILLA near Kyoto includes several small houses amid its beautiful, quiet gardens.

JAPAN NATIONAL TOURIST ORGANIZATION





GEORGE HOLTON, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

OSAKA CASTLE towers 140 feet above the modern city. The present castle is a reconstruction of the original.

Shitenno-ji in Osaka, and the Horyu-ji at Nara—only the Horyu-ji remains in its original form. But, nonetheless, these buildings provide a wealth of information about the architecture of that time. The style elements found in these temples—the pronounced entasis of the columns, the distinctive cloud-shaped brackets, and the gammadion (swastika) patterns on the railings—were introduced in the 6th century from China and were totally alien to Japan.

Toward the end of the 7th century, continental cultural influence began to flow directly into Japan from China of the T'ang dynasty. The construction of Buddhist monasteries and temples accelerated and reached its peak with the building of the new Japanese capital at Nara.

Emergence of a Japanese Style. But the time of pure copying had passed. Japanese architectural proficiency had increased to the point at which native architects were making alterations and innovations in the plans, as well as in the details, of Chinese models to suit their own tastes and needs.

Temple compounds, formerly consisting of only a Kondo, or main hall, and one pagoda surrounded by a corridor, gave way to temples with two pagodas, as in the Yakushi-ji in Nara. Furthermore, additions of *mokoshi,* or covered balconies, to the graceful three-storied pagodas made these seem to have six stories. Eventually the pagodas were moved outside the surrounding covered walkways of the compounds to further heighten the splendor of the temple complex.

The Todai-ji. The most imposing temple in existence in Japan is the famous Todai-ji at Nara. Its Kondo, known as the Daibutsu-den, or Hall of the Great Buddha, was originally 288 feet (88 meters) long, 171 feet (52 meters) wide, and 154 feet (47 meters) high. It was rebuilt several times after repeated burnings and is now only two thirds its original size. Outside of the Kondo towered two 7-storied pagodas that were 328 feet (100 meters) high, each enclosed by separate walkways.

Of the main buildings of the Todai-ji, only the Tengai-mon, a gate, and the Shoso-in, a storehouse, remain. Nevertheless, a comparison of the earlier Asuka period temples with these structures and the Nara period Kondo of the Toshodai-ji reveals the emergence of elements of a definitely native Japanese style although still under palpable Chinese influence.

The Heian Period (794–1192). In 794 the capital was transferred from Heijokyo (Nara) to Heiankyo (modern Kyoto). About the same time two important esoteric Buddhist sects, the Tendai (T'ien-t'ai) and Shingon (Chen-yen), were introduced in Japan. These two events combined to influence the architectural design and planning of the period. Because the mountaintop locations favored by these Buddhist sects demanded a greater degree of adaptability to varied topography when new temples were built, the geometric placement pattern in temple planning particularly suited to the flat plain at Nara was abandoned. This new trend was further encouraged by the innate preference of the Japanese for asymmetrical placement. Although no temple of the period remains in its complete form today, the Enryaku-ji on Mt. Hiei and the Kongobu-ji on Mt. Koya, modified and rebuilt as they are, continue to evoke the atmosphere of the early Heian age.

After the first 100 years of the period, relations with China were severed, and architecture, escaping from Chinese influence, went through a process of transformation into a truly Japanese style. For instance, although traditional shrine architecture underwent modification as a result of Japan's contact with Buddhism, the Buddhist temple architecture brought into Japan did not remain unchanged. In many cases, cypress-bark shingles replaced tile roofs, and wooden floors, long used in Japanese residential building, appeared in place of the stone floors common to Chinese temples. Although the Kondo of the Buddhist temples retained a stone or tile-paved floor, the hall in which people worshiped the images came to be floored with wood.

The use of wooden flooring brought about the development of a raised peripheral veranda that cast dark horizontal shadows under the building. Furthermore, advances in roof and eaves construction made possible the projection of deep eaves that also cast dark shadows. The resulting emphasis on the horizontal lines of shadows cast from above and below accounts in part for the elegance and balance of Heian building design.

New Style Elements. The two outstanding style elements that developed out of this graceful horizontality—a concept not unlike the aesthetics of ancient European architecture—are the Amida Hall and the aristocratic residential style called *shinden-zukuri,* both perfected in the late Heian period.

As Buddhism became chiefly the faith of the nobility and ceased to be national, devotion shifted from the complicated esoteric sects to the Jodo (Ching-t'u) or Pure Land faith of the Amida Buddha, and the aristocracy built lovely halls to house statues of Amida in the precincts of their mansions. The most outstanding example

of this type of Amida Hall, painted in bright colors and ornamented with mother-of-pearl and metal filigree, is the Hoodo (Phoenix Hall) of the Byodo-in at Uji, near Kyoto, but the sparse ornamentation and the cypress-shingle roof of the Amida Hall at the Hokai-ji, in Hino, a southwestern suburb of Kyoto, conveys a more Japanese feeling.

Developed from the older elevated-floor house, the Heian aristocratic mansion was made up of a main hall (*shinden*), which faced south, and outbuildings (*tainoya*) around it. The *shinden* opened onto a garden with a pond, and covered corridors connected all parts of the building complex. At the edge of the pond customarily stood a pavilion, called a *tsuridono*, also connected with the rest of the buildings by a covered corridor. No *shinden-zukuri* mansions remain today, but the Imperial Palace in Kyoto is a careful reconstruction based on the style of the Heian period.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

As in Europe, the Middle Ages in Japan was a time for soldiers and priests, and the country's architecture reflected this. A new wave of Chinese Buddhism initiated new philosophies in architecture that were perpetuated far beyond the medieval periods.

The Kamakura Period (1192–1333). As a result of renewed contact with China, this time with the Sung dynasty, Japanese architecture developed two new architectural styles. One of these styles, called the Daibutsu-yo, was used in the reconstruction of the Todai-ji at Nara, which possesses a famous Daibutsu (q.v.); the other was the later Zen style of architecture, imported with the Zen (Ch'an) Buddhist sect.

Harried by wars and civil disturbances, the aristocrats and the newly created, nihilistic warrior class welcomed contemplative, anti-intellectual Zen. As a result, the Zen architectural style acquired great popularity and was used for many other building types as well as for temple structures. In contrast to the older Japanese styles, which emphasized gentleness, horizontal lines, ornamentation, and craftsmanship, the new Zen style tended to verticality and was structurally and architecturally more powerful. Although made of wood, Zen buildings seem to share a design mood with Gothic cathedrals, and the somber aridity of the gardens usually built in Zen temple precincts intensifies the similarity of mood by its austere silence.

Spaced at a considerable distance along a single axis, the main components of the typical Zen temple monastery are the main gate (*sammon*), the Buddha Hall (*Butsuden*), the lecture hall (*hatto*), and the abbot's quarters (*hojo*). Although no Zen temples of the Kamakura period remain in their complete form, such genuine relics as the Shariden (Hall of Relics) of the Engaku-ji, in Kamakura, and restored temples such as the Kencho-ji, also in Kamakura, and the Tofuku-ji, Daitoku-ji, and Myoshin-ji, all in Kyoto, suggest their original plan and form.

In contrast to the traditional gentle style of the older temples, the Zen style employs towering, steep roofs that demand an upward gaze, and the emphasis is invariably on the existence of the building itself. The technique of using wider bays in the middle of the building and narrowing the others progressively by about one-third per bay as they approach the four base corners produces a compact facade. The use of elaborate bracketing to support the eaves, not only above the columns but between them as well, creates impressive volume. On the inside, large curved beams, called shrimp beams (*ebikoryo*), contribute to a sense of structural might. Whereas older architectural ornament consisted largely of painting, that of Zen buildings is mostly sculpture.

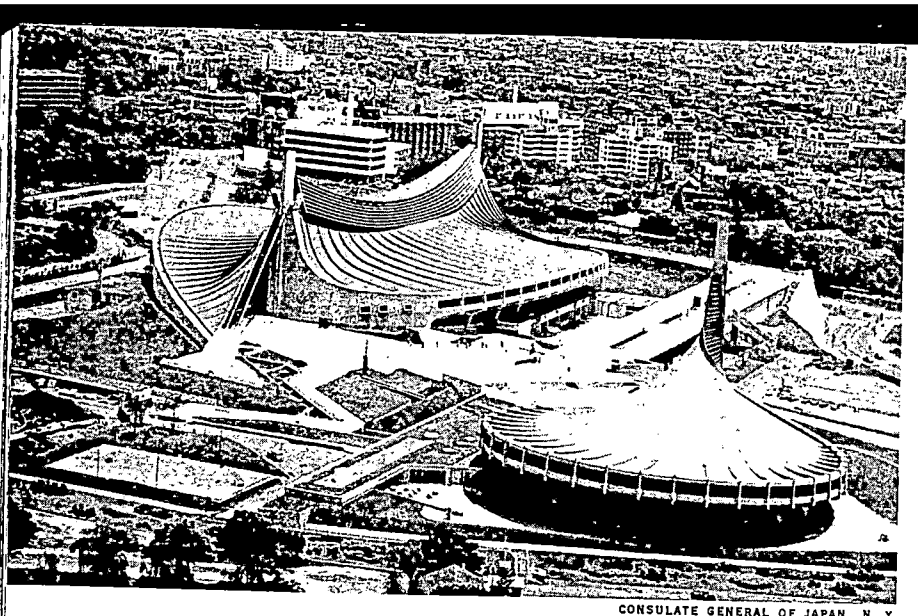
Recalling the styles imported in the earlier Asuka period, Zen architecture displays the self-assertive, man-made quality born on the plains of China rather than emitting the feeling of Japanese styling, which tends to harmonize the building with the natural setting. As is true of all other styles throughout Japanese history, however, the Zen style, too, began to undergo a process of Japanization soon after its importation.

The Muromachi Period (1333–1573). During the Middle Ages, Zen Buddhism spread throughout Japan. Instead of overwhelming the gentler traditional Japanese style, Zen architecture had the

CONSULATE GENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.



GOLDEN PAVILION, or Kinkaku, in Kyoto was designed for Ashikaga Yoshimitsu, a shogun of the Muromachi period. This building is an exact replica of the original.



CONSULATE GENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.

THE NATIONAL INDOOR STADIUM, built for the 1964 Tokyo Olympics, was designed by internationally famous Japanese architect Tange Kenzo.

tendency of merging with it, and produced eclectic forms that influenced a number of architectural types, including that of residential buildings.

Hitherto, residences in Japan had no second stories. Their use first became popular in Zen temple complexes, such as the temple main gate and parts of the abbot's quarters. The purpose, of course, was to give the residents a vantage point to view the area surrounding the temple compound. The use of a second story also became popular in the pavilions that were built in the spacious gardens of the Muromachi aristocrats. For instance, Kyoto's famous Kinkaku (Golden Pavilion), now a part of the temple complex called the Rokuon-ji, was originally a pavilion in the elaborate retreat of the third Ashikaga shogun, Yoshimitsu (1358–1408). Across the city, on Higashiyama, the villa of the eighth shogun, Ashikaga Yoshimasa, now the temple Jisho-ji, contains a similar building called the Ginkaku, or Silver Pavilion.

The Golden Pavilion, a three-storied building, has two residential floors—the first and second—and a Zen chapel on the third. The Silver Pavilion has only two stories, of which the first is residential and the second houses a chapel. Both buildings have a masterful combination of Japanese residential and Zen architectural styles, so harmoniously blended that they betray no feeling of eclecticism at first glance. The pavilions of the Muromachi period are particularly important because they contain the design seed of the castle donjon (central tower), the architectural climax of the succeeding Momoyama period.

Gradually, to meet the needs of an increasingly complex way of life, the *shinden* residential style, suited to the sedate ceremonies and amusements of times gone by, began to assume more practical aspects by discarding Chinese symmetry in favor of more utilitarian placement. Simultaneously, increased partitioning of interior spaces developed wider functional versatility than had been possible in the older buildings, where one room, or at most two rooms, per building was the rule. The greater number of rooms created the need for light partitioning elements such as *fusuma* (paper-covered sliding doors), *shoji* (lattice doors filled with paper), and sliding wooden doors. Square posts, which better accommodate sliding partitions, took the place of round columns, *tatami* (straw mats) became the customary floor covering, and true ceilings also came into use instead of exposed beams.

The most important change in the interior of residence was the creation of a special room outfitted with an ornamental alcove (*toko*) for the display of scrolls, flowers, or art objects, a set of ornamented shelves (*tana*) for display and storage purposes, and a window with a low, built-in writing desk. Intended for use of the master and his guests, this room, the *shoin*, gave its name to the residential style in which it was an indispensable element. This so-called *shoin*-style usually included houses consisting of the *shoin* room itself, a waiting room (*tsugi-no-ma*) in front of the *shoin*, and sleeping quarters. New for this period, the *shoin* became the vital feature of the magnificent mansions of the generals of the following age.

During the Muromachi period, in cities and towns all over the country the creation of occupational *za*, organizations similar to European guilds, greatly improved the level of design and building technology.

MODERN PERIOD

It may be said that Japanese architecture experienced two "modern" ages: the first occurred immediately preceding and during the first part of the Edo period, after the country emerged from years of warfare. The second was preceded by the opening of Japan to the West.

The Momoyama Period (1573–1615). Though brief, the Momoyama period represents a flowering of the humanities after a long period of cultural decay brought about by the constant wars of the Middle Ages. Two outstanding military leaders, Oda Nobunaga and Toyotomi Hideyoshi, brought unity to the shattered nation. One of Japan's most brilliant tea-ceremony masters and designers, Sen-no-Rikyu, was active in this period, and the artistic proficiency of workmen and artisans, as well as this wealth of the townspeople, attained a high level. The two representative architectural types of the age indicate the primary currents of taste: the vast, imposing castles and palaces of the generals and the small, but spiritually exalted, teahouses.

Unfortunately, the greatest of Nobunaga's and Hideyoshi's castles, those at Azuchi, Fushimi, and Osaka, all burned, and today modern ferro-concrete reconstructions stand in their places. However, authentic structures at Himeji, Matsumoto, and Hikone remain in their original form. As the most important building in the castle compound, and as the lookout point and command

post, the donjon (*tenshukaku*) is naturally also the tallest structure. Designed to display the power and dignity of the castle lord, this building is usually ornamented with many roofs, gables of various shapes, and decorative windows. The walls of the donjon are covered with white plaster to prevent exposure of wooden members and increase the building's fire resistance. Against a blue sky these towering walls present a truly imposing picture.

The residential buildings within the castle enclosure employed the *shoin* style, perfected by the end of the Middle Ages, and were divided into a section for the lord, one for guests, one for the lord's family, and one for retainers. Since the residences of the *daimyo* (q.v.) symbolized wealth and standing, they were often extremely costly affairs, with richly painted and gilded sliding doors and murals, ceilings and frieze rails, and with elaborately carved metal covers to hide nailheads. As can be seen from examples at the Nijo Castle in Kyoto, the ceiling paintings and the filigree carving in the transoms above the sliding dors were frequently of the highest artistic quality.

The people who demanded artistic excellence in the glittering castles and palaces of the Momoyama period required no less of the small, rural, natural-looking buildings best represented by the Soan-style teahouse, perfected by Sen-no-Rikyu. These buildings, constructed by methods adapted from farmhouses and with materials in their natural, raw forms, show a striving for a beauty of irregularity and for spaces accommodating a minimum of movement but in tune with spiritual concentration. For people caught up in a world of activity, the calm of the teahouse and the refinement of the tea ceremony performed in it provided the ultimate in rest and consolation. The Taian at the Myokian, a temple at Yamazaki, near Kyoto, is only one of many beautiful teahouses created during this period.

The Edo Period (1615–1867). Although the *shoin* style of the Momoyama period continued in use after the establishment of the Tokugawa Shogunate, the Edo feudal government, for economic reasons, imposed sumptuary laws forbidding decorative excesses. The result was a calmer and less ornate *shoin* style. In the construction of tombs to memorialize deceased shoguns, however, no expense was spared.

The most famous example of the lavish ornament used for these mausoleums is the Toshogu Shrine at Nikko, built to commemorate Tokugawa Ieyasu, the founder of the Tokugawa government. Begun in 1634, the buildings are said to have required 78,000 carpenters, plus numerous painters, metal craftsmen, lacquerers, and other specialized artisans. The workmanship is undoubtedly of the finest, although the ornament somehow recalls the excesses of the European baroque style. The placement of the buildings among towering cryptomeria trees on the slope of a mountain is unquestionably of Japanese taste.

In time the teahouse style, perfected in the preceding period, pervaded general residential architecture, and the result was an almost unornamented, simple, airy version of the *shoin* style called the *sukiya*.

One of the finest examples of this type is the internationally famous Katsura Imperial Villa. Nestling in a promenade garden of some 50 square miles (13,000 hectares) that is ornamented with artificial hills, ponds, countless trees and shrubs, and containing teahouses and waiting pavilions, the villa itself consists of three sections. The first section, the Old Shoin (Koshoin) follows orthodox *shoin* style. The Middle Shoin (Chushoin) employs some wooden material with its bark left on after the fashion of the teahouse. The third section, the New Palace (Shingoten), makes use of the *sukiya* style in the treatment of every detail, including the *shoin*, shelves, transoms, and ornamental nail covers of the frieze rails.

Other excellent examples of *sukiya* design are the Kuroshoin of the Nishihongan-ji and the Kohoan Bosen Room at the Daitoku-ji in Kyoto and at the Jikoin in Koizumi, Nara. All of these freely discard the ponderous rigidity of the *shoin* style and incorporate the profound natural qualities of the teahouse.

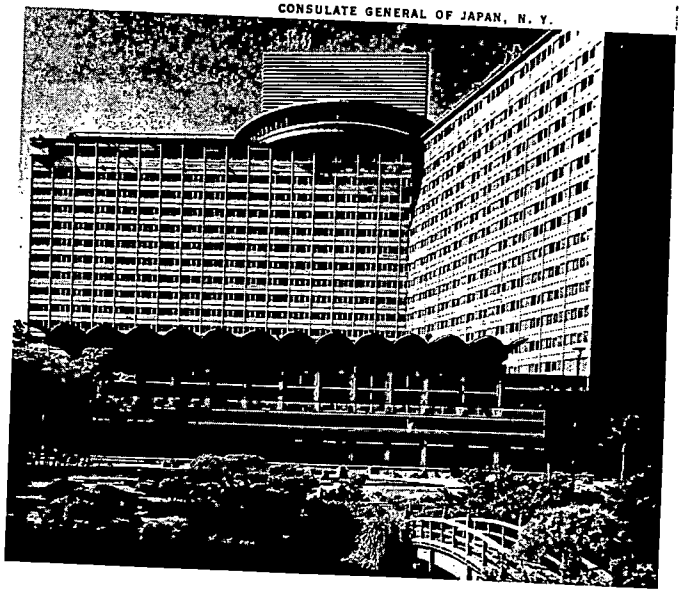
Although there seems to be a lack of great buildings in the latter half of the Edo period, the rise of the commercial class inspired the construction of a number of interesting places of amusement. For instance, around the large main halls of such popular temples as the Zenko-ji at Nagano and the Senso-ji in Tokyo, Kabuki theater districts sprang up. Restaurant quarters and the licensed prostitution districts acquired such handsome buildings as the splendid Sumiya in Kyoto.

The Meiji Period (1867–1912). The fall of the Tokugawa government and the resulting end of an extended period of isolation opened Japan to a great wave of influences from Europe and America. In architecture, the move toward Westernization began during the last years of the Edo period and took the form first of Western-style ornaments or rooms appended to Japanese-style buildings and later of Western-looking buildings constructed according to the principles of Japanese building methods.

In the 1870's, however, the Meiji government began the construction of a series of official buildings and imported British, French, and German architects to Japan to design them and to supervise their construction. The best known of them

NEW OTANI HOTEL in Tokyo is the largest hotel in Japan. A rotating restaurant tops off its 17 stories.

CONSULATE GENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.



was Josiah Conder, a British architect who worked and taught in Japan and was credited with establishing the Japanese school of Western building techniques.

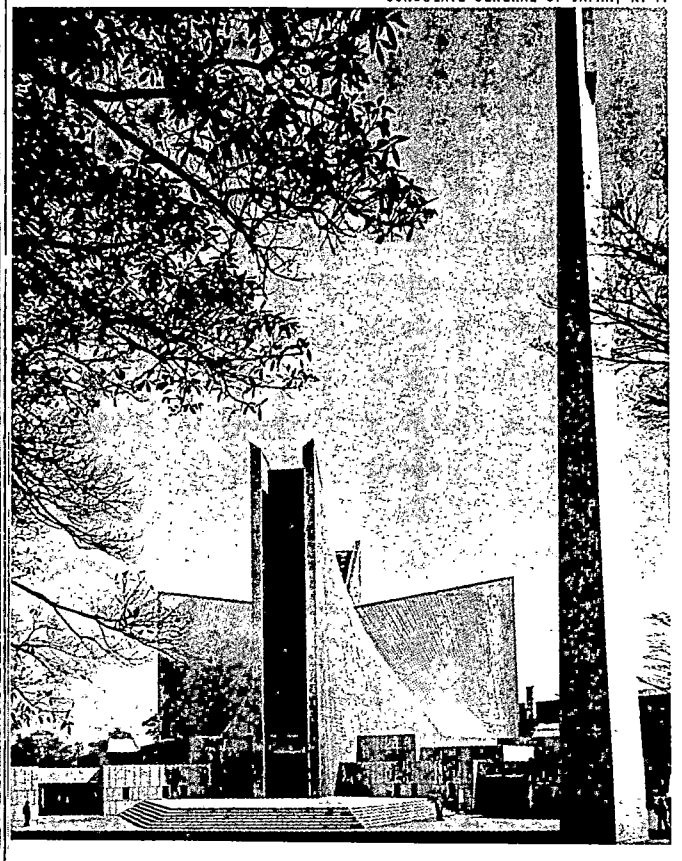
Building materials changed from the traditional wood to brick and stone, and the popular design themes in Japan, as in the West, became a potpourri of the styles of many regions and historical periods. Famous Meiji buildings in Tokyo designed by foreigners include the brick Rokumeikan, an official reception hall, in an Italian Renaissance design; the Ueno Museum, also made of brick, but in an Indian-Saracen motif; the brick Ministry of Justice in German style; and the Russian Orthodox Cathedral of St. Nicholas in a combination of Byzantine, Italian, and British styles.

The last years of the Meiji period correspond to the age when art nouveau and the secessionist movement in art were losing their power and when Auguste Perret and Peter Behrens were beginning to use steel and reinforced concrete in early modern architecture in the West. In Japan, however, government-employed architects of foreign origin, who had had no experience with the modern architecture movement, tended to maintain the status quo of historical styling and continued to build in stone and brick.

Nevertheless, steel and reinforced concrete building eventually made its entry into Japan and found application first in small buildings that were to set an example for the extensive use of new materials and architectural styling for years to come. One large Meiji period building in which a steel frame was used is the Kokugikan sumo-wrestling stadium in Ryogoku, Tokyo, which is a dome-covered circular building 196 feet (60 meters) in diameter.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CATHEDRAL of Tokyo has four steep roofs that meet in the center to form a cross.

CONSULATE GENERAL OF JAPAN, N. Y.



Taisho-Showa (1912–). World War I inspired rapid development in Japan's heavy industry, with the result that many steel-frame and reinforced concrete buildings were built. Almost all of them, however, followed European style guidelines. During the same period, American-style office buildings began to appear in the downtown districts of Tokyo and Osaka. In 1920 the Bunriha Kenchikukai, which might be called the Japanese secession, began its fight against the continued use of traditional historical styles and for the establishment of truly modern architecture. The American architect Frank Lloyd Wright, who went to Japan to design the Imperial Hotel, stimulated young architects to some extent, but most of the works of the Bunriha group indicate a stronger influence from German expressionism.

At the beginning of the Showa period in 1926, Japanese architects, traveling to France and Germany to study with Le Corbusier and at the Bauhaus, were at last able to transplant directly to Japanese soil the seeds of modern architecture. With the invasion of China in the 1930's and the beginning of World War II, however, modern architecture became overshadowed by a sudden disdain for modern styles. Concrete and steel were forced to serve the purpose of conservative Japanese forms topped with traditional tile roofs —the National Museum in Ueno, Tokyo, is one example.

After World War II, Japan's economic recovery inspired renewed interest and rapid development in modern building. In 1952, Maekawa Kunio designed the Nihon Sogo Bank, the first building in Japan to make complete use of a curtain wall. A prewar student of Le Corbusier, Maekawa proved that Japan could compete with the architecture of the advanced nations of the West. He later designed the Kanagawa Prefectural Auditorium and Library, the Kyoto Municipal Auditorium, and the Tokyo Municipal Cultural Center. He received France's Auguste Perret Award and became vice chairman of the Union Internationale des Architects (UIA).

Tange Kenzo, who won international acclaim for the Hiroshima Peace Center, later designed the Kanagawa Prefectural Office, in which he combined Japanese tradition with modern architectural principles. His National Indoor Stadium at Yoyogi, built for the 1964 Tokyo Olympics, is a superb design employing a huge suspension roof. Tange received gold medal awards from the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA) and the American Institute of Architects (AIA). Other notable contemporary architects include Horiguchi Sutemi, formerly a central figure in the Bunriha; Taniguchi Kichiro, Yoshimura Junzo, and Oe Hiroshi, who have made good use of the architectural traditions of Japan in their designs; and Ashihara Yoshinobu and Maki Fumihiko, who became the leaders of the second generation of modern architects.

YUICHIRO KOJIRO
Meiji University, Japan

Further Reading: Bognar, Botond, *Contemporary Japanese Architecture: Its Development and Challenge* (Van Nostrand Reinhold 1985); Itoh, Teiji, *The Classic Tradition in Japanese Architecture* (Weatherhill 1972).



CONTEMPORARY SCREEN features panels by Munakata Shiko, a leading 20th century wood-block artist noted for Buddhist subjects in modern style.

THE BROOKLYN MUSEUM

18. Painting and Calligraphy

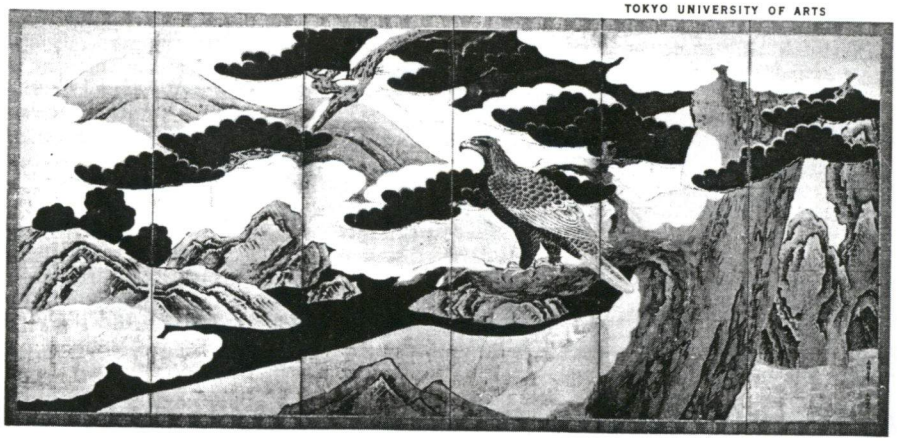
The beginnings of the pictorial arts of Japan may be traced back some 2,000 years to the Yayoi period, when the ancestors of the present-day Japanese arrived from the mainland of Asia. Although very little of this early period has been preserved, the incised designs on the ceramic vessels and, above all, the low relief pictures on the bronze bells, or *dotaku*, give some idea of what the pictorial arts must have looked like. The scenes depicted are taken from Yayoi life, showing human figures in various occupations, as well as animals, birds, boats, and buildings, all executed in a very linear style, and already resembling the kind of calligraphic drawing that is characteristic of Japanese painting throughout the ages.

Somewhat later, dating from the Grave Mound period in the 5th and 6th centuries A.D., are the tomb paintings found in Fukuoka prefecture on Kyushu, the southernmost of the Japanese islands. Seventy-two such tombs have been discovered, with paintings usually decorating the walls of the funerary chamber and the room leading to it. The paintings, which were executed in color on a thin layer of clay, are crude in style and represent either figurative subjects such as men, horses, and boats, or geometric designs that probably were symbolical in character although their meaning is not always apparent today.

The Asuka and Nara Periods (592–794). A fully developed school of painting did not arise in Japan until the introduction of Buddhism from Korea in 552 A.D. This earliest historical period of Japanese art is known as the Asuka period (592–710), after the region in which the capital was then located. The source of this new, more highly developed art was the Korean kingdom of Paekche, from which Buddhist missionaries and artisans came to Japan bringing scriptures with sacred sutras, icons, and banners. Soon Buddhist temples sprang up all over Japan, the most famous of which is the Horyu–ji in Nara. Among the numerous artistic treasures at this site is a miniature shrine known as the Tamamushi shrine, which dates from the middle of the 7th century. On the doors and the panels decorating the base are paintings depicting scenes from Buddhist legend. Executed in color on lacquered wood, they are works of considerable sophistication, no doubt reflecting the artistic style of the mainland. In fact, the tall, graceful figures of the Bodhisattvas on the doors with their beautiful sense of linear design are close to the art of China of the Sui dynasty (581–618). Also outstanding are the Jataka scenes depicting episodes from the previous incarnations of the Buddha.

With the Nara period (710–794), Japanese painting came under the influence of the T'ang dynasty art of China and was stimulated to a period of great activity. While very few Asuka period paintings have survived, far more paintings dating from the Nara period are available. The most celebrated was a series of wall paintings in the Kondo at Horyu-ji that, after surviving 1,200 years, was unfortunately destroyed by fire in 1949. The subjects represented were Buddhist paradise scenes, Bodhisattvas, arhats (holy men),

TOKYO UNIVERSITY OF ARTS



SCREEN PAINTING of a hawk in a pine tree is by Kano Eitoku, the founder of a school of richly colored screen painting in Japan's Momoyama period.



MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, BOSTON

(*Left*) GEIAMI'S *Jittoku Laughing at the Moon* typifies the muted Chinese-style ink paintings of the Muromachi period.

(*Right*) SHARAKU'S *Mitsugoro II as Ishii Genzo* conveys the vigor of this Edo artist's actor prints.



MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, BOSTON

and apsaras (angels). The style of these paintings was basically very linear, although some shading was employed. The quality of the murals was uniformly high, indicating that by this time the Japanese had fully mastered this art.

In addition to the Horyu-ji murals, there are various scroll paintings, some of which are of the horizontal type, such as the famous Ingakyo Buddhist sutra with its charming illustrations that portray episodes from the Buddha's life. Others are vertical scrolls, such as the delicate picture of Kichijoten, the goddess of beauty and good fortune, who is portrayed as an elegant court lady. While all of these works were painted in bright colors, other pictorial designs were executed in ink only, in a free calligraphic style, a picture of a Bodhisattva on a cloud being particularly notable. While the bulk of Nara painting was religious in character, even at this time there was some secular work, such as the landscape or bird and flower motifs ornamenting objects of the decorative arts.

The Heian Period (794–1185). With the removal of the capital from Nara to Heiankyo (present-day Kyoto), a completely new epoch began that lasted almost 400 years. The painting of the early part of the Heian period is marked by the influence of esoteric Buddhism, especially that of the Shingon sect, which had been introduced from China in 806 by the great Buddhist teacher Kukai. The icons associated with this sect show new Buddhist deities of an often strange and mysterious kind. Most striking are the Myo-o, or the five Great Kings, notably Fudo, who is represented as a fierce and awe-inspiring guardian of the Buddhist faith. The appearance of these deities is often grotesque, with multiple heads and arms in keeping with the Hindu conventions that had profoundly influenced this type of art. The other kind of painting associated with Shingon was the Mandara (Mandala), a magic diagram representing the Buddha world, with the great cosmic Buddha Dainichi in the center and other deities and sacred beings grouped around him.

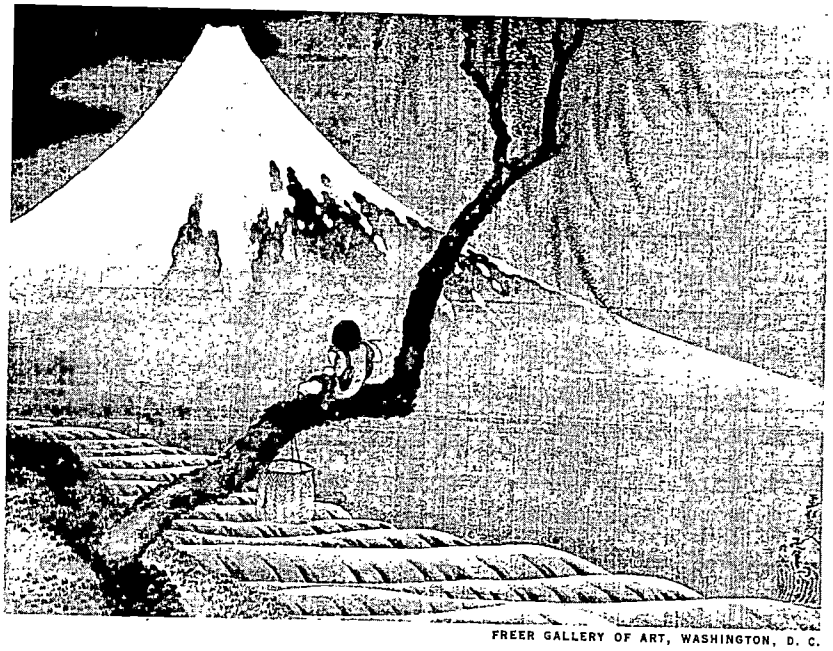
The Buddhist painting of the later Heian period (898–1185) is very different in spirit, reflecting the elegance and sophistication so characteristic of this period. The chief deity was now Amida, the Buddha of the Western Paradise, into whose realm the faithful hope to be reborn. The most famous of such representations is the large triptych at the Koyasan monastery that shows Amida surrounded by music-making Bodhisattvas. Perhaps the single most celebrated Buddhist painting of this period is the one showing the death of Sakyamuni. In it the ultimate peace of the Buddha who has entered the Nirvana is contrasted with the sorrow and lamentation of his followers. In both these works, the delicacy of the brushwork and the refinement of the coloring are characteristic of the painting of the later Heian period. Other types of religious paintings typical of the period are portraits of contemporary religious teachers.

The most important development in the art of the later Heian period was the rise of an indigenous school of painting called Yamato-e after an old name for Japan. While most Buddhist painting had continued under Chinese influence, this new school was typically Japanese both in its style and in the subjects portrayed. Most of the Yamato-e paintings were long narrative scrolls consisting of text and illustrations relating to Japanese history and literature. The most famous is the scroll containing the *Tale of Genji*, the great 11th century Japanese novel. Here the Yamato-e style is at its best, with its emphasis on narrative and its beautiful sense of abstract design.

While the *Genji* scroll was executed in bright colors, the other famous Heian period scrolls, the four scrolls called *Animal Caricatures*, traditionally ascribed to the abbot Toba-Sojo (Kakuyu), are rendered in black and white with a fine



FINE ARTS, BOSTON



KATSUSHIKA HOKUSAI painted this view of Mount Fuji in the first half of the 19th century. Hokusai excelled in portraying scenes of the Japanese landscape.

FREER GALLERY OF ART, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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sense of calligraphic line. In these scrolls the corruption of the clergy of the Heian period is satirized in the manner of an Aesop's fable, with the various types of corrupt clergy depicted as frogs, rabbits, monkeys, and foxes. Two other celebrated Heian scrolls, whose style is midway between the abstract and colorful manner of the *Genji* and the linear black and white of the *Animal Caricatures*, are the *Shigisan Engi* scroll, depicting the legends about a pious monk on Mt. Shigi, and the *Ban Dainagon* scroll, which describes a political intrigue of Heian times.

The Kamakura Period (1185–1333). Yamato-e painting continued to flourish during the Kamakura period. In keeping with the new military spirit, however, the favorite subjects now were scenes of warfare, particularly of the Mongol invasion and the Heiji wars. The style of these 13th century scrolls is more realistic than earlier works, with a wealth of dramatic detail. Other famous Kamakura narrative paintings show the life of contemporary religious teachers, such as the *Ippen Shonin Eden*, on the life of the monk Ippen, and still others depict legends and stories of famous Shinto shrines. They are not only fine works of art but also fascinating social documents.

Along with Yamato-e, other types of painting flourished, notably landscapes and portraits. Relatively little of this art has survived, but among the extant works the *Nachi Waterfall* scroll and the *Sensui Byobu* landscape screen are the finest in the first category, and the portraits of Minamoto Yoritomo, the founder of the Kamakura shogunate, and of Daito Kokushi, a famous Zen master, are the most outstanding in the second. The portraits combine a realistic likeness with a penetrating portrayal of personality, and they are among the first real portraits in Japanese art. The Kamakura period was also outstanding for its Buddhist painting, which by and large followed the conventions of the Heian pictures. Particularly popular were the Amida Raigo paintings showing the golden form of the Amida Buddha appearing over the green mountains of Japan.

The Muromachi Period (1333–1573). With the advent of the Ashikaga rule during the Muromachi period, Kyoto once again became the capital, and new artistic tendencies emerged. The dominant influences were Zen Buddhism and the Chinese culture of the Sung period. In contrast to the colorful narrative paintings of typically Japanese subjects that had marked the previous centuries, the painting of the Muromachi period tended to be monochromes representing Chinese subjects as well as the landscape of China.

This artistic tradition was centered in the great Zen monasteries, and many of the outstanding painters were Zen monks. The most illustrious was Sesshu (1420–1506), who actually visited China and was received there with great honors. Surviving from his work are several long hand-scrolls and a number of hanging scrolls depicting the picturesque landscapes of southern China. They show the mastery of his brushwork and the depth of his inspiration. Sesshu was merely one of a large group of Chinese-style painters active in Japan during the Muromachi period when this kind of ink painting was at its height. The earliest of these artists copied their Chinese models slavishly, but beginning with Shubun in the early 15th century, ink painting became more Japanese in character.

The artist usually credited with establishing a truly Japanese school of ink painting is Kano Motonobu (1476–1539), the founder of the Kano school. Next to landscapes, the favorite subjects of the Muromachi painters were themes taken from Zen Buddhism, such as representations of Daruma, the semilegendary patriarch of this sect, or the humorous pair Kanzan and Jittoku, who attained true happiness by realizing that the Buddha is not found in sutras or pious deeds but in the heart of the believer. Other Buddhist pictures show portraits of the great Zen masters in which the spiritual nature of these men is beautifully expressed.

The Momoyama Period (1573–1603). The subsequent age, which is called the Momoyama period after the name of Hideyoshi's great castle, is a very brief but important epoch that produced a great deal of magnificent painting. Although ink painting continued to be practiced and some of the Momoyama masterpieces were executed in this manner, the outstanding art works of this time were the gorgeous screen paintings that decorated the palaces and castles of the military dictators. Large in scale and combining bright colors with a lavish use of gold leaf, these works are



HORYU-JI TEMPLE, NARA

GRACEFUL FIGURES of the Asuka period embellish the lacquered doors of the Tamamushi shrine at Nara.

very imposing and give perfect expression to the spirit of the period.

The founder of this school of decorative screen painting was Kano Eitoku (1543–1590), the grandson of Kano Motonobu, whose grandiose screens have a boldness and vigor not seen in previous Japanese painting. Among the other outstanding Momoyama painters, the best was Hasegawa Tohaku (1539–1610), who excelled both in Chinese-style ink pictures and in colorful decorative paintings. Of the former, his masterpiece is a pair of screens showing pine trees in mist, while his best works of the latter genre are the magnificent screens in the Chishaku-in in Kyoto depicting the various seasons. Another type that is characteristic of the Momoyama period is the Namban painting, which shows Westerners in their foreign clothes and with their colorful ships. Before all Western art was suppressed, there existed for a brief period a school of European-style painting, but this was little more than a curiosity and had no lasting effect.

The Edo Period (1603–1868). The last age of traditional Japanese art was the Edo period, during which the Tokugawa shoguns ruled in Edo (present-day Tokyo). A period when Japan was both prosperous and peaceful, it was an age of great cultural flowering, with many schools of painting existing side by side. The official school, which enjoyed the patronage of the shoguns, was the Kano school, with Kano Tanyu (1607–1674) and his brother Kano Naonobu (1607–1650) as its most illustrious representatives. Working largely in monochrome in a style based on Chinese Sung dynasty and Japanese Muromachi period prototypes, they produced competent traditional ink paintings at their best but added little to the artistic traditions of Japan.

Far more original and more typically Japanese were the artists of the Sotatsu-Korin school, named after its two most famous members, Tawaraya Sotatsu (c. 1576–1643) and Ogata Korin (1658–1716). These masters, who based their style on the Yamato-e tradition and on the screen painting of the Momoyama period, produced genuinely indigenous work that was marked by bold flat areas of color and a fine sense of abstract design. Their subjects were Japanese motifs, such as the *Tale of Genji* and the scenery at Matsushima, one of the three beauty spots of Japan (*Nihon Sankei*), in contrast to the Chinese landscapes and stories favored by the Kano painters.

Two other prominent schools of Edo period painting were the realistic Okyo school and the Bunjinga, or Literati, painting, both of which reflected Chinese influences of the Ming and Ch'ing dynasties. The leading member of the first school was Maruyama Okyo (1733–1795), whose work combined a striking realism, due in part to the influence of Dutch engravings, with the decorative elements typical of Japan. Appealing both to the rich merchants of Osaka and the rising middle class, Okyo's art exerted a profound influence on all later Japanese painting. He had many followers, among them Goshun (1752–1811), who founded the Shijo school, and Mori Sosen (1749–1821), who is well known for his pictures of monkeys. The paintings of the Bunjinga school, on the other hand, were produced by gentlemen painters who worked for the cultured leisure class that looked down upon professional artists and who were inspired by the Southern School of Chinese painting. Among the numerous artists belonging to this school, the most famous is Ike-no-Taiga (1723–1776), whose paintings are executed in a free, rather abstract manner. Equally fine is Urakami Gyokudo (1745–1820), one of the most original and expressive of all Japanese artists. Although ultimately based on Chinese painting of the Eccentric school, Gyokudo's work is very individual in its brushwork and use of color. This high degree of individualism is also seen in the work of Zen painter Hakuin (1685–1768), who is a very profound artist of striking originality.

Finally, there is a school of genre painting called Ukiyo-e, which represented scenes from the life of the times. Its beginnings can be traced back to late Muromachi and Momoyama, but it was only in the Edo period that it became prominent. Although many of the artists who worked in this manner cannot be identified because they did not sign their works, the best of them have considerable artistic merit, and their paintings are always fascinating for the colorful picture they give of contemporary life.

The Modern Age. With the Meiji restoration of 1868, a completely new chapter in the history of Japanese art began. While Japan during the Edo period had been virtually cut off from contact with the outside world, it was now open to Western influence, with European artists coming to Japan as teachers and Japanese artists studying in Europe.

Meiji painters fall into two main groups: those who produced Western-style oil paintings, with subjects such as nudes and still lifes, and those who used traditional Japanese techniques and preferred subjects taken from Japanese life and legend. During the Meiji period (1868–1912), the outstanding Western-style painters were the realist Kuroda Kijoteru (1866–1924) and the impressionist Fujishima Takeji (1867–1943). Of the Japanese-style painters, the leading artists were the Nanga school painter Tomioka Tessai (1836–

1924), Kano Hogai (1828–1888), the last exponent of the Kano school, and Takeuchi Seiho (1864–1942) who continued the realistic style of Okyo. In the Taisho period (1912–1926) and even more the Showa period, which began in 1926, this division became even more pronounced with artists such as Yasui Sotaro (1888–1955) and Umehara Ryuzaburo (born 1888), working in the postimpressionist style, while Yokoyama Taikan (1868–1958) and Maeda Seison (born 1885) continued the Japanese tradition.

At first, the Japanese-style painters were more numerous, but as years went by, the Western-style artists became more and more important. This tendency was especially marked in the period following World War II, when the focal center of art for the Japanese painters shifted from Paris to New York, and the best-known Japanese abstract painter, Okada Kenzo (born 1905), actually moved to New York City. All the latest American art movements, such as abstract expressionism, happenings, pop, and op, have their Japanese equivalents, and it seems likely that in another generation Japanese painting will have become simply a local variation of international modern art.

JAPANESE CALLIGRAPHY

In both the Chinese and Japanese traditions, calligraphy is closely connected with painting, and it has often been said that to become a great painter one must first excel as a calligrapher. Often the picture and the accompanying inscription are seen as one artistic whole, as in the scrolls where Sotatsu painted the pictures and Koetsu provided the calligraphy. For the Japanese, beautiful writing is a distinct and significant art form that enjoys great popularity and to which even separate exhibitions are devoted. An outstanding calligrapher is considered the peer of a famous painter and is more highly esteemed than any sculptor or architect.

The script used by the Japanese was introduced from China during the early 5th century. It consists of countless characters whose skillful and artistic rendering is a challenge to the writer. Several different styles can be distinguished. The most important are Kaisho, a formal, conventional writing used for official documents and Buddhist texts; Sosho, a free, cursive style that is considered the most artistic and is favored for poetry and literary writing; and Gyosho, which falls somewhere between the other two styles and is preferred for compositions such as letters and diaries. There is also a very formal kind of writing called Tensho, which is based on archaic Chinese and is used for seals. During the early Heian period, a Japanese-style syllabic script was developed. This is called Kana and is usually employed in conjunction with the Chinese type of writing, which is called Kanji.

Connoisseurs of Japanese calligraphy usually regard the Nara period as the most outstanding for its highly formal calligraphy, while the Heian period is famous for its graceful, cursive script. Under the impact of Zen, a strong, expressive script showing marked originality and vigor was developed in the Muromachi period, while the modern age saw the emergence of a school of an abstract style called Zen-ei, or avant-garde calligraphy.

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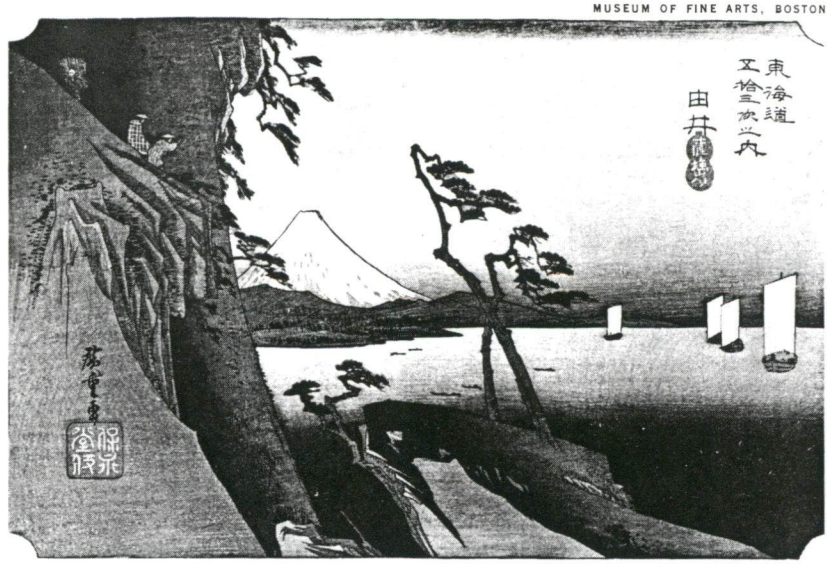
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19. Prints

The earliest Japanese wood-block prints are Buddhist texts from the Nara period, which date from around 770 A.D. and are the oldest printed texts in the world. Buddhist prints showing the various Buddhas and Bodhisattvas were made in large numbers during the Heian (794–1192) and Kamakura (1192–1333) periods. The best of these have considerable artistic merit, for they show a fine sense of pattern and a bold use of line. There are also some examples of narrative scrolls from the Heian period in the Yamato-e tradition that were printed in outline and then hand-colored, but by and large early Japanese prints were a cheap popular art form whose main

MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, BOSTON



LANDSCAPE SCENE in Ando Hiroshige's *Fifty-three Stages of the Tokaido Road* is typical of the prints by this artist of the late Edo period. His poetic style influenced many Western artists such as Paul Gauguin and James Whistler.

purpose was to supply inexpensive texts and religious pictures.

Ukiyo-e Prints. It was not until the Edo period during the early 17th century that Japanese woodblock printing became a flourishing art form. This development was largely due to the Ukiyo-e artist Hishikawa Moronobu (c. 1625–c. 1695), who took up printmaking as a suitable medium for mass-producing his compositions. *Ukiyo,* which means "floating world" in Japanese, refers to the world of Kabuki and to life in the pleasure quarters concentrated in the Yoshiwara district of 17th and 18th cenutry Edo (present-day Tokyo); *-e* means "painting" or "picture."

Using scenes from the life of the Yoshiwara district as his main subject matter, Moronobu established a new kind of popular art that had great appeal for the common people. Depicting the courtesans and Kabuki actors of this amusement district, Moronobu portrayed a world that was endlessly fascinating not only to the people of his own time but also to the modern viewer. His prints and illustrated books are also outstanding for their drawing and design, since Moronobu was an excellent artist.

Figure Prints. Among the artists working during the first half of the 18th century and usually called the "primitives" of Ukiyo-e, the most outstanding were those belonging to the Torii family, who specialized in theater prints, and the followers of Kaigetsudo Ando (c. 1700), who concentrated on the portrayal of beautiful courtesans. Some of the most famous were Torii Kiyonobu (1664–1729) and Torii Kiyomasu (1694–1716), who were celebrated for their actor prints, which represented Kabuki idols in their various roles. The style of these early prints is bold and simple, with a vigorous use of line and a wonderful feeling for pattern. They were always printed in black and white, but sometimes they were hand-colored in orange-red, in which case they were called *tan-e* prints, or in rose red, these being known as *beni-e.*

Next came the two-color print, which was developed around 1741 and had delicate pinks and pale greens as the dominant tones. This type of print, which was called *benizuri-e,* proved immensely popular. Ishikawa Toyonobu (1711–1785) and Okumura Masanobu (1686–1764) were the most famous of the artists working in this style.

The fully developed polychrome print was first exploited by Suzuki Harunobu (1725–1770), whom many critics regard as the single greatest figure in the history of Ukiyo-e. Between 1765 and 1770 he designed some 500 prints that are among the most delicate and charming of all the works of the Japanese printmakers. His success was immediate, and his work dominated the Ukiyo-e of his period, inspiring many imitators. Harunobu's favorite subjects were graceful young girls engaged in a great variety of activities, either in the interior of a house or against a landscape setting. His contemporary, Katsukawa Shunsho (1726–1792), who contributed to the development of the actor prints, introduced a new type of more realistic design showing the actor against a stage setting.

The culmination of the color print was reached during the last quarter of the 18th century, with enterprising publishers, great creative artists, and skillful wood engravers and printers collaborating to produce the finest of Japanese prints. Among the numerous excellent artists active at this time, the outstanding were Torii Kiyonaga (1752–1815) and Kitagawa Utamaro (1753–1806), who specialized in the portrayal of courtesans of the Yoshiwara district. Kiyonaga's diptychs and triptychs showing the life of these women of the gay quarter are among the masterpieces of this art, combining beauty of form with subtle color and vigorous line.

Utamaro, who followed Kiyonaga as a popular favorite during the 1790's, was particularly famous for his close-up views of the female face. His set *Physiognomies of Women,* published in 1794, represents a high point in the development of the figure print. The same close-ups of the face are also seen in the actor prints of Toshusai Sharaku, who, in a brief career that lasted only 10 months during the years 1794 and 1795, produced some of the most powerful and expressive of all the Ukiyo-e prints.

Landscape Prints. By the end of the 18th century the figure print had exhausted itself, and the leading masters of the late Edo period were primarily famous for their depiction of the Japanese landscape. The greatest and most prolific of these artists was Katsushika Hokusai (1760–1849), whose total output is estimated at some 35,000 designs. The most famous of these are his *Thirty-six Views of Fuji,* which appeared between 1823 and 1829, and his *manga* (cartoon) sketchbook, published in volumes beginning in 1814. The other great artist of this period was Ando Hiroshige (1797–1858). He excelled in portraying the misty atmosphere and poetic beauty of Japan as in his celebrated *Fifty-three Stages of the Tokaido Road,* first published in 1833 and reprinted innumerable times, and his *Hundred Views of Edo* of 1853 to 1856.

With the death of Hiroshige in 1858, the great period of Ukiyo-e came to an end. Large quantities of prints were still made by the followers and imitators of the earlier masters, but the quality declined both artistically and technically as chemical pigments were imported from Europe and cheap mass production lowered the level of craftsmanship.

Modern Prints. Of these later works, the most interesting are the Yokohama prints of the Meiji period (1868–1912). These prints, which reflect Western influences, are more valuable as social documents than as works of art.

A new chapter in the history of Japanese prints started with men like Yoshida Hiroshi (1876–1950) who, although representing the picturesque subject matter of Japan and the Orient, used a style far closer to Western art than that of the traditional Ukiyo-e masters. The artist of the modern period who adhered most closely to the older conventions was Hashiguchi Goyo (1880–1921), who excelled in the portrayal of beautiful Japanese women.

The powerful impact of modern Western art became more evident in the work of the woodblock artists of the Hanga group who are far closer to European artists Edvard Munch and Paul Gauguin than to the traditional Japanese printmakers. No longer relying on professional engravers and printers, they do their own cutting and printing as the Western artists had done. Among the numerous fine graphic artists of this school, the most outstanding for abstract prints is Onchi Koshiro (1891–1955), while Munakata Shiko (1903–1975) excels in the portrayal of Buddhist subjects. While these artists still use the traditional woodblock, others have employed



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(*Left*) PREHISTORIC clay images, or *haniwa*, from Japan's Grave Mound period (3d through 6th century A. D.) were found on or around the ancient burial places of Japan.

(*Right*) HANIWA FIGURE of a seated woman from the 5th century A. D. is about 2 feet tall. Representational *haniwa* sculptures are of considerable archaeological interest.



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Western media such as lithography and etching and work in a wholly modern style hardly different from that prevailing in the West.

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20. Sculpture

Until modern times, sculpture, in contrast to other Japanese art forms, served religious purposes almost exclusively. Except for the sculpture of the prehistoric period, its development closely paralleled—even depended on—the development of Buddhism in Japan.

The Prehistoric Period. The earliest sculptures produced in Japan are the clay figures, or *dogu*, that were made in the Jomon period during the second and the first millennia B. C. Like Neolithic sculpture in other parts of the world, these figures are female idols no doubt connected with magic rites and fertility cults. Their forms, although primitive, are very expressive and often striking, with the emphasis upon large, strange-looking eyes.

Very different in feeling and form are the *haniwa*, hollow clay images dating from the Grave Mound period, which lasted from the 3d through the 6th centuries A. D. Unlike the Jomon idols, which were limited in number and never more than a few inches high, *haniwa* may be several feet tall and were produced in huge quantities; the tomb of the Emperor Nintoku, for example, has 11,280 such figures. It is said in an ancient Japanese chronicle that the *haniwa* were originally made as substitutes for the human and animal sacrifices that were buried with the dead. Unlike the Chinese grave figures, which may have inspired them, they were not placed in the tomb but set in a circle around it.

The shapes of the *haniwa* figures are very simple, with an emphasis on cylindrical form that appeals to modern taste. Most of them represent human or animal figures, but boats and houses also occur. In addition to their aesthetic quality, these sculptures are of great interest for their subjects, which show a variety of people such as warriors, ladies, and hunters. Their representations of houses are invaluable for archaeological research.

The Asuka Period (592–710). The introduction of Buddhism during the 6th century A.D. set off a new and brilliant period in the history of Japanese sculpture. While the earliest Buddhist images were imported from Korea and China, the Japanese craftsmen soon mastered the foreign style and produced some of the finest of all Buddhist images.

Outstanding is the famous Shaka trinity, which was made by Tori Busshi (Tori Kuratsukuri), the grandson of a Chinese immigrant, in 623. Like so many other masterpieces of early Buddhist art in Japan, this image is located in the Golden Hall, or Kondo, of Horyu-ji in Nara. Cast in bronze by the lost-wax process, this work is brilliant from both a technical and artistic point of view. Although based on Korean and, ultimately, Chinese models and using Indian Buddhist iconography, it shows how the Japanese sculptors had adapted the foreign models to their own needs and ideas within a generation's time.

While the central figure in the Shaka trinity was the historical Buddha Sakyamuni, other Asuka period images represent Yakushi, the Buddha of medicine and healing; Miroku, the Buddha of the future; and above all Kannon (or Kwannon), the Bodhisattva of mercy and compassion. Among the Asuka period images of Kannon, the most famous is the so-called Kudara Kannon, which is supposed to have come from the Korean kingdom of Kudara, although modern scholars think it was made in Japan. Unlike the Shaka trinity, which was cast in bronze, this image and the Miroku at the Chuguji nunnery in Nara are made of wood, the favorite material of Japanese sculptors throughout the ages. Stone, which had been the most popular material for carving in India and China, was only rarely used in Japan.

The Nara Period (710–794). The greatest period of Japanese Buddhist sculpture, when the craftsmen had fully mastered the continental style and



HORYU-JI TEMPLE, NARA

THE AMIDA TRINITY from the Tachibana shrine at Nara is a fine Buddhist sculpture of the Nara period.

produced a large number of superb religious icons, was the Nara period, which lasted until the end of the 8th century. In addition to bronze and wood, which had been the chief materials during the Asuka period, lacquer and clay were used for making the Nara images. The iconography also became more complex, with Amida, the Buddha of the Western Paradise, playing an important role along with a number of lesser deities such as the guardians of the four directions, the devas, and the disciples of Buddha. Also outstanding are the portraits of famous priests, notably the image of the Chinese abbot Ganjin.

FRITZ HENLE—PHOTO RESEARCHERS



WOODEN STATUE of a drummer from the Heian period is notable for the refinement and vigor of its carving.

The largest and most impressive work of the Nara period is the great Daibutsu (q.v.) image at Todai-ji in Nara. Although severely damaged in later centuries, it is of interest today as the largest bronze image in Japan. Other fine bronze images of the Nara period are the Tachibana shrine at Horyu-ji and the Yakushi trinity at Yakushi-ji, also in Nara. Among the lacquer statues, the six-armed and three-headed Ashura Deva from Kofuku-ji is the most remarkable, both for its Indian iconography and for the charm of its graceful forms.

Clay was used primarily for the representation of minor deities such as the numerous guardian figures, like those at Shinyakushi-ji in Nara, which are outstanding for the dramatic expression of their faces and their tense bodies. The images of Gakko and Nikko, the Bodhisattvas of the moon and the sun at the Hokkedo in Todai-ji, are remarkable for their feeling of serenity and spiritual harmony so characteristic of Buddhism.

The Heian Period (794–1192). The sculptures of the early Heian period (794–897) were influenced by esoteric Buddhism, or Mikkyo, which was the dominant religious and cultural movement of the time. Particularly striking are the strange new deities, with their multiple heads and arms, derived from Hindu sources. Excellent examples of such images may be seen at To-ji, the chief Shingon temple in the capital city of Heian-kyo, present-day Kyoto. Other fine early Heian sculptures are found at Muro-ji, a small isolated temple in the vicinity of Nara. The style of the wooden images at this site is typical of early Heian sculpture, showing full, massive forms and profound expressions.

The later Heian period, also called the Fujiwara period (897–1192), was an age of refinement and sophistication, qualities that are clearly reflected in the sculpture. Instead of the strange, awe-inspiring deities of the 9th century, the works of the Fujiwara period are gracious and elegant. The most outstanding is the representation of the Buddha Amida in the Phoenix Hall, or Hodo, of the Byodoin at Uji, carved in 1053 by the celebrated sculptor Jocho. A brightly gilded figure surrounded by a splendid nimbus and flying angels, this impressive image mirrors to perfection the spirit of the times. Another typical Fujiwara work is the statue of Kichijoten, the goddess of beauty and good fortune, at Joruri-ji in Kyoto, which represents the womanly ideal of the period. Also interesting are the representations of Shinto deities, which for the first time are rendered in sculptural form. Although far less sophisticated than the Buddhist carvings, these Shinto sculptures have a simple, strong quality akin to folk art.

The Kamakura Period (1192–1392). The Kamakura period, notably the 13th century, is generally regarded as the last great age of Japanese Buddhist sculpture. There was an outburst of sculptural activity, much of it of a very high order, which was stimulated generally by the religious revival of the period and specifically by the restoration of the Nara temples that had been damaged during the civil war at the end of the 12th century. The style of these carvings is usually vigorous and realistic, in keeping with the manly and militaristic Kamakura spirit.



JAPAN NATIONAL TOURIST ORGANIZATION

MULTIPLE HALOS of the *Thousand and One Images of the Goddess of Mercy* (early Edo period) lend their brilliance to the Myohoin temple at the old capital of Kyoto.

The most famous sculptor was Unkei, who was active during the late 12th and early 13th century. His most powerful and impressive works are the giant images of the Nio, or Two Kings, which stand at the entrance gate to Todai-ji in Nara. Dramatic in posture, with strong muscular bodies and fierce facial expressions, they reflect the dynamic spirit of Kamakura sculpture at its best. The realism of the Kamakura style is best seen in Unkei's statues of Mujaku and Seshin, two Indian Buddhist patriarchs, which he carved for Kofuku-ji in Nara in 1208.

A gentler, more lyrical tendency, reflecting the influence of Sung China, is apparent in the work of Kakei. This style is well illustrated in the Jizo Bosatsu at the Kokeido of Todai-ji, showing the gracious form of the Bodhisattva of children. The single most famous image is the Great Buddha, or Daibutsu, of Kamakura, which was cast in 1252 in imitation of the Daibutsu at Todai-ji. A giant image, it is more than 42 feet (13 meters) high and has a staircase in its interior. Although artistically it is not as fine as some of the other Kamakura sculptures, it is one of the most impressive of all Buddhist images.

The Muromachi Period (1392–1573). With the rise of Zen Buddhism during the 14th century, traditional Buddhist sculpture declined. Although many images continued to be made during this and the following periods, they were for the most part dry, eclectic works that contributed little to the development of sculpture in Japan. The only exceptions are the portraits of the Zen abbots, which are realistic in style and often striking in their characterization of the sitter.

The most creative contribution to the plastic arts during the Muromachi period was the carved wooden masks used in the No drama. Making masks for various types of dances and theatrical performances was an old custom in Japan, the Gigaku masks of the Nara period and the Bugaku masks of the Heian period being particularly notable. But during the 15th century a new type of mask was developed, which for beauty of form and subtlety of expression was unique. Each type of mask portrayed a certain kind of person in the drama, ranging from a beautiful young girl to a repulsive demon. The best of these masks are remarkable works of art, which, if worn by an accomplished actor, can convey a wealth of emotional expression.

The Edo Period (1603–1867). While Buddhist art suffered an even greater decline during the Edo period and only achieved interesting and vital works on a folk art level, a new type of sculpture was developed in the *netsuke* carvings, which enjoy great popularity among Western collectors. Small in size and intricate in detail, the *netsuke* at their best are minor masterpieces. They served as toggles attached to the cords used for suspending medicine cases or tobacco pouches from the belt. A great diversity of materials were used, but the most common were wood, ivory, and bone. Representing figures and animals taken from Japanese legends and folklore, *netsuke* are interesting for their subject matter as well as for the meticulousness of their execution. The best were made in the 18th and early 19th centuries, but some good work was done even in later times.

With the opening of Japan to Western influences during the Meiji period, traditional Japanese sculpture virtually ceased, and the Japanese began to produce European-style sculptures based on French models, such as the work of Rodin. While the influence of realism in the Western manner was dominant prior to World War II, post-war Japanese sculpture reflects virtually all modern international styles and directions.

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of the language and the present is the existence of earlier distinct forms of many inflected words for attributive (*takaki yama,* "the high mountain . . .") and conclusive (*yama takashi,* "the mountain is high") syntactic structures. In the modern language the overall structures are still parallel, but one inflected form (*takai*) serves for both (*takai yama; yama ga takai*). In general, at all stages in the language, attributes precede their heads. The adjective is a subclass of the verb, with which it shares many features including inflection for categories of time. Attributes are often quite involved syntactic structures, involving inflected verbs and adjectives with subordinate heads, all modifying other major heads in syntax (*hito ga kaita tegami,* "the letter (which) the man wrote"; *kado ni tatte iru junsa,* "the policeman (who) is standing on the corner"). Also common to all stages of the language are the grammatical particles (*ni* "on," in *kado ni,* "on the corner," *ga* for nonemphatic subject in *hito ga* "the man . . ."), which always follow the heads to which they refer; their forms and meanings differ widely at different stages of the language, but their overall structural role remains unchanged at all periods.

Vocabulary. Early in the history of the language, the original inherited Altaic vocabulary was enriched and in the process all but replaced by borrowings from other nearby languages, especially from Middle Korean and Chinese, which have greatly influenced the growth, development, and resources of the Japanese lexical stock. Most of the earlier Chinese loanwords in Japanese were genuine linguistic borrowings, reproducing living Chinese lexical items in Japanese pronunciation and fitting them into Japanese syntax. More recently, however, the Japanese vocabulary has been further enriched with large numbers of Chinese neologisms coined in Japan from Chinese roots.

Like the earlier Chinese loanwords, loanwords from European languages have also had to be adapted to Japanese pronunciation habits (*bēsubōru, abekku, arubaito,* from English "baseball," French "avec," and German "Arbeit"). At times the meaning of the resulting Japanese lexical items are as far displaced as is their pronunciation (*abekku* means "a date between a boy and a girl," and *arubaito,* "a parttime job").

Levels of Speech. One of the most distinctive features of Japanese in all its historical stages is the system of levels of speech, sometimes called "honorific language" (*keigo*). This is a set of obligatory categories operating along two principal axes; one of address and the other of reference, both being sets of stylistic and expressive choices chiefly determined by the speaker's attitudes toward the person addressed and toward the topic discussed. Inflected forms (verbs, adjectives, and copula) and, to a lesser extent, nouns have formal categories that implement these categories of choice; thus, for the copula, on the axis of reference alone there are different forms for at least five different levels: humble, neutral, respectful, elegant, and exalted. To these must be added the further complications introduced by the three levels found on the axis of address: plain, deferential, and polite.

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24. Literature

Japanese literature is most commonly divided into periods approximating the nation's main political periods: Nara, from the middle of the 7th to the end of the 8th century; Heian, to the end of the 12th century; Kamakura, to 1333; Muromachi and the age of the great civil wars, to the end of the 16th century; Tokugawa, or Edo, to 1867; and modern, since 1867.

Nara Period. The word "literature" must be defined broadly if it is to include the earliest Japanese writings. Two major chronicles, which in later centuries became the principal sacred texts of the Shinto religion, date from the early 8th century: the *Kojiki (Chronicle of Ancient Happenings)* of 712 and the *Nihon Shoki (Chronicle of Japan)* of 720. Each begins with the legendary origins of the Japanese nation and its ruling family, the establishment of whose legitimacy was probably the main reason for the compilation, and each becomes semihistory as it tells of later centuries—the *Kojiki* down to the late 5th century, the *Nihon Shoki* to the end of the 7th century. It would be wrong to say that they are devoid of interest, but they tend to be flat and fragmented and they have little of the emotional appeal that one finds in Western epics or in the best of Chinese historiography. The great folk heroes of the Japanese come not from the earliest chronicles but from writings about civil wars of later centuries.

The chronicles contain considerable numbers of short lyrics, which give them their chief literary interest. These primitive lyrics are irregular in form and tend to be declamatory or exhortatory. Many of them were originally sung, and the prosodic irregularity was thus compensated for by the regularity of the musical setting.

Compilations having to do with regional history, mythology, and geography also survive from the Nara period, and certain short official and liturgical documents written down in the Heian period seem to have originated in the Nara period, preserving the language of that time.

The "Manyoshu." The last half of the 7th century and the first half of the 8th saw a great lyrical flowering. The *Manyoshu (Collection of 10,000 Leaves),* an anthology of poetry that many think is the greatest the Japanese have produced, was completed some time in the latter half of the 8th century. Otomo Yakamochi, who is believed to be the work's principal compiler if not the only one, died in 785. The last poem in the *Manyoshu* that can be definitely dated was composed in 759. Most of the poetry in the collection can safely be assigned to the century or so before this last date, although the earliest figure to whom a poem is attributed probably lived in the 4th century.

Japanese poetry is based not upon accent or rhyme but upon syllable count. Already by the time of the compilation of the *Manyoshu,* lines of 5 syllables and lines of 7 syllables had become standard, and the Japanese have been remarkably faithful to 5's and 7's ever since, breaking away from them with some determination only in modern times. By the end of the Nara period the 31-syllable *waka* or "Japanese poem," an arrangement of three 7-syllable and two 5-syllable lines, had so established its preeminence that when the specific context did not demand otherwise, the generic term *uta,* "song" or "poem," was

taken to refer to it. Such standard Japanese poetic devices as punning, word association, and the use of stock epithets (frequently likened to Homer's) were also in evidence very early.

It is common to speak of the finest *Manyoshu* poetry as spanning three generations. In the first generation the greatest poet is unquestionably Kakinomoto Hitomaro, who probably died some time early in the 8th century. He is unique among Japanese poets in his preference for, and success with, longer forms. His finest elegies have a sweep and power that few if any later poets equaled. In the second generation, overt Chinese influences are to be detected in the work of two of the more remarkable poets—Taoism in the case of Okura Tabito, Confucianism in the case of Yamanoue Okura. Yamabe Akahito is admired for the freshness of his short nature poems. In the third generation, there is the anthologist Otomo Yakamochi in whose best lyrics natural imagery becomes something like natural symbolism, pointing ahead to the most interesting poetry of the late Heian period and of the Kamakura period.

The *Manyoshu* would probably not exist had the Japanese not been stimulated by the introduction of Chinese culture, and yet it is impossible to believe that the strong feeling of communion with nature derives from the Chinese. The *Manyoshu* was inspired by and at the same time independent of the Chinese.

Heian Period. Another sort of chinoiserie was prominent in the early Heian period. From then until modern times the Japanese have been prolific and assiduous composers of prose and verse in the Chinese language, or some approximation of it. Though the body of such writing is enormous, nothing will be said of it in this article save that it had its greatest days in the early Heian period and in the Kamakura and Muromachi periods, and that not many people pay much attention to it today.

In the early Heian period Japanese poetry was virtually driven underground by the prestige of Chinese poetry. Four anthologies of poetry in Chinese were commissioned by the court in the 8th and 9th centuries. Japanese poetry in the same decades seems to have been thought unworthy of preservation.

The "Kokinshu." From about the second quarter of the 9th century on, lyric poetry in the Japanese language began to emerge into the open once more; and early in the 10th century its supremacy was recognized by the commissioning of the first "imperial anthology" in Japanese, the *Kokinshu (Collection from Ancient and Modern Times)*, completed in about 905. (Not, apparently, given explicit imperial sanction, the *Manyoshu* does not qualify as an imperial anthology.) There are 21 such anthologies in all, the last of them from the Muromachi period, and they are dominated by the 31-syllable *waka*, testifying to the central position occupied by lyric poetry in the Japanese literary tradition. Not much in the imperial anthologies can be called dramatic or narrative. A great deal of Japanese prose narrative, too, is so heavily lyrical that it may be a little hard to get used to.

The *Kokinshu* style is courtly, cavalier, and highly contrived and makes elaborate and skillful use of such devices as punning and word association. The sense of communion with nature that is so important in the *Manyoshu* has given way to the subordination of nature to the subjective needs of the poet, so that by the time of compilation nature was providing a fixed vocabulary of images with which to express a fixed repertory of emotions.

Kokinshu notions of propriety, increasingly narrow and unadventuresome, dominated most Heian poetry down through the 11th century. The anthologists, notably Ki no Tsurayuki (died 945), also an important writer of prose, did a great deal to impose these strict notions of propriety. One goes back to poets active in the third quarter of the 9th century for a bolder and fresher voice, and particularly to Ono no Komachi, probably the finest of Japanese women poets, and to Ariwara Narihira (825–880), who was well known as a lover and who put his experience to use in subtle, paradoxical lyric poetry.

Diaries and Tales. The 10th century saw remarkable advances in prose narrative that were to culminate early in the following century in the *Genji Monogatari (Tale of Genji)*, much the finest of Japanese romances and a work that can be ranked with the best fiction of any country. Several strains are to be traced through the 10th century. There are works that the Japanese call "diaries," although they seldom are precisely that. The *Tosa Nikki (Tosa Diary)* of Ki no Tsurayuki, the *Kokinshu* anthologist, describes his return to Kyoto by land and sea from the province of Tosa. Probably written toward the middle of the 10th century, it is a pleasant mixture of excitement and sentiment, with a considerable element of the supernatural in it. The *Kagero Nikki*, translated into English variously as *The Gossamer Diary* and *The Gossamer Years*, is more realistic. It is by a court lady who died late in the 10th century, and sets down in a manner both persuasive and obsessive her version of why her marriage turned out so unhappily. It covers the years 954 to 974, and is probably better described as a set of memoirs than as a diary.

Also developed in the Heian period were works of a peculiarly Japanese sort to which the origins of a great deal of later writing can be traced. Though narrative in a fragmentary and discursive way, they center upon lyric poems. The Japanese name for the genre, *utamonogatari*, might be translated into English as "lyrical episodes." The earliest of them is the best. It is the *Ise Monogatari (Tales of Ise)*, by an unknown author, probably of no later than the middle of the 10th century. Ostensibly describing the affairs of the *Kokinshu* poet Narihira, it is a collection of verse, each preceded by a descriptive passage giving the circumstances of its composition.

The period also produced romances of a less lyrical nature, all by unknown authors: the *Taketori Monogatari (Tale of the Bamboo Cutter)*, the *Utsubo Monogatari (Tale of the Hollow Tree)*, and the *Ochikubo Monogatari (Tale of the Lower Room)*. They were probably written in that order, and if so they show how the interest of 10th century fiction writers shifted from the supernatural to the mundane. The first, though not without a certain tart and cynical interest in human affairs, is essentially a fairy story about a maiden who descends from the moon and eventually goes back to it. The last, though not without romantic idealization and exaggeration, is the story of a Cinderella-like lady whose affairs contain not a touch of the supernatural, and it must have seemed very real to the contemporary reader.

"The Tale of Genji." Early Heian romances and narratives in a sense prepared the way for *The*

Tale of Genji. Yet nothing that preceded it really paved the way for that vast and astonishing work. Written over an unknown number of years in the early 11th century by a court lady of the Fujiwara clan who is known today as Murasaki Shikibu, *The Tale of Genji* has a fairly simple plot. It tells of the life and loves of Prince Genji, of his public successes and private sorrows, and, after his death, of the less colorful affairs of the generation of his grandson. Beneath the simple plot lies a remarkable richness of implication, permitting each reader to make his own reading, so that one reader may see the book as utterly dissolute, another as grandly edifying. The essential fact is that although it has something of the episodic, lyrical quality of the *utamonogatari*, it goes far beyond the limitations of the latter to encompass an enormous amount of believable life and to become an evocation of a complicated and subtle society.

Later Heian romances seem weak and watery and derivative beside the *Genji*. It is probable that some of the romancers were women. There has been much speculation as to why women were so important in Heian literature, but that they were important is undeniable.

"The Pillow Book" of Sei Shonagon. A piece of nonfiction, a sort of miscellany or book of jottings, is generally placed by the Japanese beside the *Genji* at the very peak of Heian literature: the *Makura no Soshi (Pillow Book)* by the lady Sei Shonagon, a court rival of Murasaki's. *The Pillow Book* was written in the late 10th century or the early 11th or both. It is sometimes urbane and witty, sometimes movingly lyrical; but it is likely to seem slight and fragmented to most non-Japanese readers, scarcely a serious rival of the *Genji*. Its place in the stream of Japanese literature is an important one all the same, for it is the first example of the *zuihitsu* form of discursive essay, a form much loved by the Japanese even down to present times. If the *Genji* stands in grand isolation, *The Pillow Book* stands at the head of a prosperous line.

There are numbers of "diaries" from the middle and late Heian period. Perhaps the best of them, the *Izumi Shikibu Nikki (Diary of Izumi Shikibu)*, by a court lady and poetess contemporary with Murasaki Shikibu, is actually more redolent of the *utamonogatari* than of the diary as that term is usually understood in English.

Late Heian Prose. The middle and late years of the Heian period made two original contributions to prose narrative. One was historical writing with a greater or lesser mixture of fiction; the other was short anecdotes, written sometimes to edify and sometimes merely to entertain. The first in a series of four historical works called "mirror pieces" (from the fact that each has the word "mirror" in its title) was written probably in the late 11th or early 12th century. The four cover Japanese history down to 1333, in a semidramatic form. The *Eiga Monogatari (Tale of Glory)*, completed no later than 1107, has less curiosity in it about the workings of history than do the mirror pieces and more about brilliant happenings in high society. Most Japanese therefore assume it to have been written by a woman.

As for the short anecdote, it did not precisely originate in the late Heian period, but much the richest collection, the *Konjaku Monogatari (Tales of Long Ago)*, is thought to be from the middle or late 11th century. It introduces the smell of the marketplace and the low life into Japanese literature, and has been described by an important modern writer as a huge scandal sheet.

Late Heian Poetry. If the late Heian period was not one of the finest ages for prose, it was an important period for lyric poetry. It saw a turning away from the subjectivism of the *Kokinshu* style and a revival of nature poetry. More than simple description, the most interesting and original poetry of late Heian and early Kamakura has properly been called a poetry of natural symbolism, for it carries strong overtones of quietist Buddhism and the natural images are meant to suggest something deeper and less ephemeral than their own immediate surfaces.

For obvious reasons, given this emphasis on the implied rather than the explicit, the age saw the development of the aesthetics of restraint, austerity, and understatement that were to be such an influence upon the tea ceremony and the No drama of the Muromachi period, and that in the West are thought to be most Japanese. The eighth of the imperial anthologies, the *Shinkokinshu (New Collection from Ancient and Modern Times)*, completed early in the 13th century, is the best embodiment of the style and is generally thought to be, with the *Kokinshu*, the best in the series of imperial anthologies. Fujiwara Teika (1162–1241), one of the anthologists, became the poetic arbiter of his day and founded a durable line of poetic arbiters. The priest Saigyo (1118–1190), the poet most generously represented in the anthology, is the first in a series of wandering mendicant poets particularly admired by the Japanese.

The Kamakura Period. Two important *zuihitsu* discursive essays are from the Kamakura period: the *Hojoki (Account of My Hut)*, written in 1212 by Kamo no Chomei (1153–1216), and the *Tsurezuregusa (Essays in Idleness)*, written by Yoshida Kenko (1283–1350) early in the 14th century. Though held to be in the proper line of succession from *The Pillow Book* of Sei Shonagon, the Kamakura works are altogether more melancholy, having in them something of the austere beauty of the *Shinkokinshu* and the gloom of a day when the court nobility, to the lesser ranks of which both men belonged, was in eclipse and rough east-country warriors held power. The earlier work tells of a series of disasters that overtook the capital during Chomei's lifetime and of his withdrawal to a mountain hermitage. The later work is nearer *The Pillow Book* in form and is dominated by nostalgia for the heyday of the court.

There are also diaries and travelogues from the Kamakura period, the most important of them probably being the *Izayoi Nikki (Diary of the Sixteenth Night)*, by the nun Abutsu (died 1283), a daughter-in-law of Teika, which tells of a journey from Kyoto to Kamakura and a stay in the latter city.

The most original contribution of the Kamakura period to prose literature is the *gunkimono*, or military chronicle. The earliest, and the best, is the *Heike Monogatari (Tale of the Heike)*, which tells of the rivalry between two clans, the Taira (Heike) and the Minamoto (Genji), that led to the establishment of the Kamakura shogunate. It was probably brought to its present form no later than the mid-13th century. Here one finds the epic heroes who were so curiously missing from the earliest chronicles, for the civil wars of late Heian stirred the Japanese imagination as no other episode in their history. Yet

for all this quasi-epic quality, the *Heike* at its best is gently, sadly lyrical. It tells the story of the brief glory and sudden fall of the Taira family and is therefore a parable upon the evanescence of things.

The Muromachi Period. Although no single work stands out sufficiently from the mass to deserve special mention, lyrical discursive writing, in the various forms of the diary, the travelogue, the *utamonogatari*, and the *zuihitsu*, did not disappear in the Muromachi period. Nor is the period wanting in writings of a historic or semihistoric nature. Probably the most important historical treatise is the *Jinnoshotoki (Chronicle of the True Line of Divine Emperors)* by Kitabatake Chikafusa (1293–1354). Chikafusa's argument for the legitimacy of a line of emperors that had fallen upon bad days adumbrates the ultranationalist imperial cult of the 19th and 20th centuries.

The military chronicle meanwhile moved further and further from history and in the end became scarcely distinguishable from popular fiction, of which a considerable body, mostly short, survives from the Muromachi period. It grows out of the short anecdote of late Heian and Kamakura and looks ahead to the vast flood of fiction that was to come in the Tokugawa period.

None of this offers anything strikingly new. In the drama and in poetry, on the other hand, the contributions of Muromachi were striking and original.

Dramatic Forms in the Muromachi Period. The first important Japanese dramatic form, the No, has very complex origins in forms imported very early from China and in Japanese farm rituals. In the Muromachi period, at the hands of an extraordinarily talented father and son—Kannami Kiyotsugu (1333–1384), a shrine performer from Nara, and Zeami Motokiyo (1363–1443)—No became high art, both as a mixed dramatic form heavily dependent on music and the dance, and as literature. The aesthetics of the No derive from the severe restraint of late Heian and Kamakura poetic theories and from Zen tenets imported later. The action is slow, stately, and formalized, the language highly evocative.

In the No of Kannami and Zeami there is little dramatic confrontation. Even when the germ of the action is violent—as, for instance, in an episode from the *Heike Monogatari*, a favorite source for No plays—the violence is far away, reenacted by a tortured ghost at the climax of the play. Not all protagonists are ghosts; but when they are represented as still living, the other characters do little but query and listen. Later generations of playwrights tended to bring more drama and conflict into the No, and perhaps it would presently have developed in the direction of realism. It was already under the protection of the shogunate in Kannami's lifetime, however, and the patronage of the Tokugawa military aristocracy only brought further formalization.

The *kyogen* comedies that are performed between No plays seem to have come generally to their present sophisticated level when No was reaching its heights, although the texts were not written down until later. Yet a third Muromachi form survives: the *kowakamai*, a combination of song and dance with resemblances to the No. Its texts derive, as in part do those of No, from Kamakura and Muromachi military chronicles.

Muromachi Poetry. In lyric poetry, the Muromachi contribution was *renga* linked verse and its lighter companion, *haikai*. Actually *haikai* is the more venerable of the two, since playful verse-capping had a very long history. But it was in the Muromachi period that what had been dalliance became serious art.

Both *renga* and *haikai* are made up of an alternation of 17-syllable (5–7–5) and 14-syllable (7–7) links, to an indefinite length, although 100 links and 36 links tended to become standard. A poet could, if he chose, compose a whole sequence by himself, but in the best linked verse no poet composed any two successive links. The fascination of the form lies in the interplay between discipline and freedom: the rules for any link are set before the poet, and his own talents determine whether anything is to come of them.

The subject matter of serious *renga* is for the most part that of the courtly *waka* tradition, nature and muted love, and the poet's approach to his material has much in common with the restraint of the No and the autumnal quality of *Shinkokinshu* nature poetry. The most admired of *renga* masters, Iio Sogi (1421–1502), another wandering mendicant, was of plebeian origins. An age of harsh civil wars was bringing new classes into the production of literature.

Haikai takes unto itself everything that is considered inappropriate for *renga*. Sometimes the departure from the proprieties is slight, having to do only with matters of diction, but it can be radical, including as subject matter the indecent and the slapstick. Yamazaki Sokan, of whose life almost nothing is known, is the great Muromachi figure in *haikai*. Late in the period he compiled the first anthology given over exclusively to the form.

Tokugawa Period—*Haiku*. The great importance of the first link in a *renga* or *haikai* sequence led, in the first century of the Tokugawa period, to its complete independence, and so to that shortest of poetic forms, the 17-syllable *haiku*. In view of the intense seriousness of a great deal of *haiku*—many will say the best of it—the fact that it traces its ancestry to *haikai* and not *renga* may seem curious. Like *haikai* masters, however, early *haiku* masters thought of themselves as welcoming anything that, even in small matters of diction, lay outside the approved realm of the courtly *waka* and its derivative, *renga*.

It was Matsuo Basho (1644–1694), yet another wanderer, who raised the form to the highest and most serious of literature. He was a devotee of Zen Buddhism, and for him poetry was a religion. Though he could also be bland and lighthearted, he sought, as he put it, to have poetry stand at the intersection of the fleeting and the eternal through delicate seasonal references broken up and brought back together to sometimes startling and even incongruous effect. The remarkable thing is that in the best of his poetry this ideal seems not in the least unrealistic. Basho is not an easy poet to understand, especially when he is approached with the notion that *haiku* is no more than delicate surface imagery, a series of pretty pictures. This prejudice operates less to the disadvantage of later *haiku* poets.

A modern rereading of *haiku* history credits Yosa Buson (1716–1784) with the principal role in a mid-Tokugawa revival. Buson was also a major painter, and a strong pictorial element, along with a painter's cool detachment, is to be seen in his work. Against the intense professionalism of Basho, he may seem to have some-

thing of the dilettante in him. Kobayashi Issa (1763–1823), thought by most literary historians to be the best *haiku* poet of the late Tokugawa, has a certain genial, poignant appeal, but must be described as a minor poet compared with Basho. His best *haiku* offer little glimpses, sometimes wry and tart, of life in the mountain country where he was born. The usual verdict of very late Tokugawa *haiku* is that it is trite.

A great deal of Tokugawa *waka* is revivalist, looking back to the *Manyoshu* and the early imperial anthologies. Much of its interest lies in its association with the school of "national learning," a movement that rejected Chinese influences and urged investigation of the Japanese classics in search of "the national essence," and thus produced some of the finest of Japanese scholars. The finest of them all was Motoori Norinaga (1730–1801), the first man who really took *The Tale of Genji* on its own terms.

Comic Verse. Tokugawa literature is also rich in comic verse, the 31-syllable *waka* and the 17-syllable *haiku* each having its humorous counterpart. Comic verse had its best day in the late 18th century, when it gave pungent expression to the spirit of the Edo townsman. Edo, the shogun's seat and the present Tokyo, had by then replaced Kyoto and Osaka as the literary capital of the country. There were experiments in the Edo period with freer verse forms, and lyrical prose as well as prose mixed with verse continued to be written in great volume, following upon the tradition of the *utamonogatari* and the *zuihitsu* of the Heian period.

Theater. No having become the private preserve of the military aristocracy, the Tokugawa merchant and artisan classes set about making their own drama. Two dramatic forms are original to the Tokugawa period: the puppet theater and the Kabuki theater. Although they derive from different sources, each was an influence upon the other as they reached maturity through the 17th century. Each is much given to bluster and swagger, in a style quite as different from No as one dramatic style can be from another, providing sufficient evidence that not all is restraint in Japanese notions of beauty.

The puppet theater (*joruri*) had its great flowering in the late 17th and early 18th centuries, after which the Kabuki emerged dominant. *Joruri* is probably the more interesting of the two as a performing art, and it certainly is the more interesting as literature. Kabuki, which tends to be a series of set pieces designed to show off virtuoso actors, is not on the whole very compelling on the printed page. The best texts for the puppet theater, on the other hand, have a beauty of language that makes good use of the traditional poetic devices and have dramatic unity and a sense of human urgency as well. The most gifted of playwrights for the puppet stage was Chikamatsu Monzaemon (1653–1725). In the plays most admired today he writes of a pull between emotion and duty that becomes intolerable and leads to suicide.

Tokugawa Fiction. The sheer bulk of Tokugawa fiction is enormous, exceeding the quantity of fiction from all earlier periods combined. The great master of fiction was Ihara Saikaku (1642–1693). The origins of his art are in *haikai* of a particularly free and unrestrained sort. His fiction has a gay, slapdash quality about it and is full of lacunae and abrupt transitions. Saikaku's favorite material is the life of the merchant class, centered upon the ritualized lovemaking of the pleasure quarters and upon moneymaking. He has been called a realist, but if that term is appropriate, it is more the realism of the journalist than the deeper humanistic realism of Murasaki Shikibu.

Middle and late Tokugawa produced no fiction writer as forceful as Saikaku, but it produced an enormous amount of fiction. The fiction most highly regarded in its own day stems from the Chinese, tends heavily toward the didactic and the fantastic, and has its climax in the most solemn and pedagogic of late-Tokugawa writers, Kyokutei Bakin (1767–1848). Another strain deals with the pleasure quarters, offering advice and guidance to him who would be a connoisseur of their usages.

Severe literary censorship was imposed in the late 18th century. As a result, fiction writers began to search for topics and styles that were unrestricted, and they found several. One was the didacticism of Bakin. Another was the world of love, this time not purchased but pure, the best literary exponent of which was Tamenaga Shunsui (1790–1844). A third was garrulous comedy, as in the *Dochu Hizakurige (Journey by Shank's Mare)* of Jippensha Ikku (1765–1831), which sees two Edo townsmen through numerous mishaps and small triumphs on a walk to Osaka.

The Modern Period. It took some time for "modern" directions in literature, ostensibly inspired by the West, to get under way. The first two decades or so after the Meiji Restoration saw little but a reworking of Tokugawa trends. The publication, in 1885 and 1886, of *Shosetsu Shinzui (The Essence of the Novel)*, by Tsubouchi Shoyo (1859–1935), is generally taken to be the first rallying call for the modern forces. Shoyo took as his point of departure a complete rejection of Tokugawa didacticism and frivolity. He upset the traditional literary hierarchy, with the exponents of lyric poetry at the top, by insisting that the novel was the form best fitted to cope with modern life; and he argued that the heart of the novel must be not preaching or mere entertainment but the objective and impartial investigation of customs and human emotions. It would be rash to say that Shoyo can be given the blame or the credit, but the novel is the form that has in fact dominated modern Japanese literature.

Survival of Traditional Literature. The traditional forms of the drama survive, the Kabuki having been changed rather more by the impact of the West than the others. Since the early years of the 20th century, however, there has also been a lively realistic theater, under specific influences from the West. Its early foreign models were Shakespeare, Ibsen, and Shaw, and among the most important native experimenters, despite his early regard for the novel, was Tsubouchi Shoyo himself. Numbers of eminent novelists have written plays. The specialized playwrights have, with some exceptions, tended to be rather disappointing.

The traditional poetic forms also survive. In the late 19th century Masaoka Shiki (1867–1902) led a revival that, in its rejection of late Tokugawa prettiness and its advocacy of what Shiki called "reproduction of life," looks back more to Buson than to Basho. *Haiku* has been produced in enormous volume. It generally falls into two categories: the conservative, which insists upon the importance of the ties between *haiku* and the seasons and which constantly seems in danger

of returning to the prettiness Shiki tried to get away from; and the radical, which dispenses with nature and too often seems on not much higher a level than the political slogan. The *waka* too has numerous devoted adherents but no longer seems to have a great deal to say. Experiments with freer verse forms offer more promise. They have shown some tendency to follow the developments in the novel. Perhaps the most interesting experiments have been with symbolism, joining foreign influences to a very old tradition.

The Coming of Age of the Novel. The first successful attempt to put the new, modern tenets into practice was the novel *Ukigumo (The Drifting Cloud)*, by Futabatei Shimei (1864–1909), which appeared in 1887, 1888, and 1889. Though possibly unfinished, and showing definite signs of uncertainty, it is in sum very successful. It brings something entirely new (or at least not seen since *The Tale of Genji*) to Japanese literature, the "anti-hero."

The last decade of the 19th century was a confused period, with riptides of the modern and the traditional battling each other. Finally, at about the time of the Russo-Japanese War, the modern, or that which thought itself modern, emerged triumphant, in a school called naturalist and said to follow the Western movement of the same designation. Actually it is neither especially modern nor Western.

Japanese naturalism tends toward thinly disguised autobiography. A kind of romantic and Christian glorification of the self was in part responsible for this odd turn, and so was the difficulty of finding reality in a world apparently being swept under by things Western. But more than a suspicion of a Tokugawa-like distrust of fiction and veneration of the lyric is to be detected in the works, for instance, of Shimazaki Toson (1872–1943), the naturalist most widely read today.

Similar predilections perhaps account for the remarkable importance, down to very recent times, of near-autobiography in what the Japanese call fiction. Thus the Shirakaba, or White Birch, school, which was in its greatest glory at about the time of World War I, is considered by most Japanese to be worlds away from the naturalists, largely because of its concern with moral problems. To most other people, the two are likely to seem very similar in their egocentrism.

To most people certain novelists who came into prominence at about the same time are likely to seem more rewarding. Mori Ogai (1862–1922) was a man of many parts whose sparse, economical historical novels are probably better as history than as fiction, but stand at the point where history becomes literature. Natsume Soseki (1867–1916), a writer with strong moralistic inclinations, so successfully clothes them in fiction that he can seldom be accused, as the Shirakaba people all too frequently can, of preaching. Nagai Kafu (1879–1959) was a novelist of finer lyrical than dramatic talents, whose great subject, treated in an elegiac manner, is the changing moods of his city, Tokyo. Tanizaki Junichiro (1886–1965), on the surface a most volatile writer, moved from fascination with the West to immersion in the Japanese tradition, but beneath that surface remained remarkably faithful to a single theme that shows affinities with *The Tale of Genji*—the quest for a lost parent.

Fiction After World War I. In Japan, as in the West, 19th century certainties gave way in the years following World War I. Meiji writers—that is to say, men who got their start before the end of Meiji—may have been anxious and frustrated, but they thought they knew what they wanted. For a writer like Akutagawa Ryunosuke (1892–1927), such knowledge was unthinkable, for his was a world of fragmentation and relativity. A brilliant short-story writer, he was the first modern writer, save perhaps Mori Ogai, to make conscious and good use of the classics, and it was he who so admired the scandalous aspects of the *Konjaku Monogatari*. But uncertainty about the value of storytelling overtook him, and he turned to autobiography, and soon after committed suicide.

Of the writers who made their debuts in the 1920's, Kawabata Yasunari (1899–) (q.v.) is much the most interesting. In his best stories, the East and the West, which in a superficial way pulled a writer like Tanizaki Junichiro in opposite directions, find an accommodation. He learned much about free association and quick transition from European avant-garde movements, but his mature writing takes one back to *renga* linked verse. There is also something *haiku*-like about the paradox basic to it all, a powerful sensuality mated to a cold, lonely remoteness.

The 1930's and early 1940's were a bad time for literature. Patriotism was preeminent, and it tends not to produce writing that survives its own day. Dazai Osamu (1909–1948) may not have been a major writer, but he was the most original writer in the 1930's. He turned autobiography to something new: self-mockery. His mordant humor has a power of which none of his contemporaries was capable. It would seem that he too committed suicide, though some doubt remains about the circumstances of his death.

Literature in the Mid-20th Century. Post-World War II literature is a vast and complex field that is not easily evaluated at the present time. There have been "carnal" literature, didactic proletarian literature (which previously had had a modest flowering in the 1920's), and a number of other literary styles. Mishima Yukio (1925–) has captured the fancy of the West more than any other postwar writer. His traditionalist (perhaps nationalist would be the more appropriate term) propensities have become clearer, and they are not entirely pleasant; but in the end the attention he has commanded may prove to have been deserved.

EDWARD G. SEIDENSTICKER
University of Michigan

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Japan's Premier-Apparent Talks Tough on U.

By T. R. Reid
Washington Post Foreign Service

TOKYO, Oct. 18—Taking a tough line on a symbolically important trade dispute, the man due to become Japan's next prime minister said Japan will not end its ban on rice imports until the United States and European countries eliminate their own import controls on agricultural products.

"It is incumbent on all the countries concerned to make concessions," said Kiichi Miyazawa, the 72-year-old conservative who seems certain to take the reins of government here next month. "As you know, the United States has a problem with waivered [protected] products and the European Community has many problems as well."

Calm, confident and clearly savoring his commanding lead in the upcoming ruling party election here, Miyazawa held court today for a small group of foreign reporters.

Miyazawa speaks fluent English; indeed, his skill in a language that all Japanese study but few master has sparked open resentment from other politicians here. "Apparently, speaking English is not very popular," he noted today (in English). Accordingly, he took questions today in English and answered in Japanese. Still, he couldn't resist interrupting here and there to assist or correct his official interpreter.

Despite the strong stance he took on rice and other trade issues, Miyazawa went out of his way to describe his affection and admiration for the United States. With evident fervor he challenged the view, fashionable in intellectual circles here, that America is a nation in decline.

"I firmly believe America is still a great country," Miyazawa declared.

"Really wonderful people—not just the famous, but ordinary Americans!" he went on, warming to the theme. "So many of them are honest, hard-working, decent. Of course there are problems like the homeless, drugs and education. But the American people have the freedom to discuss them ... and the willingness to fix them."

"The real problem in the U.S. has been one of confidence. But after the [Persian] Gulf War, Americans seem to have regained their confidence."

When a reporter suggested that Miyazawa would reduce Japan's economic ties with the United States and focus instead on an Asian economic bloc, the candidate rejected the notion out of hand. "Your premise is wrong," he said. "I want to strengthen our ties with the U.S."

Similarly, he brushed aside the idea that the upcoming 50th anniversary of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor would increase anti-Japanese feelings in the United States. "Reflecting on the past 50 years," he said, "the U.S. and Japan have become such good friends. I think we ought to focus on how we deal with the next 50 years."

To do that, he said, he hopes to sign a "Tokyo Declaration" with President Bush when Bush comes to Japan on Nov. 27. The document, reportedly now being drafted by U.S. and Japanese diplomats, would set the stage for increased cooperation.



AGENCE FRANCE-PRESSE

Miyazawa, with flowers, waves to supporters during a recent Tokyo rally.

n's Premier-Apparent Talks Tough on U.S. Trade Disputes

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Foreign Service

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AGENCE FRANCE-PRESSE

Miyazawa, with flowers, waves to supporters during a recent Tokyo rally.

But Miyazawa took a firm position on trade matters.

On the question of rice imports, he implicitly rejected demands from U.S. farm groups and politicians that Japan open its rice market without waiting for similar concessions by the United States and Europe.

Saying Japan will change its policy only when the Western countries give in as well, he seemed willing to wait some time for a resolution. "Next year there will be an election in the U.S., and so the process will not be simple," he observed.

Japan bans all imports of rice, even though the domestic price for the nation's dietary staple is about six times the world market price. An end to the import ban would not make a significant change, in dollar terms, in the U.S.-Japan trade imbalance. But the rice law has become a powerful symbol in the United States, Europe and South Asia of Japanese intransigence on trade.

Asked about Japan's rising trade surplus with the United States, Miyazawa seemed to put the burden of correcting the imbalance squarely on America's shoulders.

"One possibility would be for the U.S. to buy more from the EC, or for the U.S. to step up its efforts to make American industry competitive," he asserted. He did not mention American proposals that Japan should buy more U.S. goods to offset the trade deficit, and gave short shrift to proposals that Japan should limit sales to the United States.

"Japanese exports are so closely integrated into America's economic structure," Miyazawa said, particularly citing Japanese microelectronic components used by U.S. weapons makers. "If Japanese exports are stopped, there will be problems in the U.S. economy."

Miyazawa was just as tough on the question of Japanese automobile exports, which by most estimates account for half or more of the U.S. trade deficit with Japan. Instead of the vague promises of a brighter future that Japanese politicians have normally made, Miyazawa said bluntly that "the auto problem could get tougher."

For all his chipper demeanor, the prime minister-to-be was dour in talking about Japan's economy. The nation has had nearly five years of sustained growth, the longest boom in modern history. Today the growth continues but the rate of growth is falling.

"Our economy isn't all that good," Miyazawa said. "The conditions aren't very strong."

We have to keep pushing on freedom for the Baltics – but it won't bring freedom to the Baltics if we push Gorbachev off a political cliff.

We have no interest in subsidizing reckless Soviet policies in the Baltics, or repressive Soviet policies inside the country – but food riots in Moscow and Leningrad are not going to push the Soviet Union down the path of democracy and free enterprise. That's one of the reasons why I and many other senators think we should respond positively to the Soviet request for agricultural credit guarantees.

We may want to play harder ball on an issue like Cuba, where the Soviets keep telling us they're going to pull the plug, but never quite get around to doing it, but at the same time the Soviet Foreign Minister has made a first-ever visit to Israel, and with Soviet help we've finally had breakthroughs for peace in Angola and El Salvador. Those are the kinds of policies which would be in jeopardy if Gorbachev were suddenly removed from the scene.

So, in sum, let us understand that Gorbachev's fate is primarily in Gorbachev's hands; but we do have the potential, sometimes, to lend him a hand – or by accident or design to give him a shove over the side. And we ought to use that leverage wisely.

A third and final benchmark for our policy is to make sure we don't put all our eggs in any one basket.

The very fact that Gorbachev is so vulnerable is reason enough to buy all the political insurance we can by expanding our relationships – with others in the current power elite, with opposition political leaders, and with leaders of the constituent republics of the Soviet Union.

This does involve some tight-rope walking. Gorbachev speaks for the Soviet Union, and we negotiate with him on U.S.-Soviet relations, period. We must avoid leaving any impression that we are trying to set up Boris Yeltsin or anyone else as our interlocutor on U.S.-Soviet relations, or as, "our candidate," to succeed Gorbachev.

But there is no reason not to talk to Mr. Yeltsin, as the leader of the Russian Republic; or to any of the other leaders of the other republics; or to any responsible political leader in the Soviet Union. Nor is there any reason to shy away from expressions of support for concepts like democracy and self-determination and free enterprise, or expressions of approval for those who advocate those ideas.

Why should we not deal directly with the republics on matters which even Gorbachev and the Soviet Central Government are acknowledging as within their sphere of responsibility, for example, trade and investment relations? If Gorbachev acknowledges, as he has, that the mines of Russia ought to be within the purview of the Russian Republic, then it ony makes sense that we deal with the Russian Republic on things like investing in mineral exploration, or purchasing mineral products. I have proposed precisely that in a bill I authored and introduced several weeks ago, S.860.

And since we have the right, and it makes sense, to insist that any aid we do provide the Soviet Union reaches the Soviet people on an equitable and non-political basis, it is also natural that we keep open the option of providing assistance directly to the republics – a principle set out in S.9, another bill I introduced at the beginning of this session of Congress.

As President Nixon suggested to me, Gorbachev might in fact need and benefit from having visible signs of U.S. approval of movements for political freedom and free markets, as he grapples with and balances the political pressures on him.

Senator Mitchell and I have invited Mr. Yeltsin to visit Washington and meet with members of the United States Senate. I would hope that, if such a visit takes place, Mr. Yeltsin would also have the opportunity to meet with President Bush. I think it would be equally valuable in regard to the leaders of the other republics.

It would not be a slap at Gorbachev – but a reflection of the reality that power in the Soviet Union is becoming increasingly dispersed. And, as I said, it is also good political insurance – to make sure we have the maximum information on what is happening, and the maximum contacts with those making it happen.

Ladies and gentlemen: these last couple of years have been among the most remarkable and exciting of this century. There has been an explosion of freedom around the world; an historic victory over aggression in the Middle East; and a growing appreciation of the fact that we now live in a world of only one true superpower, but many power centers.

In the midst of all these changes, there has been a very real revolution going on in the Soviet Union – unplanned; ongoing; its import for us and for the world profound, indeed.

Grappling with the old Soviet Union has been the biggest challenge of American foreign policy for 50 years.

Dealing with today's Soviet Union, as it deals with its own revolutionary changes, will be no less challenging and no less important, for us, and for our children.

Japan's Role in the 1990s

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

By EIICHI NAKAO, *Minister, International Trade and Industry*

Delivered at the Foreign Policy Association and the Japan Society, New York, New York, May 3, 1991

THANK YOU very much, Mr. Gleystein, Mr. Curran, ladies and gentlemen. It is an honor for me to address the Japan Society today, and I wish to express my sincere gratitude for having been given this opportunity.

I have been introduced as a politician. I would like to add a few autobiographical descriptions about myself.

I come from Yamanashi Prefecture. I don't think many of you recognize the name, but the word Yamanashi means "wild pear," and as befits the name, Yamanashi is an important prefecture for the cultivation of fruit. Production of peaches and grapes there is the largest in Japan, and the prefecture is renowned for its wine.

I was born the son of a tailor in 1930, in Kofu, the prefectural seat. Many politicians in Japan come from political fam-

ilies or very wealthy families, but in my case, my father was a very ordinary tailor. As for politics, I learned from my parents that you must listen to many people's opinions for making or, if you will, tailoring your own.

During my junior school years I had a very significant encounter. This was when I met Miss Greenbank, a Canadian woman who was teaching at a girls' high school in Kofu. I was already fond of studying English, and I received special guidance from Miss Greenbank. Through her I was introduced to many Americans. I was especially influenced by Professor Harker at Aoyama Gakuin University, where I went to study after high school.

Aoyama Gakuin University is one of Japan's foremost Christian missionary-founded colleges and has traditionally had many American professors. I myself was taught by many of them. The stories I heard from them about American affluence and the fruits of freedom and democracy excited me. I yearned for the day when Japan could match this affluence, freedom, and democracy. When I think back to those days I realize that it was probably then that I first set my sights on a career in politics.

Soon after the war – before the Japanese embassy reopened – I lived in Washington. I was able to see the workings of the U.S. Congress with my own eyes, and I learned about freedom and democracy. Since becoming a member of the Japanese Diet I have continued to place emphasis on developing friendly interchange with members of the U.S. Congress and government officials. I have probably made more visits to the United States than almost any other Japanese Diet member.

All this has become the basis for my unwavering admiration and affection for the United States.

Against this background, the tone of American debates concerning Japan today worries me. Particularly with regard to the matter of Japan's contribution to the Gulf War, I feel disappointed that American people have not sufficiently understood the Japanese position.

I wonder how many of you know that Japan even raised taxes in order to contribute to the coalition forces. The amount raised totaled in yen the equivalent of 11 billion dollars – the largest amount contributed by any of the industrialized countries. There was criticism in the United States about the delay of Japan's response, but surely in a democratic state it does take some time to gain the people's consent to tax increases.

At his meeting with Prime Minister Kaifu in Los Angeles last month, President Bush expressed his appreciation for Japan's contribution. We thought that was a very nice gesture, and hoped it would change the American view of this matter. Unfortunately, as a result of a combination of circumstances, the occasion went largely unnoticed.

For me the biggest cause for concern is that the American people have come to regard Japan as a selfish country that does not have the will to make contributions which are, as they often say, "commensurate with its international economic status."

To be sure, the pace of Japan's economic growth and the rise in its international position were very rapid, and occurred within a short space of time. So, for a while, the Japanese had a somewhat limited awareness of their international responsibilities.

However, today the Japanese people are aware that they share with the American people a set of values such as peace, democracy, economic freedom, and free trade. And they understand full well that these values have been the most important preconditions for Japan's economic development and for the dramatic rise in the country's international profile. They also know Japan will have to depend on the maintenance of these values for its survival. What Japan has done over the past several years will show this.

First, to provide a market to support the development of the world economy, Japan has dramatically increased imports. Over the three-year period from 1987 to 1990, Japan's imports from countries throughout the world increased by 85.3 billion dollars. The scale of this ranks on a par with the entire gross national product of some countries. For example, in 1989, Indonesia's GNP was 87.9 billion dollars, and Norway's was 92.1 billion dollars. During the same period, the U.S. imports increased by about the same amount. Still, Japan's achievement can't be belittled. After all, Japan's economy is half that of the United States.

As regards Japan's imports from the United States, as President Bush pointed out at the news conference following his meeting with Mr. Kaifu, the average value of U.S. goods purchased last year by every man, woman, and child in Japan was 395 dollars, which was higher than the average 360 dollars spent by Americans on Japanese-made products. Overall, the value of Japan's imports from the United States in 1990 was about 50 billion dollars, which was almost as much as the combined total of 56 billion dollars of U.S. goods purchased by the three European countries of Britain, Germany, and France.

Having mentioned Britain, I might as well add that the increase in Japan's imports from the United States during the past three years alone was equal to the total of Britain's imports from the United States in 1990. In other words, in just three years the United States has acquired, in Japan, a new export market the size of the entire British market.

The increase in Japan's imports has in large part been due to the shift in Japan's economic management towards domestic-demand-led growth in the mid-1980s. Whatever the reason, the belief and contention among some American people – including those in a position to know better – that the Japanese market is inflexible and closed is plainly wrong. How can a market with such dynamism be called inflexible, let alone closed?

Second, we believe that the maintenance and development of the free-trade system is indispensable to the creation of global prosperity, and regard the success of the Uruguay Round as a matter of utmost importance. With this belief, it was Japan, along with the United States, that proposed the start of a new round in GATT.

Japan has played a leadership role in negotiations on market access. For example, it has proposed mutual elimination of tariffs on thirty-two hundred product categories. This is well above the total of 16 hundred proposed by the United States. The industrial products on Japan's list are broad in scope, and overlap many of those proposed by the United States. We remain committed to work in concert with the United States towards achieving the success of the Uruguay Round.

While we are working on a more open global trade system, concepts for regional free-trade zones have emerged one after another around the world. Prime examples are the imminent economic integration of the European Community and the concept for a North American Free Trade Agreement.

Concepts for regional free-trade areas are to be welcomed

insofar as they have trade-creation effects. As long as such zones invigorate the economies of countries within them and benefit countries outside, they should be encouraged. There is concern, however, that if the countries involved adopt closed-door policies, it will trigger the division of the world economy into blocs.

This concern is felt particularly keenly in Asia, which fears that it may be left behind by Europe and North America. It certainly lies behind Malaysian Prime Minister Mahatir's advocacy of the East Asian Economic Grouping – or the EAEG, which would exclude countries such as the United States and Canada. The idea of an Asian economy without the United States is inconceivable to me. I definitely will *not* agree to the formation of any closed economic grouping. Nevertheless, I do note that behind the measure of support that this EAEG concept has received in Asia is a strong sense of unease among some Asian countries that the United States may have lost interest in Asia as it becomes inward-looking.

For my part I believe that the trade and economic system within the Asia-Pacific region should be based on Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation, or APEC, of which the United States is also a part. APEC, which was organized two years ago under the initiative of Japan and the U.S., certainly does *not* aim to create an exclusive trading bloc. On the contrary, one of APEC's important roles is to oppose all such moves and to strongly support a trading structure that is open to the world.

Third, Japan has been extending greater economic cooperation in a variety of ways. For example, our official development assistance, or ODA, totaled 9 billion dollars in 1989, which surpassed the amount provided by the United States, the greatest donor until that year.

About ODA, too, certain misconceptions remain. Some people believe, for example, that all of Japan's aid comes in the form of tied funds allowing orders to be placed only with Japanese companies, and is thus designed as a means of promoting Japanese exports. In fact, 73 percent of the funds are untied, and orders can be placed with companies anywhere in the world. This figure is far higher than the corresponding figure for the United States, which is 26 percent.

Let me now turn to Japan's role in fostering world peace and stability. As you all know, Japan has enjoyed peace and stability throughout the more than four decades since World War II, and there can be no doubt that this was the main factor contributing to the country's economic growth.

But the ending of East-West confrontation in recent years has unleashed forces that are inherent in certain regions but that were held in check by the fabric of U.S.-Soviet antagonism. Also, in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, the shift from planned economic structures to market economies is already giving rise to difficulties and confusion. This raises the fear that serious social instability will occur, and that these regions will once again move away from democratization and the free-market economy.

Last month President Gorbachev visited Japan and had talks with Prime Minister Kaifu towards normalization of Japan-Soviet relations. On that occasion, I told the Soviet Foreign Economic Minister that the Soviet Union must make greater efforts to stabilize its economy and perestroika.

But telling the Soviet Union what to do is not the only thing we have been doing. My agency, MITI, has begun to work with the Japan Productivity Center and the newly formed All Union Productivity Center to help the Soviet Union improve its productivity. We also exchange personnel in the economic field. As many of you know, Japan learned the idea for the productivity center from the United States. Today we are passing the concept on to the Soviet Union.

In Latin America too, peace and democratization are spreading. But here, too, there is the fear that economic confusion created by factors such as the debt crisis and rampant inflation will cause serious social instability.

MITI is keen to extend unstinting cooperation in trade, investment, and energy. We would like to work with the United States for the Partnership for Democracy and Development it has advocated. We believe major economic powers must support economic development in Latin American countries. In this belief, Japan last year carried out a large-scale recycling of funds to Mexico.

The situation in the Middle East following the recovery of Kuwait from Iraq gives us little cause for optimism. The courage of the American people thwarted Iraq's evil designs in invading Kuwait, but we now face large numbers of refugees and the grave pollution in and around the Persian Gulf. Japan is giving assistance to countries in the area and providing funds and supplies to aid Kurdish and other refugees. We are also trying to see if we can use our advanced technologies in environmental rehabilitation. We intend to continue efforts to make any necessary contributions.

While on the subject of the Gulf War, I would comment on a lesson to be learned from the war. This is that during the Iran-Iraq war, many countries provided massive supplies of arms to Iraq. As a result, Iraq acquired armaments well in excess of those of neighboring countries. I think that became a major factor in promoting Saddam Hussein to invade Kuwait.

As a country guided by a peace constitution, Japan has long adhered to a policy of not exporting arms. Needless to say, idealism alone is not enough for peace and stability. I nevertheless believe that to make world peace an enduring reality, there must be a balanced but sharp reduction in the arms trade.

The colossal environment destruction in the Gulf reminds us of global environmental problems, one critical issue facing the world today. To reduce pollution worldwide, all nations must pool knowledge and resources. But we believe that Japan has some of the more advanced environmental technologies, and we are advocating a two-pronged plan called The New Earth 21. It involves the transfer of energy conservation and clean-energy technologies to developing countries, and the development of innovative technologies such as the one for solidifying for re-use carbon dioxide, a major cause of the greenhouse effect. Prime Minister Kaifu advocated this plan at the Houston Summit last July.

Last year we established the Research Institution of Innovative Technology for the Earth to develop new areas of advanced environmental technologies. This institution is seeking international participation, and a number of countries have already expressed strong interest. It is hoped that the United States will also positively respond. As in many other fields, concerted action by the United States and Japan is indispensable in global energy conservation and pollution abatement. One idea we have in mind is extending economic cooperation to developing countries in the form of non-pollution machinery and equipment.

So far I have talked about what Japan is doing and can do for the world – that is, for maintaining free trade, creating

peace and stability, and conserving the global environment. But there is one vital prerequisite for the success of these efforts, and that is the economic reinvigoration of the United States.

As the Gulf War has clearly shown, the world still needs U.S. leadership. The standard bearer of world peace and the free-trade system can be none other than the United States. Powerful U.S. economic strength is the cornerstone of this leadership.

Regrettably, over the past few years some aspects of the U.S. economy have been weakening. If this situation is prolonged over time, the maintenance of world peace and the free-trade system will become increasingly difficult.

Suggestions for what the United States can and must do to alter this situation have been made by prominent economists and policy makers. During the Structural Impediments Initiative or SII talks, the Japanese side also made a range of suggestions. These include such things as the substantial reduction of the budget deficit, changing the short-term orientation of corporate management, improvement of the product-liablity system, and the adoption of the metric system. As a politician, I know that many of these objectives are politically and socially difficult to achieve, but I believe at least some of them deserve to be pursued with greater vigor.

In the meantime, there is some good news. Exports are booming to such an extent that some American economists predict that the U.S. economy will be led by exports for the next several years or longer. And foreign investors continue to come to this country — a sign of its enormous strength and resilience.

About foreign investment, especially about Japanese investment in this country, there are, of course, those who worry that it is detrimental to the United States. Restrictive regulations have been introduced in Congress, and some have even become law.

But like many American economists, I firmly believe that foreign investment should be welcomed. In 1988, foreign-affilitated companies operating in the United States are estimated to have employed a total of 3.7 million people. The Japanese share in the employment was relatively small at 400,000, but the Japanese-affiliated companies contributed an impressive 24.5 billion dollars, or 7.6 percent, to the U.S. exports. This is the largest share among foreign groups in this country, as it is four times the total generated by Canadian companies, which make up the second-largest group. Foreign companies also contribute to the improvement of U.S. productivity, as has been amply demonstrated by NUMMI — the joint venture between Toyota and General Motors. I think we must all learn to appreciate positive sides.

I wish to take this opportunity to report that the Export-Import Bank of the United States and MITI have reached an agreement to work together to further promote U.S. exports and foster the recycling of capital to developing countries. Under this agreement MITI is committed to provide trade-insurance for U.S. exports up to 1 billion dollars. The scheme also incorporates the use of MITI prepayment import insurance for U.S. exports to Japan.

The Japan Society of New York, I'm told, was founded in 1907 as a nonpolitical, nonprofit cultural organization for the purpose of promoting mutual understanding between the United States and Japan. Some of you may remember that during the early decades of this century U.S.-Japanese relations were at one of the lowest points since Commodore Matthew Perry of the U.S. Navy opened Japan to international commerce in 1853. When you think of that, we cannot help marveling at the courage and foresight of the people who founded an institution like the Japan Society at such a time.

Yes, it is true, Japan and the United States today *do* face some problems in our relationship. But in the history of our relations, there certainly were moments that were far more debilitating. If you keep in your perspective the simple but important fact of mutually beneficial interdependence we have developed and fostered, the problems we face today may be said to be of a happier kind.

Thank you again for giving me this opportunity to speak to you at the Japan Society.

Now it is my turn to be a listener.

Foreign Investment in Japan

KEIRETSU BUSINESS PRACTICES

By T. BOONE PICKENS, *General Partner, Wesa Limited Partnership*

Delivered at the Japan Society, Los Angeles and San Diego, CA, October 23, 1990

THANK YOU. I appreciate the opportunity to address such a distinguished and respected organization. I've been asked to talk about my recent experiences in Japan and to save some time at the end for questions.

As a geologist and an oil and gas producer, I've done business in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia and Africa.

—In the past few years, I've given hundreds of speeches where I've talked about the importance of free trade the critical need for competition in the global economy.

During the 1980s, the United States witnessed a strong challenge from the Japanese . . . especially in the electronics and automotive industry.

—I'm thankful for that competition. Without it, I'm convinced that Americans would all be driving Oldsmobile diesels.

—My dad used to say, "Son, I don't believe that car would pull your hat off."

Because I wanted to participate in the miracle Japanese economy, I invested in it.

—Today, I own 26 percent of a Japanese company called Koito Manufacturing, which supplies the lighting systems for Toyota vehicles.

I've made it clear from the outset that I am a long-term investor. My goal is to play a constructive role and help Koito move into the global marketplace.

—Of course, I want to make a profit in the process.

Instead of welcoming my involvement, Koito has fought me at every turn.

Still, I know a lot more about Koito today than I did 18 months ago.

A year-and-a-half ago, I had never heard the word keiretsu. Today, as a result of my Koito investment, I'm witnessing firsthand the anti-competitive aspects of corporate Japan's secret weapon.

All I have asked for is a chance. American shareholders must receive the same investment rights in Japan that Japanese investors are routinely granted in the U.S. under our free market economic principles.

They've rejected my request for board representation twice now, even though Toyota, which only owns 19 percent of Koito, has three board seats.

—I can't even get one seat, and they are spending hundreds of thousands of dollars of their shareholders money to fight me.

—26 percent of that is my money!

My request for board representation was denied for the second time at Koito's annual meeting last June.

I was alarmed by the level of hostilities towards me and the 50 American shareholders who accompanied me.

Know this, had such insults been hurled at Japanese shareholders attending an annual meeting in the U.S., there would be a public outcry, calls for apologies and worldwide condemnation.

Why won't Koito and Toyota give me a chance?

—Because Japan doesn't want Americans to see corporate Japan from the inside, and how their pricing policies prevent U.S. manufacturing companies and parts suppliers from gaining a foot-hold in their economy.

Japan is using these corporate cartels to unfairly compete with the U.S., and it's Japan's middle class that is paying the price for Japan's effort to buy U.S. marketshare and technology.

Today, we see Japan's keiretsus for what they are . . . modern-day cartels run by modern-day robber barons whose favorite brand of competition is no competition.

—What's more, these Japanese cartels are not only a direct threat to America's free market principles, they are the wedge that is prying the American and Japanese people apart.

Dr. Chalmers Johnson of the University of California at San Diego, and I understand a member of the Japan Society's board, wrote in a recent article, "Keiretsu refers to the rigging of a market system in order to achieve political goals," and he also writes, "keiretsues are actually cartels used to gouge domestic consumers and keep foreign competitors out."

—I'm sorry Dr. Johnson couldn't be here today, he sounds like a very smart man.

Because of Japan's anti-competitive corporate cartels, America is being forced to compete in the global economy with one arm tied behind its back.

—In short, Japan is refusing to compete fairly with the U.S. by exporting an economic structure condoned in Japan, but outlawed under U.S. anti-trust laws.

In fact, the U.S. Federal Trade Commission has launched an investigation to determine whether Japan is exporting its corporate cartels to the United States in violation of those anti-trust laws.

Invariably, someone suggests that the U.S. should imitate —

not obliterate — Japan's way of doing business. That's baloney.

—We fought the cartels nearly a century ago and won, and enhanced market competition in the process. It's time we step up the fight against these cartels again so that we can achieve similar results.

In a moment, I want to take a few questions. But first, let me tell you some of the questions I've been asking, and haven't been able to get answered by Toyota or Koito . . .

Why did representatives of Toyota and Koito meet secretly in Washington to discuss ways to thwart the current Federal Trade Commission investigation into keiretsu activities?

Why have Toyota's financial records been subpoenaed as part of that Federal Trade Commission probe?

Why did Toyota only recently remove a provision in its bylaws prohibiting Americans and other foreigners from serving on its board of directors?

—More importantly, why was such a discriminatory restriction placed in Toyota's bylaws in the first place?

Why is Toyota reporting record profits, but Koito, a captive supplier in Toyota's cartel, reporting losses?

Why are Toyota and other Japanese companies under investigation by the Internal Revenue Service for allegedly failing to pay their fair share of U.S. taxes?

Those aren't tough questions, but issues Toyota and Koito won't address, unless they are forced to. And that may happen soon.

The U.S. Congress, the Federal Trade Commission and the U.S. Internal Revenue Service are all investigating some aspect of Japan's keiretsus or compliance with U.S. tax laws.

Last summer, in a closed U.S. House Ways and Means Committee meeting, IRS agents reported that a number of Japanese companies . . . including Toyota . . . underpaid U.S. taxes by as much as 34 billion dollars.

One additional fact causes reason for concern.

—The receipts of Japanese controlled U.S. corporations have increased from 112.6 billion dollars in 1984 to 184.9 billion dollars in 1987, yet the income reported by those companies has fallen from 1.8 billion dollars to 219 million dollars in that same timeframe.

—If the profits of these Japanese controlled American companies are falling at such a rapid clip, why do they continue investing in the U.S.?

Since I have identified the problem, it's only reasonable that I define a solution.

How should Washington attack Japan's keiretsus? On four fronts:

—With tough and meaningful trade negotiations.

—With aggressive enforcement of U.S. anti-trust laws.

—With a report card grading Japan's compliance with the recent SII accords.

—And, finally, with aggressive enforcement of U.S. tax laws.

Let me make a final point, then I will be happy to take a few questions . . .

—Japan must abandon its keiretsu business practices before it can become a welcome participant in the global economy.

—Until that happens, these anti-competitive cartels are a wedge threatening to drive the U.S. and Japanese people apart.

Thank you.

Stewardship of the Nation's Forests

FACT VERSUS FICTION

By WILLIAM T. ROBISON, *President, American Plywood Association (APA)*

Delivered at the APA 54th Annual Meeting, Hilton Head Island, South Carolina, October 9, 1990

WE ARE confronted today with a multitude of issues and problems. None of these is more life threatening long term to our industry than the battle over allocation of our timber resources.

It seems ironic to me that, as a nation, we stand prepared to go to war in order to protect our *foreign* oil interests. Yet, we are blindly committed to locking up our own *domestic* forests.

Is it going to require the equivalent of gasoline shortages and rationing before the general public recognizes the terrible cost of misguided forest resource setasides? Let's hope not.

But that will be the inevitable result — spiraling unemployment, housing costs out of the reach of most Americans, paper products we now take for granted in short supply and prohibitively expensive — if those clamoring for the impoundment of all our timber win this battle.

We are up against a lot of myths, commonly held by millions of Americans. These myths are being perpetuated by major elements of our national news media. Respected magazines like *National Geographic, Time, Life,* our daily newspapers . . . even in Tacoma, Washington and Portland, Oregon, are caught up in the feeding frenzy. If we are to gain a rational, just and common sense solution to this protracted conflict, we must secure public understanding of the pertinent facts.

I know Congress is important, the Administration is important. But, in the final analysis, they react to the will of their constituencies.

Until the average voter in Indiana and every other state in the Union understands the awful truth of what's happening to timber supply, we'll continue to lose this war through compromise after compromise after compromise.

Some of you may remember our industry's past battles with the preservationists. The first that I remember, 25 years ago, was called Monongahela . . . then there was RARE I . . . after that it was RARE II. They all ended in compromises which locked up more and more timber. The spotted owl issue will also end in some kind of compromise. Each time we think the war is over.

No, the war is far from over. The war won't be over until the media and the public can see beyond the myths, and can understand the truth.

What are those myths . . . and what is the truth? It's difficult to know where to start, because there is so much *misinformation* out there.

The first draft of this speech took 45 minutes to speed read. Mercifully for you, this morning I have reduced it to 25 minutes. I'll discuss only four of those myths that can be consid-

PICKING JAPAN'S RESEARCH BRAINS

At last U.S. companies are overcoming the "not invented here" syndrome and learning how to tap Japan's vast technological resources—just as Japan has tapped America's. ■ *by Susan Moffat*



SHIGEO KOGURE

It's raining R&D: Texas Instruments Japan director Norman Neureiter in Tokyo's electronics district

ON A CLEAR DAY, Tom Kelly can see Mount Fuji from his lab. But the best thing about being in Japan, says the head of Eastman Kodak's $70 million research center in Yokohama, is viewing firsthand the world's fastest-paced race in applied research—by taking part in it. Kelly's mandate is to hire Japan's most talented electronics and materials researchers and get them to discover new technologies for Kodak products. Says Kelly: "If you're serious about staying competitive globally, you've got to be on the ground here."

For years Japan has come to the U.S., bought or borrowed the best of America's technology, and sold it back to the U.S. as finished products. Japanese companies have sent thousands of engineers to be trained at American universities and set up basic research labs on American turf: Computer giant NEC located its new $25 million lab in Princeton and hired top scientists from nearby Bell Labs to help lead it. Kobe Steel and Fujitsu have research centers in Silicon Valley. Sixteen Japanese companies have endowed chairs at MIT, at about $2 million a shot.

So far, the technology flow has been pretty much one way. In 1989, U.S. companies took in $2.5 billion selling technology to the Japanese but spent only $500 million to buy technology from Japan. Now, though, more and more American high-tech companies are setting up laboratories in Japan, which could start reversing the imbalance. These U.S. corporations are aiming to become as aggressive at picking up and commercializing Japanese ideas as the Japanese have been at acquiring U.S. technology.

This year Texas Instruments is opening a basic research laboratory in Japan, as Dow Corning, IBM, Du Pont, and W.R. Grace have already done. At least ten others, including Kodak, Dow Chemical, Pfizer, and Digital Equipment, are doing applied re-

search in their own Japanese labs. They are hiring leading Japanese scientists away from companies like Hitachi, Toshiba, and Nissan, from elite universities, and from labs run by the Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITI). The Americans offer competitive salaries—a senior scientist at age 45 can easily earn $138,000 a year—and, more beguiling, greater intellectual freedom and the chance to plug into global research networks.

U.S. companies are also funding research by prominent professors and luring top Japanese students with scholarships. American outfits are being invited to join Japanese government-funded research consortiums—which could help them keep an eye on their competitors. Meanwhile, a small group of young American scientists and engineers are learning technical Japanese and penetrating the heart of corporate R&D with internships in labs of companies like NEC, Hitachi, and Toshiba, which are eager to build long-term relationships with American scientists and universities.

UNTIL RECENTLY, most American companies didn't have a clue how to get at Japanese technology. Though Japan's universities have long been open, most cutting-edge research goes on in corporate laboratories traditionally closed to outsiders. Most scientists' papers are published in Japanese and thus inaccessible to foreign readers, who generally have not bothered to learn the fiendishly difficult language; translation is time-consuming and expensive. Another barrier: Japanese technology tends not to be up for sale as much as American expertise is. Unlike a lot of American companies, the Japanese are often reluctant to license what they know to improve their profits in the short term. They consider it far more valuable as a long-term asset.

None of this was a problem when the world looked on Japan as a mere technology copycat. But now Japan originates many of the most advanced applications in such fields as high-definition television, liquid-crystal displays, semiconductors, biotechnology, so-called new materials—such as exotic formulations of gallium arsenide for semiconductors—and, overwhelmingly, the technology of manufacturing. The Japanese government has given a top priority to improving the country's basic research capabilities, with a new openness to foreigners—and a high level of scientific achievement—that takes getting used to.

REPORTER ASSOCIATE *Joshua Mendes*

American companies have not been as quick as they might have been to seize this opportunity to acquire new technology. Many seem not to remember that the U.S. was once the world's best commercializer of imported inventions. Henry Ford reverse-engineered German car motors; the British invented jet engines. "We've been a leader and teacher so long that we've forgotten how to be a student," says Michael Mintz at Dow Chemical International. He heads a team of nine whose sole job is to collect ideas and develop relationships with Japanese universities, companies, and government agencies. Mintz's fellow American research directors in Japan almost unanimously agree that the greatest obstacle to their efforts isn't the Japanese but the "not invented here" syndrome that has come to blind Americans to developments outside their own labs.

Charles Wallace, who represents the National Science Foundation in Tokyo, says his biggest disappointment is that it's still hard to get American scientists to do research in Japan, even though the Japanese government will often foot the bill. In a recent year America sent to Japan only about 1,400 researchers; Japan sent nearly 8,500 to the U.S. The gap is even greater among college and graduate students: An army of nearly 30,000 of them from Japan invaded the U.S. last year, vs. a meager battalion of 1,180 Americans who studied at Japanese universities. Only 7% of students enrolled in foreign-language classes at Northwestern University near Chicago are studying Japanese, and over 40% drop out after the first year.

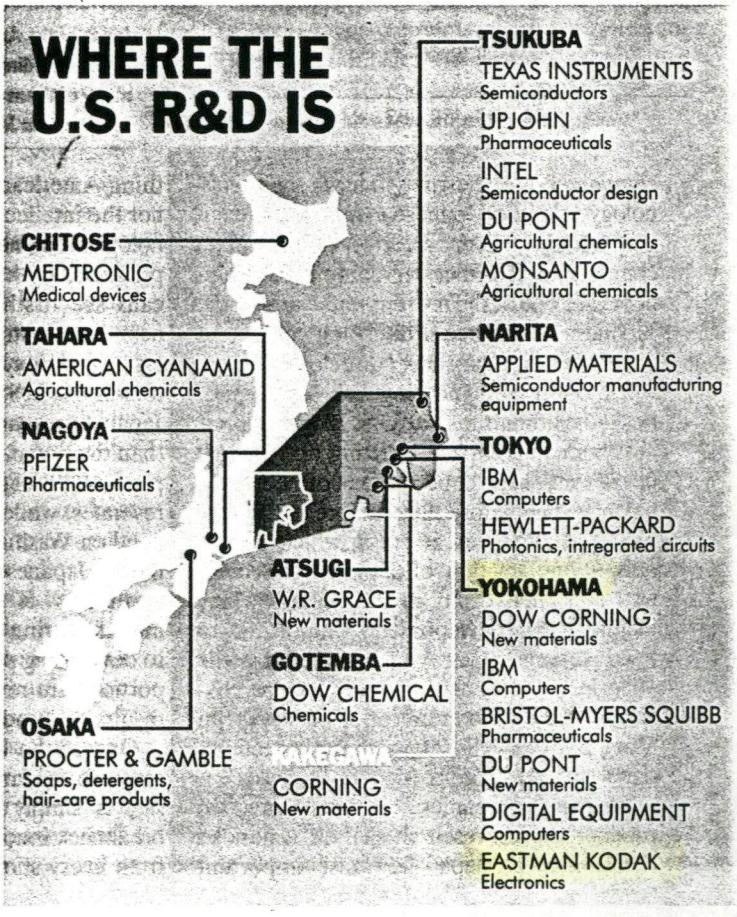
Japan is already a richer source of ideas for the U.S. than many people recognize. In the late 1980s American companies licensed or otherwise bought more technology from Japan than from any other country except Britain—evidence that the reluctance of Japanese companies to sell their expertise is not absolute. In 1990 the U.S. spent $491 million to license technology from Japan, up from $89 million eight years earlier.

What Japanese corporations remain reluctant to sell, Americans are creating from scratch on Japanese soil. While Japanese

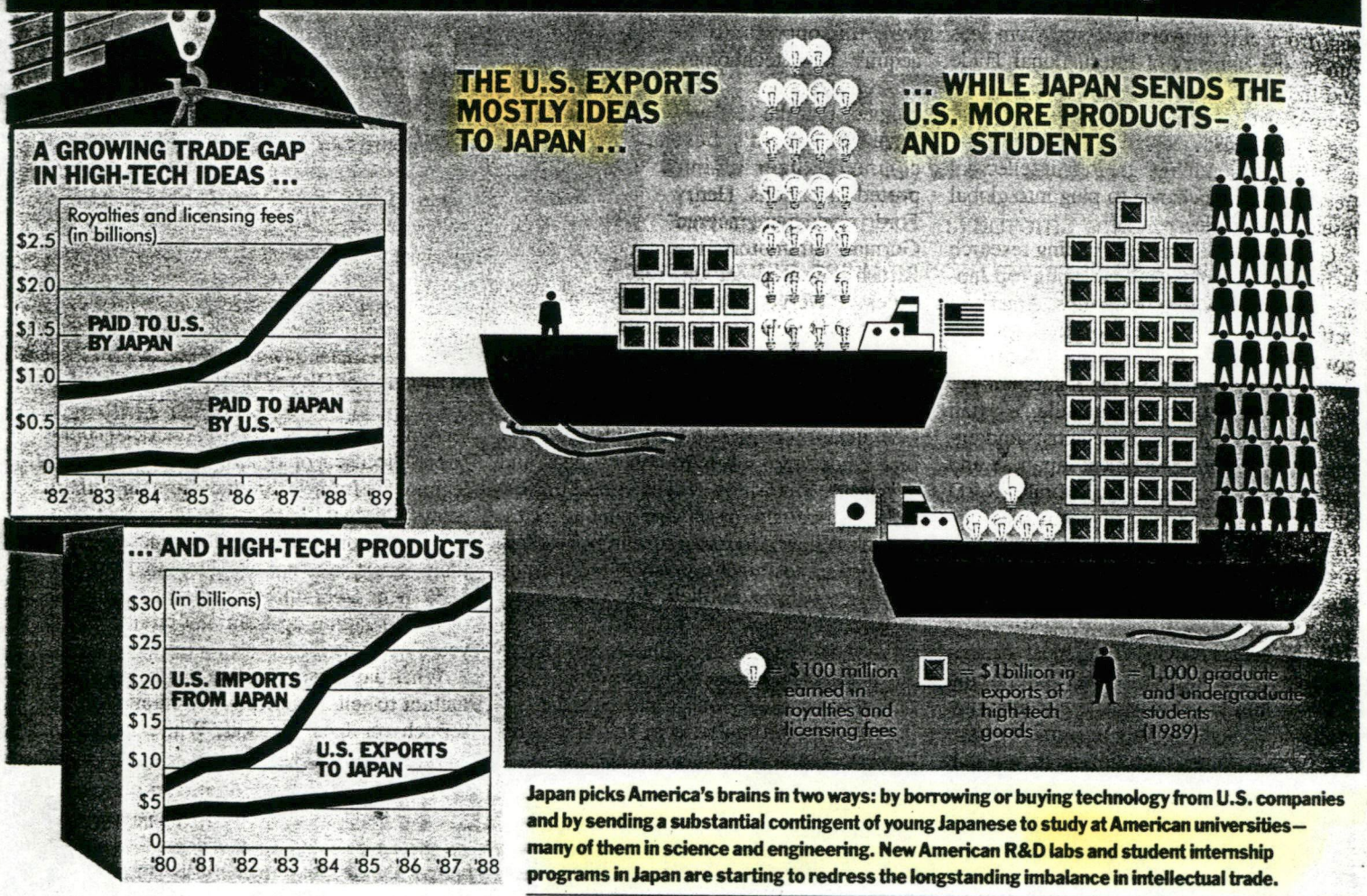


BRUCE OSBORN

In the picture: Hiroyuki Ishibashi and Michael Mintz of Dow Chemical



THE LOPSIDED TRAFFIC ACROSS THE PACIFIC



Japan picks America's brains in two ways: by borrowing or buying technology from U.S. companies and by sending a substantial contingent of young Japanese to study at American universities—many of them in science and engineering. New American R&D labs and student internship programs in Japan are starting to redress the longstanding imbalance in intellectual trade.

companies often hesitate to hawk their technology, talented Japanese *individuals* are eager to offer their creative abilities and connections to American companies. Engineers are one of the most mobile parts of the Japanese work force. Publishing companies produce two-inch-thick directories every week listing engineering job opportunities—including those at U.S. labs in Japan.

American companies setting up research operations there hope to hear of new technologies long before they surface in the U.S. technical and general press, which carries only a tiny fraction of Japanese discoveries—and then often months late. "Many technological developments important to my company never get reported by the American press, even though they're covered in Japanese publications," says Jim Martin, Rockwell International's technology watcher in Tokyo.

Japanese companies now devote as much funding to basic research as their American rivals. But perhaps the most important thing American companies hope to learn is not the intellectual foundation of new technologies but new ways to make them into products. By being on the ground, Americans see firsthand that the Japanese labs next door are turning research into products faster and more cheaply than their competitors in the U.S. Americans also notice that Japanese research is far more market driven than their own. Japanese companies have to pay for 98% of their research from their own revenues, while their U.S. counterparts depend on Washington to fund fully a third of theirs. Japanese companies usually devote two-thirds of R&D funds to improving manufacturing processes and only one-third to developing products. In the U.S., the proportions are reversed—often with unhappy results for product quality.

One of the biggest advantages of doing research in Japan, American businessmen say, is simply living where reminders of breakneck innovation bombard you nonstop from every shop window. Walk around the electronics bazaar of Tokyo's Akihabara district and you will find "intelligent" washing machines that use semiconductors to measure the dirt in clothes and $1,400 toilet-bidets that incorporate integrated circuits to spray you with water at just the right temperature. There are copy machines the size of instant cameras, boom boxes with built-in word processors, computers no bigger than a Popsicle that can read 3,500 handwritten Chinese characters. On crowded commuter trains, tiny flat-screen TVs help make the journey bearable.

AMERICAN RESEARCH directors in Tokyo exude enthusiasm. Says Tom Kelly of Kodak: "I'm living in a rich technological stew." Kodak's experience is worth examining in some detail. For a company accustomed to ruling U.S. film markets from its laboratories in Rochester, New York, it was not easy to shift gears and look overseas for new developments. But in the 1980s it became

ILLUSTRATIONS BY TONY MIKOLAJCZYK

clear that the future of Kodak's erstwhile stronghold—manipulating images—lay as much in electronics as in film. Says Kelly: "The world had changed, and we had a difficult psychological adjustment to make. We went from not having to look outside to a situation where the technological building blocks were no longer under our control."

Howell Hammond, head of Kodak research in Japan in the early 1980s, literally stuck pins in a map of Japan to plan his attack. The pins, which marked the locations of leading corporate electronics labs, revealed a high concentration of them in a swath of Tokyo suburbs. To increase Kodak's chances of hiring away Japanese scientists, and to jump into the thick of Japan's face-to-face information network, Hammond recommended locating there.

"We've been a teacher so long that we've forgotten how to be a student."

In 1987 the company broke ground for a 180,000-square-foot research center and began the equally important task of cultivating leading scientists to help with recruiting. Kodak used all the tactics Japanese firms deploy in the U.S. It began financing research by university scientists and providing scholarships for outstanding young Japanese engineers, some of whom later joined the company. It hired stars like Uichi Itoh, an internationally known materials scientist then at MITI's electrotechnical lab. Itoh attracted experienced colleagues from Toshiba, Hitachi, and other leading Japanese companies, and recruited young graduates of first-rate universities like the Tokyo Institute of Technology. Says Kelly: "We are becoming full members of the Japanese community, with access to the kind of information our competitors have."

Full-scale operation, with a staff of 70, began in October 1988. Today Japan is the center of Kodak's worldwide efforts in molecular beam epitaxy, a method of growing crystals for making gallium arsenide chips. Also, for one of Kodak's Japanese customers the lab developed a system for sending fax images to multiple locations directly from a computer; it is now being sold worldwide. "We probably wouldn't have developed that if we weren't here," says Kelly. Kodak has expanded its staff to 90 and added a $10 million wing to the lab.

Kelly says he hasn't encountered any significant barriers to gathering technological information. "It's actually easier to collect it here than in the U.S.," he observes. Japanese companies, he notes, announce new technological developments in both the popular press and the trade press faster and more consistently than American companies do. His staffers pick up a constant stream of tidbits when they're out drinking or playing tennis with friends from university days, or from previous employers, customers, and even competitors. Compared with the relative isolation of Rochester, Tokyo's concentration of industry keeps competitors keenly aware of one another's activities. In this environment, information flows like electric current.

A sampling of the Japanese R&D ventures of five other U.S. companies:

■ **DOW CORNING.** Keeping up with international developments is nothing new to this joint venture, formed in 1943 to exploit silicone, a European invention. The company, still owned by its two U.S. parents, established a presence in Japan three decades ago. Silicone is an advanced material derived from sand and used in everything from airplane fuel systems to medical equipment to breast implants. Seeing Japan race ahead in research on a broad variety of new materials, the company opened a $7 million basic research lab in Yokohama last October. Says Gordon Fearon, technical director of Dow Corning Japan: "We saw silicone being targeted as a key new material by MITI and decided we'd better be part of the research going on here."

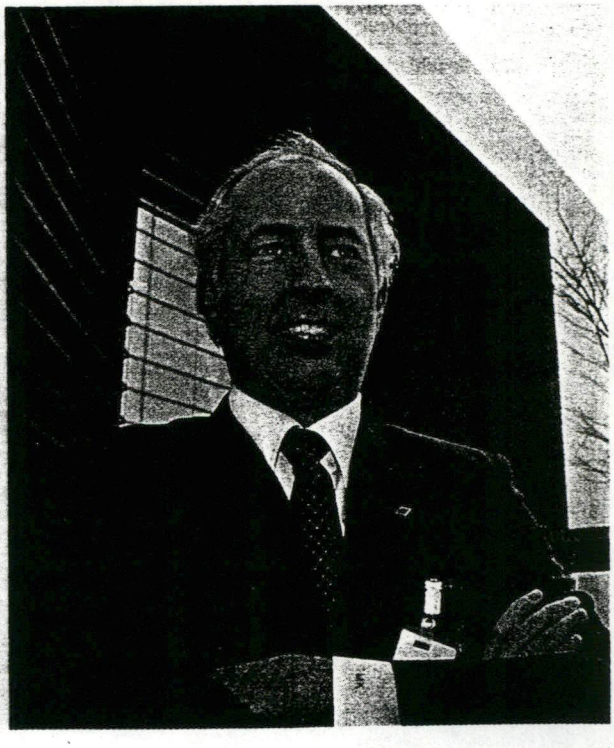
In the early 1970s the company beat its American competition to commercializing silicone ceramics, a heat- and wear-resistant new material useful in the aerospace, automobile, and electronics industries. The material was invented by a Japanese. Fearon heard of it early on. He was introduced to its inventor by another Japanese scientist who had won a prize for silicone research from Dow Corning. Says Fearon: "We did to the Japanese technology what they've been so fond of doing to ours—we developed our own products inspired by their ideas."

■ **IBM.** Twenty-one years ago, long before most foreign companies thought Japan had much to offer scientifically, Big Blue set up a research center in Tokyo. Today the 240 basic researchers there regularly exchange ideas with other IBM labs around the world. "Japan is ahead of the U.S. in many areas of hardware and component manufacturing, such as opto-electronics, liquid-crystal displays, and some types of semiconductors," notes Norihisa Suzuki, a former associate professor at Tokyo University who heads the lab. "There is lots of technology we can pick up or develop and bring to IBM labs around the world." IBM hires 30% of its research scientists in Japan in mid-career from universities or other companies. That helps Big Blue maintain good communications where it counts.

IBM's Tokyo lab is doing basic research in image-recognition systems, multiprocessor computing, and computer applications. The sister product development lab near Yokohama has contributed a number of products to IBM's global lineup over the years. The latest, developed jointly with IBM's Almaden Research Center in California: a 3½-inch-diameter magneto-optical disk that can store the enormous amounts of data required for movie-like images and sound. *continued*

Kodak's Tom Kelly at research center in Yokohama

SHIGEO KOGURE





TAKESHI YUZAWA

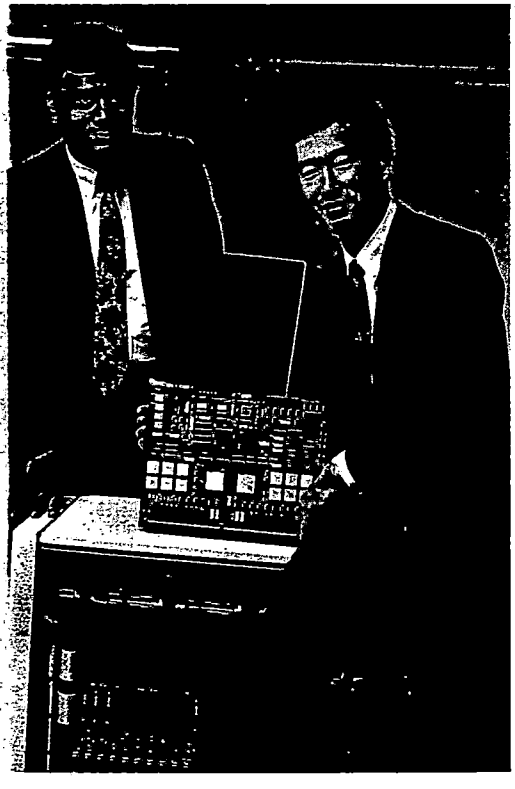
Dow Corning Japan's Gordon Fearon with silicone products

■ **TEXAS INSTRUMENTS.** Dallas-based TI has found that technology transfers from its Japanese manufacturing plants and design centers to its U.S. operations have brought major benefits. The company has been designing and manufacturing semiconductors in Japan for about 20 years, and has 5,000 employees there. Later this year TI will open an ambitious fundamental research lab that will eventually be home to 200 scientists at Tsukuba, 90 minutes from Tokyo, which is fast becoming one of the world's biggest concentrations of government and private laboratories.

Norman Neureiter, a director of Texas Instruments Japan, says TI's Japanese design labs develop products that would not get made in the U.S. "Our technology is driven forward by Japanese market demands," he says. "We decided to work on chips for consumer electronics here because there's hardly any market left in the U.S., and making those chips will spin off benefits for many of our other products." For example, the company has licensed high-definition-television technology from public broadcaster NHK so it can make chips for HDTV sets, which are already being marketed in Japan on a limited basis. The U.S. has yet to decide on broadcast standards for HDTV, which will not hit the American market until around 1995. Says Neureiter: "The expertise we get by starting early to design HDTV chips here will give us a leg up on whatever standard is chosen for the U.S."

Neureiter regularly brings over young engineers from the U.S. to see how things are done in TI's Japanese plants, which have provided valuable advances in manufacturing techniques to the company's factories worldwide. The Americans are surprised to learn that many of their Japanese peers work as factory technicians for as long as five years before doing any semiconductor design. Says Neureiter: "When it's time for them to design chips, you can be sure they are easy to manufacture. They know what it's like to make the things." He thinks the experience American engineers gain working in Japan makes them more productive once they return to Texas.

IBM's Suzuki (right) with colleague Avi Mukherjee



TIM PORTER

■ **UPJOHN.** Japan is making major strides in pharmaceuticals and medical equipment, with Japanese companies considered leaders in certain types of antibiotics. They have also developed some promising anticancer drugs. Hoping to tap into the strength of research there, Upjohn has invested $100 million in a 300,000-square-foot center where 160 researchers are led by Toshihiko Kobayashi, formerly head of R&D at giant Mitsubishi Pharmaceutical. Kobayashi travels to Upjohn headquarters in Kalamazoo, Michigan, every other month and helps set the company's global agenda for R&D. The Tsukuba lab, Upjohn's biggest overseas research facility, focuses on drugs for central nervous system disorders, cardiovascular diseases, and metabolic imbalances.

■ **MEDTRONIC.** As a rapidly aging society, Japan offers not only a fast-growing market for medical products but plenty of subjects for research studies. Medtronic, which had $836 million in sales worldwide last year, is a Minneapolis manufacturer of pacemakers and other medical products. The company decided several years ago that it needed both R&D and production capabilities in Japan. So this June it will open a five-acre technology center in the wide open spaces of the northern island of Hokkaido, where the climate and wooded landscape make Minnesotans feel at home.

The goal of the research center will be to pick up developments in new materials and precision instruments that could improve products worldwide. The company is considering funding research by professors at Hokkaido universities. Medtronic already uses many Japanese components in its pacemakers. By manufacturing in Japan, Medtronic, which now has 35% of the market there, will be producing the first all-Japanese pacemaker. The company expects the device's made-in-Japan cachet to help sell it to Japanese doctors.

PERHAPS the most surprising thing Americans discover in Japan is an abundance of perfectly public information that never goes beyond the country's shores. Some Japanese companies clearly prefer it that way. Jim Martin of Rockwell recalls negotiating with the Japanese to get them to pay royalties on an advanced semiconductor processing technology patented by his company. At one meeting, a major Japanese electronics outfit assured Rockwell that it had no intention of using the technology in its products and therefore had no reason to pay royalties.

The Rockwell negotiators calmly pulled out an article from a Japanese newspaper in which the Japanese firm boasted about using the new technology. The Japanese side went pale, retreated to a separate room for an hour, and came back prepared to settle. By a simple database search of newspaper articles in Japan, Rockwell discovered more than 15 cases of patent infringement on the same technology. Experts say many U.S.

SOURCES ON JAPAN'S HIGH TECH

NATIONAL TECHNICAL INFORMATION SERVICE
5285 Port Royal Road,
Springfield, Va. 22161
(703) 487-4650
This agency of the Department of Commerce provides on-line, microfiche, and printed directories, abstracts, and selected translations of Japanese technical journals, as well as U.S. government assessments of Japanese research and product development in such fields as superconductivity, semiconductors, and biotech.

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION
1800 G Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20550
(202) 357-9558
NSF administers a set of programs that support scientific cooperation with Japan, including seminars, language study, and research stays at Japanese university, government, and corporate laboratories. NSF maintains a Tokyo office and sends teams of U.S. scientists to visit and evaluate Japanese labs.

TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER INSTITUTE
516 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10036
(212) 719-5771
This technology and business consulting firm works closely with Japan's Ministry of International Trade and Industry. It helps arrange visits of study groups to Japan and gives advice on access to Japanese technological information resources. It also publishes reports on the progress of a number of Japanese industries.

JAPAN EXTERNAL TRADE ORGANIZATION
1221 Sixth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10020
(212) 997-0400
This nonprofit, government-supported institution provides specialized market information on Japan and publishes *New Technology Japan*, a monthly that reports on new technical developments. The agency also makes introductions to Japanese companies for Americans interested in technical exchanges.

NIKKEI TELECOM
Suite 1802
1221 Sixth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10020
(212) 512-3600
Provides on-line access to the *Nihon Keizai Shimbun*, Japan's *Wall Street Journal*, and its weekly English version, the *Japan Economic Journal*, as well as the English-language *Japan Times*, major Japanese dailies, and wire services. All offer extensive coverage of new products and corporate research strategies.

COMLINE NEWS SERVICE
10601 S. De Anza Blvd.
Cupertino, Calif. 95014
(408) 257-9956
Prepares on-line, hard-copy, fax, or electronic-mail English-language summaries of the *Nihon Keizai Shimbun* and other financial and industrial periodicals within hours of publication—as well as daily printed digests of Japanese press reports focusing on industries such as electronics, biotech, and factory automation.

SCAN C2C
Suite 800
500 E Street, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20024
(202) 863-3850
Provides on-line access through the Dialog information-retrieval network to abstracts and translations of 500 Japanese scientific and business journals, including company reports not always otherwise obtainable by the general public. Some 180,000 abstracts are available, going back to 1985.

HITACHI
50 Prospect Avenue
Tarrytown, N.Y. 10591
(914) 332-5800
Produces two quarterly publications: *Hitachi Technology*, which showcases research in Hitachi labs, and *Hitachi Gain*, which focuses only on semiconductors and integrated circuits. (Other companies, including NEC, Sumitomo Electric, and Toshiba, also publish journals in English describing their research activities.)

companies remain ignorant of scores of such abuses—not to mention original technical advances—simply because they don't or can't read the morning paper.

"For 100 yen [about 75 cents] I can pick up a Japanese newspaper and get more information on Japanese investment in the U.S. than the U.S. Treasury Department has," claims John Stern of the American Electronics Association. Any American company that wants to know MITI's latest strategy for targeting high-tech research can buy its two-inch-thick directory for $48. Another government compilation lists details of technology transfers between the U.S. and Japan, including such ostensibly proprietary information as license fees.

For most of America, though, this wealth of public information might as well be in secret code. Only recently have a few U.S. universities, led by MIT, begun training American scientists and engineers to tap into Japanese resources by teaching them how to read technical Japanese and understand the Japanese research culture. Thus prepared, they are opening up what used to seem a black box of Japanese technology and discovering that it teems with opportunities, often well marked.

MIT's Japan program trains undergraduate and graduate scientists and engineers in Japanese and places them in yearlong internships with Japanese companies. This year more than 50 students are participating. The more than 250 graduates since the program started in 1981 form an elite corps whose connections will bear full fruit perhaps 20 years from now, when they and the Japanese they work with today will be national leaders in business and research.

THESE YOUNG AMERICANS are invited by leading high-tech companies to work in the inner sanctum of some of the best, most product-oriented research labs in Japan. The Japanese figure that America's best and brightest have plenty to offer them: Because the young Americans speak and read Japanese, they are equipped to make it a two-way exchange. Already graduates of the program have brought back to U.S. companies both a broad knowledge of the latest in Japanese technology and an impressive list of Japanese contacts. Just one example: General Electric hired Gontran Kenwood, 30, who had worked at Hitachi. His bosses say his ability to communicate with that company and his working knowledge of its products have been highly useful.

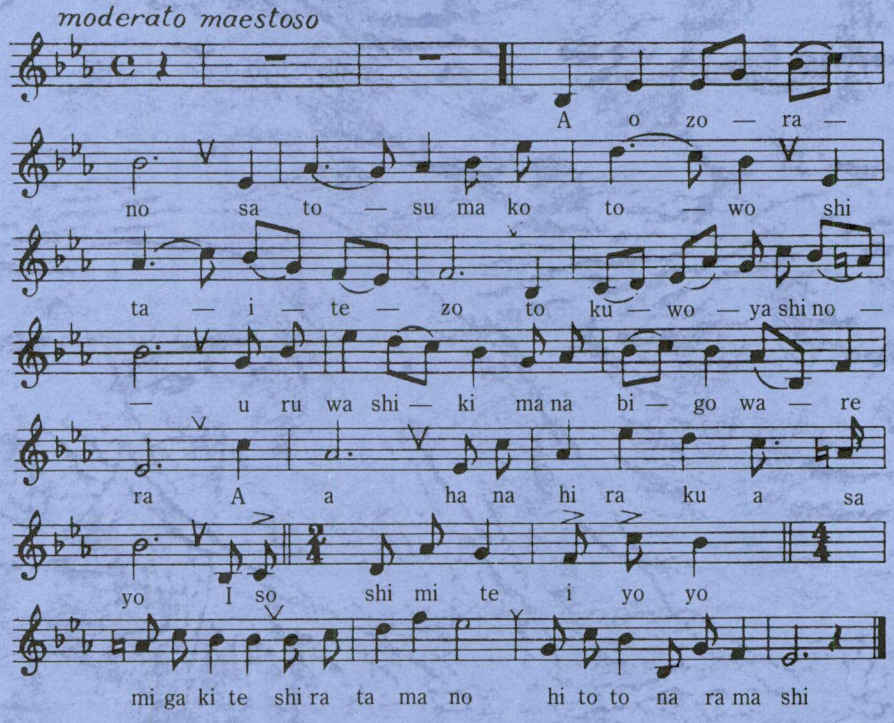
The MIT graduates, and their peers at a similar program sponsored by Stanford University, represent a new generation that should become increasingly influential. A conversation with this new breed of Japan hands at the recently opened Stanford student center in historic Kyoto bodes well for the future. Murali Prihalad, 19, and Saul Goldstein, 21, are becoming fluent in Japanese. They have experienced the Japanese research environment firsthand and debate U.S.-Japan technology policy issues with greater sophistication than many American businessmen twice their age.

Goldstein, a Cornell junior whose twin passions are engineering and Japanese, thinks American companies have been foolish to sell so much of their technology so cheaply, but he recognizes that they have done so largely out of ignorance. He argues that the U.S. government needs to develop the kind of professional expertise in dealing with Japan that Tokyo brings to all its contacts with Washington. He aims to become a government policymaker in science-related issues. "Our view of Japan is very different from the older generation's," Goldstein says. "We don't remember a time without Japanese cars and television." If the technology wars between the U.S. and Japan ever evolve beyond today's guarded detente into full-scale cooperation, part of the credit will go to Goldstein and his small but growing band of pioneers. F

VISITORS' HANDBOOK

MITA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
TOKYO METROPOLITAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SCHOOL SONG


moderato maestoso
A o zo — ra —
no sa to — su ma ko to — wo shi
ta — i — te — zo to ku — wo — ya shi no —
— u ru wa shi — ki ma na bi — go wa — re
ra A a ha na hi ra ku a sa
yo I so shi mi te i yo yo
mi ga ki te shi ra ta ma no hi to to na ra ma shi



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I SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN JAPAN

1 Senior High Schools (Kōtōgakkō)

Those who have completed the course of junior high school or its equivalent, or those who have been recognized, as provided for by the competent authorities, to have scholastic ability equivalent to, or more than, that of a junior high school graduate, may go on to senior high schools.

There are three types of senior high schools: the full-time, part-time and correspondence courses. The full-time course takes three years, while the part-time and correspondence courses require four years or more. The part-time course offers two types, for the convenience of working students. They are day courses and evening courses.

Senior high schools aim at providing upper secondary normal education and specialized education adapted to the stages of physical and mental development of students on the basis of the education given in junior high schools, and are trying to attain the following goals:

(1) To cultivate such human nature as may be necessary for them to become able members of the nation and the society, by further developing and expanding what they have attained in junior high school.

(2) To elevate the level of general education and train them to become proficient in their specialized technical skills by helping them determine their own future course of advancement in society according to their respective personal abilities based on self-consciousness of their own missions.

(3) To cultivate broad and deep understanding and sound critical ability relating to society, thus building up rich personalities.

A. Framework of Education in Japan

Chart-1 shows the structural organization of the present system of public education in Japan, and indicates the normal age of admission or promotion to each grade of the educational system.

In Chart-2 are shown the types of schools or courses, main types of establishing bodies, qualifications for admission (normal admission age), length of course, and requirements for graduation.

Kindergartens admit children aged 3, 4 or 5 and provide them with one- to three-year courses.

General and special education through the elementary and junior high school level is compulsory; thereafter, and in other types of schools, it is voluntary. In principle, success in an entrance examination is one of the prerequisites to enter any school beyond the compulsory school level.

There are three types of senior high school courses: full-time, part-time and correspondence. The full-time course lasts three years, while both the part-time and the correspondence courses four years or more. Part-time courses are of two types: day course and evening course. The majority of them are evening ones.

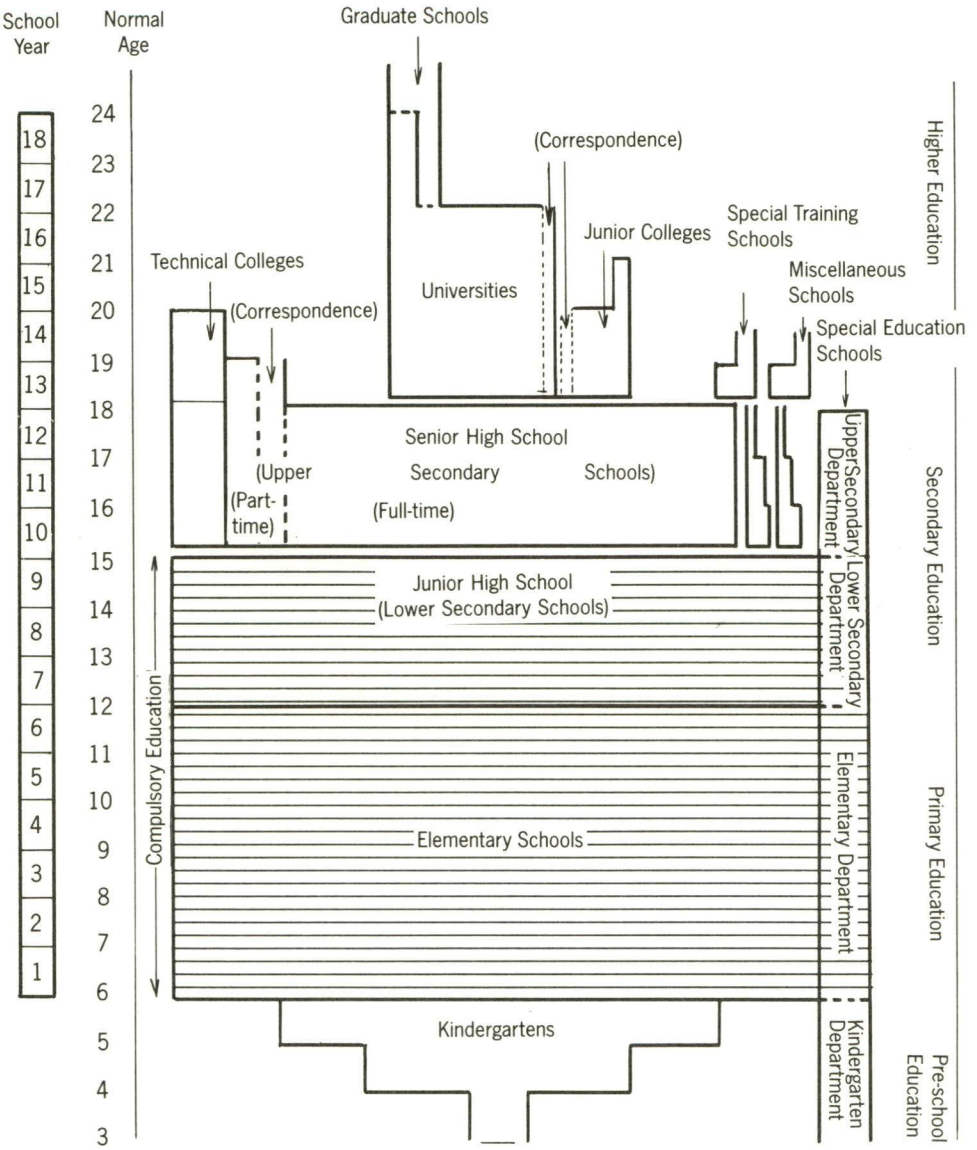
Both the part-time and the correspondence courses lead to a diploma equivalent to that available to students in the full-time course.

In terms of the contents of teaching provided, the senior high school course may also be classified into two categories: the general and the specialized vocational. General courses provide general education adapted to the needs of both those who wish to advance to higher education and those who are going to get employment but have chosen no specific vocational area. Over 70 percent of all the students in senior high schools are enrolled in general courses.

Specialized vocational courses are intended to provide vocational or other specialized education for those students who have chosen a particular vocational area as their future career. These courses are further classified into several categories: technical, commercial, agricultural, fishery, home economics, fine arts, science-mathematics, etc.

Special education schools aim at giving physically or mentally handicapped children education adapted to their individual needs. There are schools for the blind, schools for the deaf, and schools for the otherwise handicapped.

Chart-1 ORGANIZATION OF THE PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEM



Universities require for admission the completion of upper secondary schooling or its equivalent, and offer at least 4-year courses leading to a bachelor's degree. They are divided into faculties such as law, literature, economics, education, science, technology and agriculture, and then subdivided into departments.

A university may set up a graduate school offering advanced study in a variety of fields leading to master's and doctor's degrees. More than half of the universities have set up graduate schools. The minimum length of master's course is two years beyond the bachelor's and that of the doctor's course, five years.

Junior Colleges provide senior high school graduates with two- or three-year programs in different fields of study. Most courses offered in junior colleges are in the fields of humanities, social sciences, teacher training and home economics. The majority of the students in these colleges are women. The credits acquired at junior colleges may be counted as part of the credits leading to a bachelor's degree.

Technical Colleges, unlike universities or junior colleges, require for admission the completion of lower secondary schooling, and offer 5-year consistent programs aimed at training technicians. Technical colleges offer courses in mechanical engineering, electric engineering, chemical engineering, industrial chemistry, etc. Those students who have completed a technical college course may apply for admission to the upper division of a university.

There are also a number of "special training schools" and "miscellaneous schools" other than the regular schools mentioned above. Special training schools are designed to offer systematic programs of education aimed at developing each student's ability required for their working life or daily life, or at raising their level of general education. Among such schools, the school offering "upper secondary course" is called "upper secondary special training school (koto-senshu-gakko)" and that offering "advanced or college course" called "special training college (senmon gakko)." The former requires for admission the completion of lower secondary schooling and the latter the completion of upper secondary schooling. In addition, there are many general courses in the schools opened to anyone regardless of one's educational qualifications.

The length of each course must be one year or more, with yearly teaching hours of 800 hours or more in principle. Each special training school must consistently enroll 40 or more students.

Miscellaneous schools provide mainly young people with vocational and practical courses in dressmaking, cooking, bookkeeping, typing, automobile driving and repairing, computer techniques, etc. Most courses in miscellaneous schools require for admission the completion of lower secondary schooling, while some courses require the completion of an upper secondary school course.

The length of course varies from three months, to one year or more.



Chart-2 Characteristics of Each Type of School

Type of School or Course		Main Type of Establishing Body	Qualifications for Admission	Length of Course (in years)	Requirement for Graduation
Kindergarten	One-year course	Private Municipal	Age of five	1	—
	Two-year course		Age of four	2	
	Three-year course		Age of three	3	
Elementary School		Municipal	Age of 6	6	Completion of 6-year course
Junior High School (Lower Secondary School)		Municipal	Completion of elementary school course Age of 12	3	Completion of 3-year course
Senior High School (Upper Secondary School)	Full-time course	Prefectural Private Municipal	Graduation from lower secondary school Age of 15 or more	3	Acquisition of 80 credits
	Part-time course			4 or more	
	Correspondence course			4 or more	
Special Education School	Kindergarten, elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary departments	Prefectural Municipal	Same as in kindergarten, elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools, respectively		
Technical College		National Private	Graduation from lower secondary school Age of 15 or more	5	Acquisition of 167 credits or more (incl. 82 credits or more for specialized subjects)
Junior College	Two-year course	Private Prefectural National	Graduation from upper secondary school Age of 18 or more	2	Acquisition of 62 credits or more
	Three-year course			3	Acquisition of 93 credits or more
University	Bachelor's course	Private National	Graduation from upper secondary school Age of 18 or more	4 or more	Acquisition of 124 credits or more
	Master's course	Private National	Bachelor's degree	2 or more	Acquisition of 30 credits or more Passing the examination of master's thesis and test
	Doctor's course			5 or more	Acquisition of 30 credits or more Passing the examination of doctoral dissertation
Special Training School	Upper secondary course	Private	Completion of lower secondary schooling	1 or more	—
	Advanced or college course		Completion of upper secondary schooling		
	General course		—		
Miscellaneous School		Private	Completion of lower secondary schooling Completion of upper secondary schooling	3 to 12 months or 1 year or more	

B. Advancement to Senior High School

The advancing rate to senior high schools is growing every year. The advancing rate of 50% in 1954 jumped to more than 90% in 1975. Thus the large majority of junior high school graduates advances to senior high school.

With regard to the number of those who have advanced to senior high schools, the full-time course has occupied the largest portion.

Chart-3 Number of 10th Graders in March

Classification / Year	Total	National	Public	Private	Full-time	Part-time	Male	Female
1978	1,491,793	11,622	1,429,711	50,460	1,458,851	32,942	751,527	740,266
1979	1,525,648	11,541	1,463,259	50,848	1,494,415	31,233	768,785	756,863
1980	1,612,367	11,643	1,549,388	51,336	1,576,619	35,748	810,118	802,249
1981	1,570,111	11,550	1,508,761	49,800	1,537,000	33,111	788,798	781,313
1982	1,456,546	11,527	1,397,715	47,304	1,428,202	28,344	733,403	723,143
1983	1,726,420	11,579	1,664,496	50,345	1,692,531	33,889	867,672	858,748
1984	1,759,022	11,541	1,695,853	51,628	1,719,631	34,587	886,651	872,371

Note: Only those who were enrolled in the regular course.

C. Advancement Course of Senior High School Graduates

Changes in the Number of Senior High School Graduates

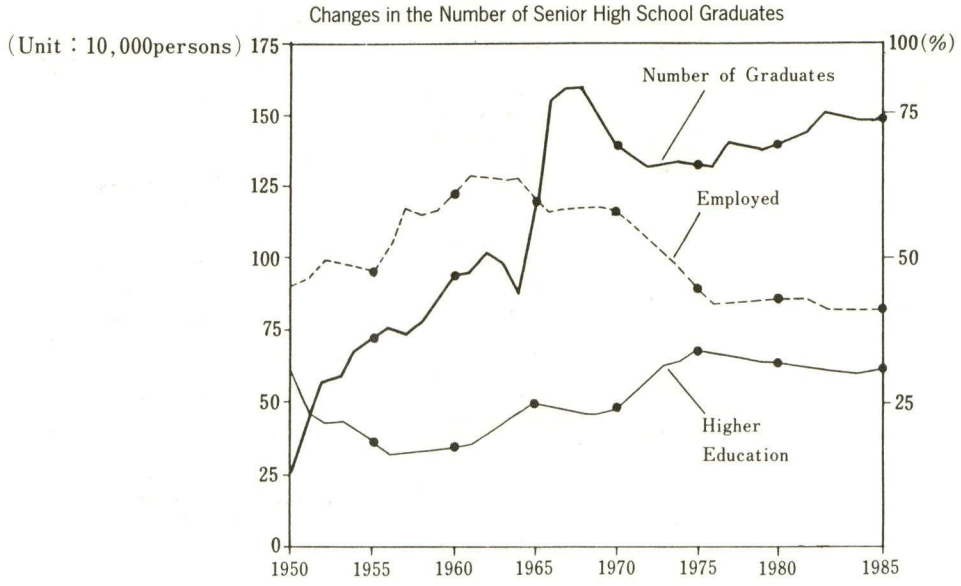


Chart-4

Classification / Year	Total	Higher Education	Employed	Not Employed	Dead, Unknown	Higher Education %	Employed %
1978	1,392,320	456,436	576,603	107,401	3,860	32.8 m31.9 f33.7	42.8 m39.9 f45.8
1979	1,383,539	442,022	573,104	96,110	3,048	31.9 m30.5 f33.4	42.7 m39.9 f45.6
1980	1,399,292	445,875	581,430	86,243	3,117	31.9 m30.3 f33.5	42.9 m40.2 f45.6
1981	1,424,273	447,416	594,911	77,185	2,556	31.4 m29.7 f33.1	43.1 m40.4 f45.7
1982	1,449,109	447,761	602,537	77,134	2,861	30.9 m28.9 f32.8	42.9 m40.1 f45.6
1983	1,519,424	456,995	611,467	79,748	3,088	30.1 m27.7 f32.4	41.5 m38.6 f44.3
1984	1,482,312	438,814	590,125	77,574	2,694	29.6 m26.6 f32.6	41.0 m38.2 f43.7

Note: Data taken in March.

Chart-5 Number of Students Advancing to Universities and Junior Colleges

Classification / Year	Total	Male	Female	Universities			Junior Colleges		
				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1978	456,436	221,404	235,032	286,192	207,968	78,224	165,960	11,674	154,286
1979	442,022	210,571	231,451	274,841	198,236	76,605	163,130	10,595	152,535
1980	445,875	211,462	234,413	276,415	199,529	76,886	165,500	10,311	155,189
1981	447,416	211,032	236,384	276,546	199,330	77,216	166,927	10,192	156,735
1982	447,761	209,147	238,614	275,952	197,295	78,657	167,472	10,265	157,207
1983	456,995	208,856	248,139	280,298	196,859	83,439	172,410	10,490	161,920
1984	439,250	196,013	243,237	266,810	183,920	82,890	168,107	10,436	157,671

Note: Universities—Undergraduate Courses
Junior Colleges—Regular Courses

Chart-6 Number of Candidates Applied for Admission to Universities and Junior Colleges (1984)

Classification	Total	Universities	Junior Colleges
Total	876,246	674,481	201,765
Graduated in 1984	(661,380)	(470,463)	(190,917)
Male	544,919	529,923	14,996
Graduated in 1984	(365,952)	(353,268)	(12,684)
Female	331,327	144,558	186,769
Graduate in 1984	(295,428)	(117,195)	(178,233)

Chart-7 Number of the Employed Senior High School Graduates by Their Occupations (Year of Graduation 1984)

Classifications	Total	Specialized Technical Jobs	Clerical Jobs	Sales	Agriculture Forestry	Fishery	Mining	Transportation, Communication
Total	607,234	18,574	173,238	110,150	4,891	1,367	302	11,453
(%)	(100)	(3.1)	(28.5)	(18.1)	(0.8)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(1.9)
Male	280,712	8,725	23,462	48,619	4,372	1,304	302	8,985
(%)	(100)	(3.1)	(8.4)	(17.3)	(1.6)	(0.5)	(0.1)	(3.2)
Female	326,525	9,849	149,776	61,531	519	63	—	2,468
(%)	(100)	(3.0)	(45.9)	(18.8)	(0.2)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.8)
Full-time Course	585,025	16,856	172,073	107,028	4,575	1,325	266	10,644
Part-time Course	22,212	1,718	1,165	3,122	316	42	36	809

2 Curriculum in Senior High School Education

Senior high schools provide general courses and specialized vocational courses. The latter courses include commercial, technical, agricultural, fishery, domestic arts, fine arts, science-mathematics and others.

Senior high schools fall into three categories: those providing only the general secondary course; those of a comprehensive type, with both the general course and specialized vocational courses; and specialized vocational schools offering training in one or more areas. Curricula of the senior high schools are based on the Course of Study issued by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. The "Course of Study for Senior High Schools" was revised in August, 1978, which was enforced in April, 1982.

This revised Course of Study was drawn up on the basis of the following four guidelines:

(1) To respect the independent initiative of individual schools so that they maintain and develop their distinctive education.

(2) To ensure that the contents of teaching may be more adapted to differing abilities and aptitudes of individual students.

(3) To ensure that students may lead a relaxed and full school life.

(4) To ensure that students may get better understanding and greater enjoyment of working life through some experience-oriented learning on it and to lay emphases both on moral and physical education aiming at full development of students.

Chart-20 (page22) shows the subject areas, subjects and the standard number of credits to be provided in senior high schools, according to the revised Course of Study. The curricula of individual school must be organized so as to comply with these standards.

According to the Course of Study, local school curricula both for students in the general course and in the specialized vocational course must provide instruction in the following subjects. (A minimum of 80 credits is required for graduation from senior high schools.) Some subjects are required and some are elective.

Subject Requirements

The following subjects are required to be studied by all students regardless of course, by female students only or by those in specialized vocational courses.

Subject Area	Subject
All Students	
Japanese Language	"Japanese Language I"
Social Studies	"Contemporary Society"
Mathematics	"Mathematics I"
Science	"Science I"
Health & Physical Education	"Health" and "Physical Education"
Art	One of the following subjects: "Music I", "Fine Arts I", "Handicraft I" or "Calligraphy I"
Female Only	
Homemaking	"General Homemaking"
Students in Specialized Vocational Courses Only	
Specialized Subject	Not less than 30 credits

In addition to the foregoing subject requirements, schools must provide for each grade not less than one school hour (50 minutes) per week of home-room activities and club activities as the special curricular activities. Student activities and school events also must be given an appropriate allocation of time.

3 School Textbooks

School textbooks play an important role as major teaching materials in our nation's elementary, junior and senior high schools and other schools of equivalent grades. At present, school textbooks are written, prepared and edited by private textbook publishers, and are authorized by the Education Minister before they are published on the basis of recommendations from the Textbook Authorization Research Council, which is composed of school teachers and other persons of substantial academic experience.

Procedural System Leading to Adoption of School Textbooks

(1) Writing and Editing
No control

(2) Authorization and Approval
Based on reports or advice submitted by the Textbook Authorization Research Council, the Education Minister authorizes privately written and edited textbooks.

(3) Publication
With respect to school textbooks for compulsory education schools, the Education Minister designates publishers, based on application from private publishing firms. No particular control is in force over publishers of textbooks for senior high schools.

(4) Adoption
In case of compulsory education for primary and junior high schools, the local board of education decides the adoption of textbooks. At public senior high schools, principals and teachers decide the adoption of textbooks.
In the case of national and private schools, the principals of these schools decide the adoption of textbooks.

(5) Others
In compulsory education schools, textbooks are provided to students free of charge.

4 School Calendar

Unlike many European and American countries, the school year in Japan begins on April 1 and ends on March 31 of the following year. This school year corresponds with the fiscal year.

In both the elementary and junior high schools a school year is divided into three terms: April through July, September through December, and January through March. Most senior high schools adopt a three-term school year, while most universities have a two-semester year.

Vacations are granted in summer, winter (just before and after the new year) and spring (after the annual examinations). The beginning and ending dates of the summer vacation vary among different localities and also among different school levels. For most elementary and junior high schools, it begins toward the end of July and finishes at the end of August. Some rural schools grant farming-season vacations in spring and autumn, and in such cases the summer vacation is shortened. The public educational institutions close on Sundays and on the following legal holidays:

New Year's Day	January 1st
Coming-of-Age Day	January 15th
National Foundation Day	February 11th
Vernal Equinox Day	about March 21st
Emperor's Birthday	April 29th
Constitution Day	May 3rd
Children's Day	May 5th
Respect-for-the Aged Day	September 15th
Autumnal Equinox Day	about September 23rd
Health-Sports Day	October 10th
Culture Day	November 3rd
Labor Thanksgiving Day	November 23rd

5 Admission, Advancement and Graduation

Admission, advancement and graduation at each stage of school education are as follows:

Elementary Education

Admission: At the full age of six.

Advancement: The school principal approves advancement to higher grades after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the child.

Graduation:
- Schooling period: six years.
- The school principal approves graduation after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the child.

Junior High School Education

Admission: Those who have completed the elementary school course.

Advancement: The school principal approves advancement to higher grades after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the student.

Graduation:
- Schooling period: three years
- The school principal approves graduation after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the student.

Senior High School Education

Admission:
- Those who have completed the full junior high school course, or its equivalent.
- Entrants are selected on the basis of credentials and other necessary documents submitted from the junior high school from which he graduated, his records of the achievement test given by the board of education, etc.

Advancement: The school principal approves advancement to higher grades after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the student.

Graduation:
- Schooling period: Full-time course, three years. Part-time and correspondence courses, four years or more.
- Students are required to acquire more than 80 credits.
- The school principal approves graduation after teacher's evaluations of the general achievements of the student.

6 Number of Senior High Schools Classified by Establishing Body

Chart-8

Classification / Year	Total	National	Public	Private	Day-time Course	Part-time Course	Dual Course	Principal School	Branch School
1960	4,598	23	3,554	1,021					
1965	4,849	24	3,633	1,192					
1970	4,798	24	3,550	1,224					
1975	4,946	17	3,701	1,228					
1977	5,028	17	3,786	1,225	3,599	355	1,074	4,695	333
1978	5,069	17	3,845	1,207	3,689	327		5,830	324
1979	6,165	17	4,823	1,325	4,824	1,341		5,870	295
1980	5,208	17	3,951	1,240	3,930	284	994	4,946	262
1981	5,219	17	3,961	1,241	3,990	1,229		4,970	249
1982	5,213	17	3,954	1,242	4,026	253	934	4,974	239
1983	5,369	17	4,081	1,271	4,214	243	912	5,143	226
1984	5,427	17	4,128	1,282	4,313	234	880	5,213	214

Note: Dual Course" means senior high schools which have both the day-time and part-time courses.

II SCHOOL EDUCATION IN TOKYO

1 Senior High Schools

A. General

There were 467 senior high schools (national, metropolitan and private) in Tokyo Metropolis as of May 1988. Of the total, 215 were metropolitan senior high schools under the jurisdiction of the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education, and they had a total enrollment of 249,839 students, or 46.1% of the total high school enrollment in Tokyo. (Chart-10)

There are 7 national senior high schools and 245 private senior high schools in Tokyo.

Of the 215 metropolitan senior high schools, 104 schools have both full-time and part-time courses. There are 5 independent part-time senior high schools operated by Tokyo Metropolitan Government.

Chart-9 Number of Senior High School Students in Tokyo Metropolis (1988)

Classification	Total	Male	Female	Returnee Students
Tokyo Metropolis	542,096	263,502	278,594	643
(Full-time Course)	(515,736)	(244,564)	(271,172)	
Metropolitan High School Students	249,839	134,296	115,543	
(Full-time Course)	(225,213)	(116,890)	(108,323)	

Note: Returnee students are Japanese students who came back from other countries where they had studied for the business reasons of their parent(s).

Chart-10 Number of Senior High Schools in Tokyo Metropolis

Classification / Year	Total	National	Public	Private
1983	461	7	209	245
1984	464	7	211	246
1985	465	7	213	245
1986	466	7	214	245
1987	466	7	214	245
1988	467	7	215	245

Number of Tokyo Metropolitan Public Senior High School Classes & Students

Classification / Year	Metropolitan Public Senior High School				
	Classes		Students		
	Full-time	Part-time	Total	Full-time	Part-time
1983	4,657	920	222,960	204,805	18,155
1984	4,740	923	229,422	209,948	19,474
1985	4,850	935	240,385	219,843	20,542
1986	4,857	960	243,945	221,566	22,379
1987	4,874	990	246,450	222,713	23,737
1988	4,929	1,012	249,839	225,213	24,626

B. A Plan for Expanding the Full-time Senior High School Facilities

Nowadays almost all children who have finished compulsory education want to proceed to senior high schools. Every year, Tokyo Metropolitan Government has been establishing new schools. (Chart-10)

Chart-11 Number of Tokyo Metropolitan Senior High Schools and Students (1988)

Classification / Courses	Schools			Students	
	Full-time	Part-time	Dual School	Full-time	Part-time
General	88 (3)	1 (1)	55 (20)	177,837	16,743
Commercial	3	1	12	21,245	2,969
Technical	11	2	16	21,275	4,477
Agricultural	—	—	1	2,933	437
Fisheries	—	—	—	94	—
Homemaking	—	—	—	1,434	—
Other	1	—	—	395	—
Total	106	5	104	225,213	24,626
		109			
	215			249,839	

Note: Bracketed are the number of schools which have specialized vocational courses provided along with the general course.
Fisheries and homemaking courses are provided in several schools along with other courses.

C. Selection of Entrants to Senior High Schools

As a result of more than three years' research and deliberation, a new system was adopted to improve the "school grouping system" in such a way as to take into account the students' wish to go to the school of their choice. Under the new system which started in 1982, the candidates are to be selected collectively by the groups of schools established by Tokyo Board of Education. The candidates are to be given examinations on five subjects: Japanese Language, Mathematics, English, Science, and Social Studies.

(1) School Districts and Groups

Tokyo Metropolis is divided into fourteen school districts, the 23-ku area, into six school districts. Each school district has about ten senior high schools. The Tama area which had formerly been one district was newly divided into four independent school districts, due to the population growth and the large number of newly established senior high schools. The islands are divided into four school districts.

As for the full-time, general-course senior high schools in these districts, they are divided into two "groups" within each district.

(2) Application

Those who wish to enter one of the full-time, general-course senior high schools must choose one senior high school among either of the two groups within his local school district.

When the candidate fails he has a choice to apply for another school.

(3) Examination

The selection of entrants to senior high schools is made on the basis of the results of the examinations given in February by the Tokyo Board of Education. Together with those testing results, the applicants' school records are also taken into consideration to make the decision.

As for the returnee students who wish to be enrolled in public senior high schools, they can apply either to any school within the district in which they live after returning home or to three schools which give separate examinations at a different date in February. In the latter case, the students' application can be accepted by these schools regardless of where they live so far as they live in Tokyo. Such candidates are given examinations in English, Japanese, and mathematics in addition to an interview with the teachers of the respective school.

In so far as the children of the war-displaced children who came back from China are concerned, they can apply to either of the six public senior high schools that provide them with special Japanese language instruction prepared exclusively for them.

D. Part-time and Correspondence Senior High School Education

Part-time and correspondence senior high schools have been established, on the principle of equal educational opportunity for everbody, to provide senior high school education for those who wish it but who are unable to go to full-time senior high schools for financial or other reasons. At present there are 106 metropolitan part-time senior high schools and one correspondence school.

However, there has been a marked decrease in the number of students enrolled in these schools in recent years.

There were about 55,000 students attending metropolitan part-time senior high schools at the peak in 1965, and the number had diminished to about 25,100 in 1987.

The first reason for such a decrease is a nationwide tendency for the number of full-time senior high school students to increase year after year. The second reason is a sharp decrease in the number of graduates from junior high schools in the prefectures outside Tokyo who come up to Tokyo where they get jobs and go to part-time senior high schools.

2 Teachers

A. Selection

Examinations are conducted by three stages every year (in July, October and February) for the selection of qualified teachers from applicants for teaching position in kindergartens, elementary schools, junior high schools and senior high schools.

In fiscal 1987, a total of 15,237 applicants took the examinations in order to become teachers in kindergartens, elementary schools, junior high schools or senior high schools. Of these applicants, 2,065 passed the examinations, but only 1,734 successful candidates were adopted.

B. Payment and Appointment of Teachers

The salaries of most of the teachers of municipal (ward, city, town and village) elementary schools, junior high schools, and Yogo Gakko schools are paid by the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education according to the law, and it also has the powers to appoint teachers.

C. Teacher's Certificate

The teacher's certificate is given only to those who have passed the strict qualifying examination conducted in accordance with the "Teaching Certification Law". No one can be a teacher unless he or she has a teacher's certificate for a particular subject.

In Japan the prefectural boards of education, including Tokyo, Hokkaido, Osaka and Kyoto, have the power to grant teachers' certificates. The Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education granted about 61,000 teachers' certificates in 1987.

D. Raising of Teachers' Salaries

The "Special Measurements Law Concerning the Securing of Capable Educational Personnel in Various Compulsory Education Schools for Maintenance and Enhancement of School Education Standards" was approved by the National Diet on February 22, 1974, and went into force on the 25th day of the same month.

Taking into consideration the importance of school education, which is to provide the foundations for the education and training of the children who are going to be responsible for the Japan of tomorrow, the above law was enacted for the purpose of securing highly capable talents for teaching in compulsory schools by offering salaries better than those for ordinary local government employees, thereby maintaining and further raising the school education standards in this country.

In pursuance of this law, the Tokyo Metropolitan ordinance concerning school teachers' salaries was partially revised on June 17, 1974, in compliance with the special recommendation made by the Civil Service Commission of the Tokyo Metropolitan Government, and the increase in payment of school teachers was implemented retroactive to January 1 of the same year. As a result, the salaries of teachers in public elementary schools and junior high schools were raised by an average 7%.

The second salary increase was made retroactive to April 1, 1975, according to the recommendation made by the Civil Service Commission on June 23, 1975, and the subsequent partial revision of the ordinance concerning school teachers' salaries on March 19, 1976. The above ordinance revision resulted in a rise of about 3% in the average teacher's salary, and in the creation of special allowances (equivalent to 4% of salary) for the teachers of compulsory schools.

E. Selection of Principals and Vice Principals

The principals and vice principals of the public schools in Tokyo are selected from among teachers eligible for those posts and who have passed the qualifying examination conducted by the Metropolitan Board of Education every August.

Qualifications for the positions of principals and vice principals are shown in Chart-12.

Chart-12 Qualification for Application to the Principal and Vice-Principal Selection Examinations

Classification	Teaching experience			Age
	Total	Teaching in Tokyo	Experience as Vice Principal	
Principal	Over 15 years	10 years	3 years	Below 58
Vice Principal	Over 12 years	7 years	—	38 to 55

Chart-13 Number of Schools in Tokyo Metropolis (as of May 1, 1987)

	Total	National	Prefectural or Municipal	Private
Kindergartens	1,342	2	308	1,032
Elementary Schools	1,480	6	1,422	52
Junior High Schools	857	8	661	188
Senior High Schools	466	7	214	245
Technical Colleges	4	1	2	1
Schools for the Visually Handicapped	5	1	4	—
Schools for the Deaf	11	—	10	1
Schools for the Physically Handicapped	48	3	43	2
Total	4,213	28	2,664	1,521

Chart-14 Number of Children and Pupils in Tokyo Metropolis (as of May 1, 1987)

	Total	National	Prefectural or Municipal	Private
Kindergartens	187,413	383	25,199	161,831
Elementary Schools	793,478	4,460	763,583	25 435
Junior High Schools	517,592	3,663	448,760	65 169
Senior High Schools	533,296	3,993	246,450	282,853
Technical Colleges	4,048	776	1,976	1,296
Schools for the Visually Handicapped	570	234	336	—
Schools for the Deaf	892	—	814	78
Schools for the Physically Handicapped	7,028	367	6,539	122
Total	2,044,317	13,876	1,493,657	536,784

Chart-15 Number of Schools, Students and Teachers of Senior High Schools in Tokyo

Classification / Year	Schools					Students			Teachers		
	Total	Full-time	Part-time	Dual	Branch School	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1949	393	201	22	148	22	174,116	115,784	58,332	7,192	5,790	1,402
50	396	191	22	156	27	194,506	121,034	73,472	7,444	5,986	1,458
51	395	183	25	165	22	227,758	139,557	88,201	8,485	6,867	1,618
52	392	181	22	167	22	248,712	149,374	99,338	9,485	7,692	1,793
53	400	185	22	169	24	285,133	172,469	112,664	9,724	7,933	1,791
54	401	187	21	169	24	275,519	161,085	114,434	10,419	8,429	1,990
55	400	189	20	166	25	285,619	164,921	120,698	10,719	8,609	2,110
56	401	185	20	171	25	306,113	—	—	10,962	8,736	2,226
57	403	192	22	165	24	344,925	193,446	151,479	12,024	9,559	2,465
58	403	196	22	165	20	374,989	208,405	166,584	13,051	10,360	2,691
59	404	196	29	165	14	406,306	223,491	182,815	13,942	11,051	2,891
60	402	200	28	161	13	406,790	221,997	184,793	14,119	11,239	2,880
61	401	203	27	159	12	392,137	213,898	178,239	14,098	11,219	2,879
62	404	210	25	155	14	402,050	218,811	183,239	14,347	11,413	2,934
63	417	226	20	159	12	476,641	255,937	220,704	15,377	12,084	3,293
64	421	229	21	159	12	550,144	291,688	258,456	17,124	13,254	3,870
65	421	220	19	171	11	584,103	307,497	276,606	18,539	14,286	4,253
66	420	209	18	183	10	544,525	286,714	257,811	19,015	14,606	4,409
67	421	208	17	186	10	502,890	263,322	239,568	18,686	14,455	4,231
68	420	213	15	182	10	459,784	241,070	218,717	18,409	14,272	4,137
69	421	216	14	181	10	432,527	224,884	207,643	18,281	14,220	4,061
70	417	220	11	178	8	420,748	218,372	202,376	18,056	14,096	3,960
71	419	216	11	187	5	416,069	215,397	200,672	18,111	14,177	3,934
72	424	232	11	177	4	414,443	213,791	200,652	18,421	14,441	3,980
73	425	232	11	180	2	415,822	213,172	202,650	18,566	14,612	3,954
74	428	234	11	181	2	424,096	216,433	207,663	18,801	14,837	3,964
75	431	239	11	179	2	433,889	219,392	214,497	19,236	15,121	4,115
76	435	246	10	177	2	437,894	219,836	218,058	19,762	15,509	4,253
77	442	260	10	170	2	440,956	220,419	220,537	20,186	15,784	4,402
78	450	272	10	166	2	449,258	224,363	224,895	20,477	15,981	4,496
79	452	276	9	165	2	461,659	230,139	231,520	20,786	16,179	4,607
80	456	284	8	162	2	477,208	236,356	240,852	21,283	16,518	4,765
81	457	286	7	162	2	487,200	239,289	247,911	21,694	16,807	4,887
82	457	287	7	161	2	483,107	237,143	245,964	21,770	16,837	4,933
83	461	291	7	161	2	494,795	242,517	252,278	21,996	16,979	5,017
84	464	303	7	152	2	506,974	248,701	258,273	22,283	17,136	5,147
85	465	307	7	148	3	526,908	257,096	269,812	22,617	17,329	5,288
86	466	309	7	146	4	529,703	258,243	271,460	22,745	17,382	5,363
87	466	309	7	146	4	533,296	259,384	273,912	22,969	17,518	5,451
88	467	311	7	145	4	542,096	263,502	278,594	23,325	17,679	5,646

III MITA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1 History

Tokyo Public Mita Senior High School was founded as the 6th Public Girls' High School at the present site in 1923 to meet the needs of the times when the role of girls' education in national development was strongly recognized.

Josaku Maruyama, who was principal from the founding until 1941, devoted himself to girls' education and his spirit has been inherited to this day.

Matsuzo Ii, Soshichi Tsuneda, Momotaro Suzuki and Jiro Momota successively filled the principal's post and rendered great services to education and the school was said to be one of the distinguished girls' high schools in Tokyo.

In 1950, the school was renamed Tokyo Public Mita Senior High School and became coeducational. Yoshitane Konno, Saburo Nishimura, Kametoshi Jitsukata, Gentei Yoshida, Shoji Hasebe, Shinichi Sugimura and Akira Furumatsu held office in turn. From 1985 Kanji Fujikawa served for four years, and he was succeeded in April, 1989 by Yoshio Yoda, the present principal.

The school building began to be remodeled just after the school celebrated its 50th anniversary in 1973, and was completed in 1977.

In 1977, the school opened a class for students returning from abroad at the request of the Metropolitan Board of Education.

2 Governing Body

Mita Senior High School is one of the 210 metropolitan senior high schools under the jurisdiction of the Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education.

3 Location

The school is located in Minato-ku adjacent to the area where embassies and trading companies stand side by side and Tokyo Tower is within ten minutes' walk from the school.

Various transport systems are available to reach the school. Tamachi Station, which can be reached by Yamanote Line (a loop line) or Keihin-Tohoku Line, is within walking distance and Subways Toei Mita Line and Asakusa Line as well as some bus routes are available.

4 Educational Objectives

1. We endeavor to be men and women in good health.
2. We endeavor to be men and women of intellect.
3. We endeavor to be men and women of noble sentiment.
4. We endeavor to be men and women of spirit.
5. We endeavor to be men and women of sincerity.

5 Enrollment and Staff

A. Day Course

Chart-16 Students

(April 1, 1988)

Grades \ Classes / Sex		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	Those Studying Abroad	Total
10th	Male	20	26	19	26	20	27	20	25	183	0	183
	Female	29	22	30	23	29	21	29	22	205	0	205
	Total	49	48	49	49	49	48	49	47	388	0	388
11th	Male	22	22	21	21	22	22	22	22	174	0	174
	Female	27	26	26	28	26	26	28	26	213	0	213
	Total	49	48	47	49	48	48	50	48	387	0	387
12th	Male	0	20	21	21	20	31	17	47	177	3	180
	Female	52	32	31	30	32	8	24	0	209	7	216
	Total	52	52	52	51	52	39	41	47	386	10	396
Total		Male: 537 Female: 634								1,171		

As for the juniors (11th graders), classes 1 to 5 are for the students who have chosen literary course, and classes 6, 7, 8 are for those who chose science course.



Chart-17 Teachers

Subjects		Full-time			Part-time		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Principal		1	1				
Vice-principal		1	1				
Japanese Language		8	5	3	1		1
Social Studies		6	6		3	2	1
Mathematics		8	6	2	1		1
Science	Earth Science	7	1		1	1	
	Biology		2				
	Chemistry		2				
	Physics		1	1			
Physical Education		6	5	1	1	1	
Art	Music	1	1		3	1	1
	Art						
	Calligraphy						1
Foreign Language	English	9	5	4	7	2	2
	German						
	French						2
	Spanish						1
Home Economics		2		2			
Nurse		1		1			
Assistant (Science)		0		0			
Total		50	36	14	17	7	9
		67					

Librarian: 1
Office Clerks: 7
Janitors: 2

B. Evening Course (Part-Time Course)

Chart-18 Students

(May 1, 1987)

Grades / Sex / Classes	10th		11th		12th		13th		Total
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	
Male	28	28	11	12	12	13	14	11	129
Female	6	7	7	6	3	3	6	9	47
(Total)	34	35	18	18	15	16	20	20	176
Total	69		36		31		40		176

Chart-19 Teachers

Subjects	Full-time			Part-time		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Principal	1	1				
Vice-principal	1	1 (Science-teacher)				
Japanese Language	2	1	1 (also Art)	1	1	
Social Studies	2	2		1	1	
Mathematics	2	2		1	1	
Science	3	3 (one is the vice-principal)				
Physical Education	2	1	1			
Art				2	2	
Foreign Language	2	2		1		1
Commerse				1	1	
Home Economics				1		1
Nurse	1		1			
Total	15	12	3	8	6	2
	23					

Librarian: 1
Office Clerks: 2
Other Employees: 2

6 Features of Mita Senior High School

A. Features of Mita Senior High School

1. The school tries to educate the students so that they will be men and women who will get along well in the international community.
2. The school pays respect to each student, providing him or her with good educational counseling and full individual instruction.
3. The school encourages club activities and the promotion of individuality.
4. The school stresses the importance of fostering a fundamental habit in life and discipline in group action.
5. The school provides the returnee students with special lessons given by native speakers of English, French, and Spanish.
6. The school encourages the activities of Future Homemakers of Japan.

B. International Mutual Understanding

The following are the activities done in connection with education for promoting international mutual understanding.

(1) Sending about 10 students abroad every year under AFS, YFU, EIL programs to the United States of America, Canada, Australia and other countries.
(2) Receiving foreign students.
(high school, college students)
(3) Having weekend parties with AFS exchange students.
(4) Social gatherings with guests from all over the world.
(5) Lecture meetings by distinguished guests, both Japanese and foreign.
(6) Symposium

(7) Good will visit to New York City.
(8) UNESCO
Unesco Cooporating School
Unesco Club
Participation in the National Meeting
(9) Foreign Language Teaching
English Conversation
German
French
Spanish

C. Class for Returnee Students

A special class has been opened since 1977 for students returning from overseas. The annual admission capacity is 20. The educational program, including curricular and extracurricular activities, is the same as that for the ordinary students, but special attention is paid to the development of their abilities in such subjects as Japanese and mathematics. Special classes are established for the returnee students on those subjects to help them catch up with others.
(About the selection of entrants, see page 12)

Chart-20 Countries Which Returnee Students Came Back from

(May 1, 1988)

Grade \ Nations		U.S.A.	Britain	West Germany	Australia	Switzerland	Belgium	France	Iraq	Italy	Kenya	Kuwait	Mexico	Panama
10th	Male					2			1					
	Female		2	1		1	1	1	1	1	1			
11th	M	1					1				1	1	1	
	F	1		1			1						1	
12th	M	2			1									1
	F	3	2				1	1				1		
Total		7	4	2	1	3	4	2	2	1	2	2	2	1

Grade \ Nations		Guatemala	Venezuela	Paraguay	India	Indonesia	Singapore	Malaysia	Thailand	Taiwan	Philippines	Hong Kong	South Korea	Total
10th	M	1							1					5
	F					1	1	1	1					13
11th	M								1					6
	F		1					1				2		8
12th	M			1						1				6
	F						3		1		1	1	1	15
Total		1	1	1		1	4	2	4	1	1	3	1	53

7 Main School Events (See I-4 School Calendar)

The school year begins on April 1 and ends on March 31 of the following year, corresponding with the fiscal year. The school year is divided into three terms at Mita Senior High School.

Main school events are as follows:

<1st Term>

April	Opening Ceremony
	Entrance Ceremony
	Excursion
May	Mid-term Exam
June	Sports Day (Tracks)
July	Term-end Exam
	Closing Ceremony
	Summer Vacation (July 21–August 31)
August	Training Camp

<2nd Term>

September	Opening Ceremony
	School Fair
October	Sports Day (Basketball, Volleyball, Ping-pong, Swimming)
	Mid-term Exam
November	School Trip (2nd-year students)
December	Term-end Exam
	Closing Ceremony
	Skiing Trip (only those who wish)
	Winter Vacation (Dec. 26–Jan. 7)

<3rd Term>

January	Opening Ceremony
February	Entrance Exam
	Meeting to Promote International Mutual Understanding
March	Final Exam
	Commencement Exercises
	Closing Ceremony
	Spring Vacation (March 26–April 7)

Regular classes are conducted for about 40 weeks, 240 days a year.

In order to get credits, students must attend at least two-thirds of the class and also achieve grade higher than grade 2. (Grades are marked 1 to 5; 5 is the highest, 1 is "fail".)

8 Curriculum

Chart-21

(from April 1, 1986)

Subject Areas	Subjects	Credits	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.				Total
					Literary Course		Science Course		
					required	elective	required	elective	
Japanese Language	Japanese Language I	4	5						13~19
	Japanese Language II	4		5					
	Japanese Language Expression	2							
	Modern Japanese	3			3	1	3	1	
	Classics	4			3	1 or 2		1	
Social Studies	Contemporary Society	4	4						11~16
	Japanese History	4			4		3		
	World History	4		4	plus				
	Geography	4			2	2		2	
	Ethics	2							
	Politics and Economics	2							
Mathematics	Mathematics I	4	6						11~18
	Mathematics II	3							
	Algebra and Geometry	3		3					
	Basic Analysis	3		2		2 or 3			
	Differential & Integral Calculus	3					4		
	Probability and Statistics	3				3	3		
Science	Science I	4	4						9~18
	Science II	2							
	Physics	4		2		4 or 5	4 or 5		
	Chemistry	4		3		3	3		
	Biology	4				4		4	
	Earth Science	4				4		4	
Health and Physical Education	Physical Education	7~9	male 4 female 2	male 4 female 2	3	2	3	2	male 13·15 female 9·11
	Health	2	1	1					
Arts	Music I	2	2						4·6
	Fine Arts II	2		2		2		2	
	Calligraphy III	2							
Foreign Language	English I	4	6						18·20
	English II	5							
	English II-A	3		6	6	2	6	2	
	English II-B	3							
	English II-C	3							
Home Economics	General Home Economics	4	male 0 female 2	male 0 female 2		male 2		male 2	male 0~2 female 4
Total			32	32	21	0~11	25 or 26	0~6 or 7	85~96
Others	Cooking					2		2	0·2·4·6
	Dressmaking								
	German			elective 2		2		2	
	French								
Total			0	0·2	0	2·4	0	2·4	
Homeroom			1	1	1		1		3
Special Curricular Club Activities			1	1	1		1		3
Number of Credits			34	34~36	23~34 or 36		27 or 28~34 or 36		91~108

See I-2 Curriculum in Senior High School Education

9 Class Schedule

1st period 8:30~ 9:20
2nd period 9:30~10:20
3rd period 10:30~11:20
4th period 11:30~12:20
(Lunch Break 12:20~13:10)
5th period 13:10~14:00
6th period 14:10~15:00

School starts at 8:30 A.M. Each lesson lasts 50 minutes. There are 10 minutes breaks in between, and also 50 minutes lunch hour. After the sixth period, there is a short homeroom period in each classroom.

Twice a month on Wednesday, there is a students' morning gathering starting at 8:30.

Day course students must leave school at 17:00, when the students of the evening course come to school.

Sample: Week Schedule for Class 1-1 (1985)

Period	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
1st	Math I	English I (Reader)	Math I	English I (Reader)	English I (Reader)	Math I
2nd	Math I	Contemporary Society	P.E.	Math I	P.E.	Japanese Language
3rd	Art	Earth Science	Contemporary Society	Math I	Biology	P.E. (boys) Home Economics (girls)
4th	Art	Biology	Japanese Language	English I (Grammar)	English I (Reader)	P.E. (boys) Home Economics (girls)
5th	Contemporary Society	Japanese Language	Homeroom	P.E.	Japanese Language	
6th	Japanese Language	English I (Grammar)	Club Activities	Contemporary Society	Earth Science	

10 Percentage of Graduates Advancing to Higher Educational Institutions

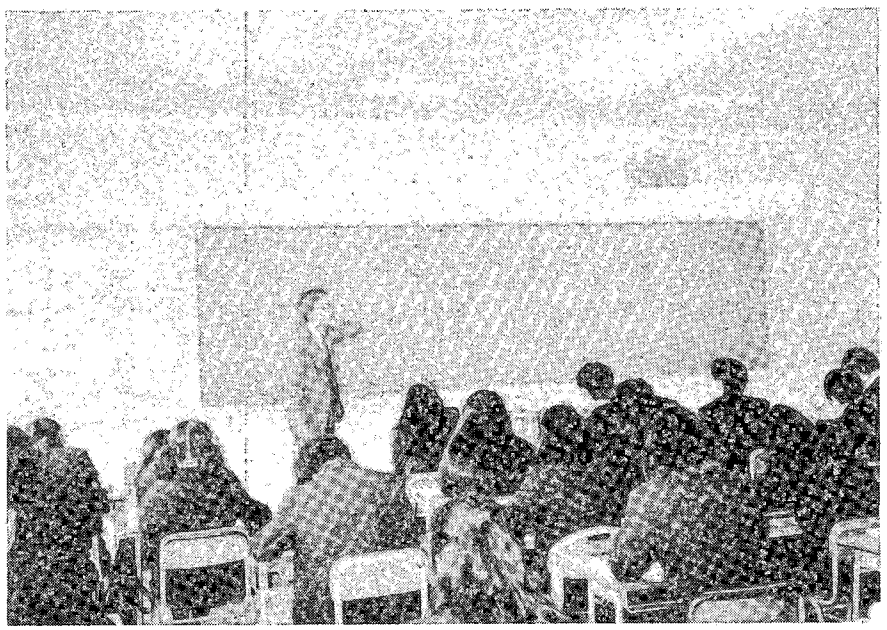
Every year over 95% of the 12th graders wish to apply for admission to higher educational institutions such as universities, colleges, junior colleges and special training schools.

Only about 50% of the university/college applicants (30% of the male applicants, 70% of the female applicants) advance to those institutions in the year of their graduation. The unsuccessful applicants advance to preparatory schools to prepare for the entrance examinations in the following year, or special training schools.

Chart-22

Sex / Institutions	Male (100%)	Female (100%)	Total (100%)
National/Public Univ./Colleges	4	7	6
Private Univ./Colleges	18	47	32
Junior Colleges	0	15	8
Special Training Schools	2	3	3
Employed	0	2	1
Others	76	26	50

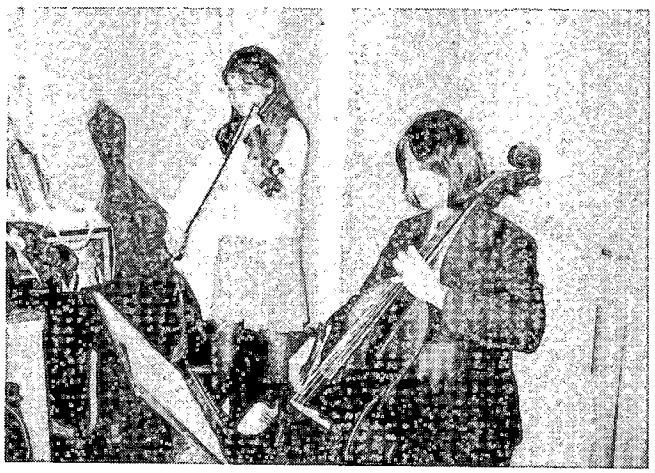
3-Year average
(Year 1986 to 1988)

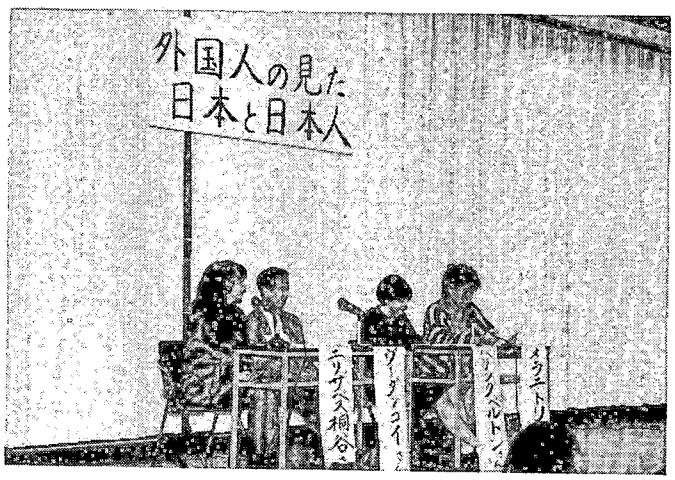


11 Club Activities

Students have one hour of the special curricular club activities every Wednesday. Other than those, students who wish can participate in extracurricular club activities as follows:

Judo
Kendo
Japanese Archery
Swimming
Track and Field
Volleyball
Ping-pong
Basketball
Tennis (softball)
Tennis
Rugby
Badminton
Soccer
American Football
Gymnastics
Mountaineering Club
Chorus
Folk Song
Brass Band
Art
Photography







Drama
Tea Ceremony
School Paper
Broadcasting
Biology
Chemistry
UNESCO
Orchestra
Flower Arrangement
Science Fiction
Comic-story
Go and Shogi
Dancing

12 Ground and Facilities

The campus is 12,219.66 square meters (3.02 acres), the school grounds 4,599 square meters.

The main building contains:

Classrooms : 24
Special Classrooms : 11
Music, Audio-Visual Room,
Social Studies, Chemistry, Biology,
Earth Science, Physics, Dressmaking,
Cooking, Fine Arts, Library
Conference Room
Nurse Room
Gymnasium with lockers and shower rooms
Kendo Hall
Judo Hall
Dining Hall
Reception Office
Staff Room
Principal's Office
and other administrative offices.
Adjacent are the Indoor Swimming Pool and Club House.

13 Expenses

A. Annual Expenses of Tokyo Metropolis for Mita Senior High School (Personnel Expenses excluded)

Day Course	$ 734,496	
Night Course	$ 205,126	
Total	$ 939,622	($ 1 = ¥ 127)

B. An Amount of Payment by a 10th Grader

School Tuition	$ 652	
Membership fees of P.T.A.	$ 29	
Student Council	$ 33	
Money reserved for Educational Trip	$ 394	
Total	$1,108	($ 1=¥ 127)

C. An Annual Income of Staff with tax (1985) ($ 1 = ¥ 127)

Principal (average)	$ 86,653
Teacher (average)	$ 43,806
Teacher (max.)	$ 70,345
Teacher (min.)	$ 17,267

Supplement

(1) School Uniforms

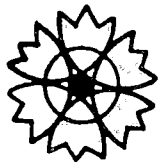
<Girls>
Shirt—white
Tie—wine red
Suit—dark blue





<Boys>
Shirt—white
Tie—wine red
Suit—black

Students must wear school badges on their collars.
Petals—yellow
Center—red



(2) Average Measurements of the Students (1987)

Sex	Age / Measurements	Age 15	Age 16	Age 17
Male	Height (cm)	168.6	169.6	170.0
	Weight (kg)	60.4	60.0	61.8
	Chest Measurement (cm)	84.9	84.2	86.7
	Sitting Height (cm)	89.9	90.7	91.2
Female	Height (cm)	157.8	158.0	158.7
	Weight (kg)	50.4	51.1	51.9
	Chest Measurement (cm)	79.2	79.6	80.0
	Sitting Height (cm)	85.2	85.7	85.5



MITA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
ADDRESS: 1-4-46, MITA, MINATO-KU, TOKYO 108, JAPAN
PHONE: (03) 453-1991
FAX: (03) 453-2899

How-To-Get-There Card

With Shuttle Schedules

(Effective: March 1, 1985)

THE NEW SANNO

For taxi driver:

・ホテルへの道順は、下記の地図をお見せください。

・ホテルへの正式な住所は、下記の通りです。

（英語でお願いします。）

〒106 東京都港区麻布狸穴町4-11-10

TEL (03) 583-1111

THE NEW SANNO U.S. FORCES CENTER, TOKYO

APO San Francisco, CA 96503 Autovon 229-8111 Telex: 2427125 SANTEL J

4-12-20 Minami Azabu Minato-ku Tokyo 106 Phone: (03) 440-7871

American Embassy
Tokyo, Japan

GENERAL GUIDE FOR VISITORS

Page No.

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(Revised 5/91)

1. SECURITY GUIDANCE FOR OFFICIAL VISITORS AND PERSONNEL TDY TO AMERICAN EMBASSY, TOKYO

Regional Security Office - Phone Number 3224-5595/5596

I. Access Control to U.S. Embassy, Tokyo

A. Access to the Embassy is via the main entrance on the first floor of the Embassy. This entrance is staffed by a Marine Security Guard at all times to control access. U.S. Government personnel visiting the Chancery will be asked to present appropriate identification (e.g. Embassy Tokyo ID card, U.S. diplomatic or official passport, U.S. military active duty ID cards) for unescorted access during duty hours (0700 - 1900). **Only Embassy ID card holders with verified Top Secret clearances will be allowed after hours access.** Visitors wishing extended temporary ID cards must produce a diplomatic or official passport and tdy travel orders assigning them to the Embassy.

B. Cameras must be checked at the Marine Post in the lobby. Upon request, prior permission can be granted by the Regional Security Office for official use of cameras in the Chancery.

C. Certain computers also are not allowed in the Embassy. Please check with the Security Office prior to Bringing PC's to the Embassy.

II. Control of Classified Material

A. Protection

Classified material must be stored in security-approved safes at all times during the day or night, except when the office area is attended to by cleared American personnel.

If you have any question concerning the approval of the type of safe to be used or whether you may leave classified material unattended, please contact the Regional Security Office (Ext 5595 or 5596)

B. Destruction

All classified material to be destroyed is to be shredded by the last user.

III. Violation of Security Regulations

The Marine Security Guards are responsible for conducting inspections after working hours to ensure that regulations for safeguarding classified materials are strictly observed. Soon after the close of business, Marines inspect all offices (including typewriter ribbons and trash cans) to insure that all classified material has been secured in locked security repositories. Classified material left unattended after duty hours will be confiscated and a notice of a security violation will be left in its place. Reports of violations will be forwarded to the TDYer's parent agency for appropriate action.

Your cooperation in observing the above procedures will be appreciated.

JAPAN HOTLINE

Japan Hotline set up to answer Jaijin queries

Tourists and foreign residents in Japan now have access to valuable information and advice about life in Japan via the Japan Hotline, which began accepting call Feb. 1. There will be no charge for the service.

The Hotline's English-speaking advisers will field questions on a wide variety of subjects, ranging from city services and health facilities to Japanese customs and etiquette, leisure-time events and activities and educational opportunities.

"Our purpose is to help people from overseas get more out of their stay in Japan," says Hotline supervisor Shinoko Katsura. "We want to provide practical help and ideas that they can use in their everyday lives here, whether it's information on the best places for cherry-blossom viewing or how to dress for a Japanese wedding."

The new service is operated by Tokyo's Dial Service Co., Ltd., which in 1969 established Japan's first secretarial telephone answering service. Dial Service also offers telephone counseling service for Japanese families, children, singles and senior citizens. Last year the company's New York office launched a hotline for Japanese traveling or living in the United States.

The Japan Hotline is sponsored by Japan's two telecommunications giants, KDD (Kokusai Denshin Denwa Co., Ltd.; International telecommunications company) and NTT (Nippon Telegraph and Telephone corporation: domestic telecommunications company).

English-speaking advisors are on duty Monday through Friday, 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. (except holidays). The number is 3586-1001.

Reprinted from the TOKYO WEEKENDER - February 3, 1989

English-speaking advisors on duty
Monday through Friday
10:00 a.m. - 4:00 p.m.
(except holidays).
Please call for information.

(03) 3586-0110

The Japan Hotline is made possible by our sponsors, KDD, NTT & IBM.

dial Service Co., Ltd.

Japan Hotline Sponsors
KDDI
Dial Service Co.,Ltd.
© NTT

2. MEDICAL & HEALTH INFORMATION

Sanitary conditions in Japan are the best in all of Asia.

Water and milk are generally considered safe to drink anyplace in Japan.

All fruits and vegetables may be safely eaten, even if uncooked.

If you are among the more adventurous visitors to Japan and wish to try osushi or sashimi (the special raw fish dishes of Japan), please do so only at better quality restaurants. These restaurants are usually licensed to serve raw fish and must maintain certain standards of quality control and cleanliness.

Most large hotels have a non-resident English speaking hotel physician available. Contact the front desk or manager for specific information.

MEDICAL CLINICS	ADDRESS	OFFICE NUMBER
Tokyo Medical & Surgical Clinic (Gen'l Med + most specialties)	Mori Bldg. #32 4-30 Shiba Koen 3-chome Minato-ku (Near Tokyo Tower)	3436-3028 After hrs duty M.D. available by phone
Ishikawa Clinic (Gen'l Med + surgical)	Azabu-Sakurada Heights 2-7 Nishi Azabu 3-chome Minato-Ku	3479-0081
Endo Clinic (Pediatrics)	Meguro Nishiguchi Mansion 24-13, Kamioosaki 2-chome Shinagawa-ku (Near JR Meguro St.)	3492-6422

DENTISTS		
Dr. Harry Okamoto	5F, 9-7, Akasaka 7-chome Minato-Ku (Near subway Akasaka St.)	3505-5647
Dr. T. Ono	Royal Dental Office Komuro Bldg., 2nd floor 10-11, Roppongi 4-chome Minato-ku (Near Roppoingi crossing)	3404-0819
Dr. K. Nakashima (Periodontist, Endodontist)	Roppongi U Bldg. 4th floor 5-2, Roppongi 4 chome Minato-ku (Near Roppongi crossing)	3479-2726

ENGLISH SPEAKING CHURCHES

1. FRANCISCAN CHAPEL CENTER (Roman Catholic)

2-37, Roppongi 4-Chome, Minato-Ku, Tokyo
Tel. - 3401-2141/2
Masses: Saturday 6:00 P.M.
Sunday 8:00 A.M., 10:00 A.M.
12:00 P.M., 6:00 P.M.
Weekdays 8:00 A.M.

Confession - Sundays and Weekdays at any time.

2. SAINT ALBAN'S CHURCH (Anglican Episcopal)

6-25, Shiba-koen 3-Chome, Minato-ku, Tokyo
Tel. - 3431-8534
Services: Sunday 8:00 A.M. Holy Communion
10:00 A.M. Sung Eucharist

3. ST. PAUL INTERNATIONAL (Lutheran)

1-2-32, Fujimi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo
Tel. - 3261-3740
Services: Worship 9:30 A.M.

4. TOKYO BAPTIST CHURCH (Int'l Congregation)

9-2, Hachiyama-cho, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo
Tel. - 3461-8425
Services: Morning 11:00 A.M.
Evening 6:00 P.M.

5. TOKYO UNION CHURCH (Interdenominational)

5-7-7, Jingumae 5-Chome, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo
Tel. - 3400-0047
Services: Worship 8:30 A.M.
11:00 A.M.

(This guide is prepared and maintained by Michiko Mori in the GSO Office (ext. 5772). Please send her any suggestions, revisions or deletions so we can keep this guide up-to-date.)

9. PERSONAL SERVICES

BARBER SHOPS

The New Sanno Center has a one-chair facility located on the first floor. (See Page 5).

Open: 10:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M. Monday-Saturday
Closed: Sunday

Charge for a shampoo and hair cut is about $10.

The Embassy Barber Shop (Tel: X7939) is located on the ground floor in Room 54 (down the hall to the right as you exit from the elevator). One-chair facility.

Open: 9:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M., Monday and Wednesday only

Charge for a shampoo and hair cut is about ¥2,000.

The Hotel Okura Barber Shop is in the Main Wing on the Second Floor (Hotel Ext. 3819).

Open: 8:30 A.M.-6:00 P.M. Monday-Saturday
8:30 A.M.-12:00 A.M. Holiday
Closed: Sundays

Charge for a shampoo and hair cut is about ¥9,000.

BEAUTY SHOPS

The New Sanno Center Beauty Shop, is located on the first floor. (See Page 5.) Appointments: Call 229-8111 from Embassy telephone extensions, or 3440-7871, Ext. 7178 from commercial lines.

Open: 9:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M. (Monday through Saturday)
Closed: Sundays

Charges without service are about ¥2,500 for a shampoo and set.

The Hotel Okura has beauty shops on the Second Floor in both the South and Main Wings.

Open: 9:00 A.M.-6:00 P.M. daily

There will be a 10% service charge added. Charges without service are about ¥3,500 for a shampoo and set.

The EWA Hair Salon (Unisex) (Ext. 6455) is located in the Mitsui Compound Arcade (Embassy Apartment Compound). (See Page 4.)

Charges without service are about ¥2,500 for a shampoo and set.
For Men: Haircut, shave, etc. at competitive prices.

LOCAL HOSPITALS Emergency Room Services

Japanese Emergency Rooms are NOT set up like those in the U.S. and the same type of service cannot be expected. One cannot walk in with any problem and expect to be seen and treated. Access to an ER may be obtained by having a Japanese speaker or ambulance attendant call the ER directly and arrange for care. Or, as is usually the case, have the ambulance staff locate the nearest, appropriate facility.

St. Luke's International Hospital(Seiroka Byoin)	10-1 Akashicho, Chuo-ku (Near subway Tsukiji St.)	3541-5151
Metropolitan Hiroo General Hospital	34-10 Ebisu 2-chome Shibuya-Ku (Near New Sanno Hotel)	3444-1181
Keio University Hospital	35, Shinanomachi Shinjuku-Ku (Near JR Shinanomachi St.)	3353-1211, Ext.2245

METROPOLITAN AMBULANCE SERVICE

1. Have a Japanese speaker call the Tokyo Ambulance Service, Dial 119.

2. Give patient's name, sex, age, condition, and exact location.

3. CHANCERY FACILITIES

Facilities available in the Chancery are:

Cafeteria, ground floor

Open:	7:30 A.M.-4:00 P.M., Monday-Friday
Breakfast:	7:30 A.M.-10:00 A.M.
Lunch:	11:30 A.M.-2:00 P.M.

Barber Shop, ground floor, turn right as you exit the elevators, turn the corner and halfway down the hall. Reservations are recommended.

Open:	9:00 A.M.-5:00 P.M. Monday and Wednesday

EMBASSY HOUSING COMPOUND FACILITIES

The following facilities, operated by the Employees Welfare Association (EWA), are located at the Embassy Housing Compound:

Temprary Embassy ID card holders are authorized to obtain an EWA card by paying fees as follows:

Valid for one week	$2.00
Valid for two weeks	$4.00
Valid for three weeks	$6.00
Valid for one month	$8.00

(Additional $1.00 fee is required for each family member per week.)

Commissary, including Beverages

Open:	4:00 P.M. - 7:00 P.M. Monday 10:00-Noon; 1:00-7:00 P.M., Tuesday-Friday 10:00 A.M.-2:00 P.M., Saturday
Closed:	Sundays and Holidays

Cleaners

Open:	10:00 A.M.-Noon; 1:00-5:00 P.M., Monday 10:00 A.M.-Noon; 1:00-6:30 P.M., Tuesday-Friday 10:00 A.M.-2:00 P.M., Saturday
Closed:	Sundays and Holidays

HAIR SALON

Open	1:00 P.M.-8:00 P.M., Tuesday-Wednesday-Friday 10:00 A.M.-6:00 P.M., Saturday
Closed:	Sunday, Monday, and Thursday

Szechwan Restaurant (Shisen Hanten)
Chinese restaurant specializing in spicy Szechwan cooking.

7-15-17, Roppongi, Minato-ku
Tel: 3402-3465

Lunch:	1,000 and up
Dinner:	6,000 - up (course)
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 9:30 P.M., daily

The New Sanno Center also has restaurant facilities, see Section on Sanno Hotel Information.

Information about restaurants also is available in the two free English-language weekly tourist publications: the Tour Companion and the Weekender, available in the hotel or in the delegation Control Room.

Some discos offer a full evening's entertainment (entrance fee, all drinks, buffet) for ¥3,000 to ¥5,000; others charge an entrance fee which covers the price of one drink only. A word of caution: prices at bars where hostesses are present can be exhorbitant. Be sure you understand the arrangement before you enter.

Minokichi

Typifies the traditional Japanese restaurant in both surrounding and menu.
Roi Bldg., 5-5-1, Roppongi, Minato-ku
Tel: 3404-0767

Lunch:	2,000 yen - upe
Dinner:	3,500 - 15,000 yen or a la cafte
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 9:30 P.M. (last order), daily

Tamahan - Tonkatsu - Japanese Pork

Tatami style - very Japanese atmosphere.
1-5-10, Moto-Akasaka, Minato-ku
Tel: 3408-2628

Closed:	Saturdays, Sundays & Japanese Hokidays
Lunch/Dinner	1,600 - 2,000 yen
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 9 P.M.

Tenichi
Tempura - A deep-fried fish and vegetable delicacy is featured

6-6-4, Ginza, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3571-1272

Lunch:	7,000 - 10,000 yen (until 4 pm)
Dinner	8,500 - 12,000
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 9:30 P.M., daily; 12 noon to 9 P.M. (Sunday)

Tenichi, Akasaka

3-19-3, Akasaka, Minato-ku
Tel: 3583-0107

Lunch	6,500 - 12,000 (until 4 pm)
Dinner:	8,000 - 15,000
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 9:30 P.M.
Closed:	Sunday

Nancy Chin Ma's (Shatou Hanten)
Mrs. Ma, Tokyo's well known teacher of Chinese cooking, serves Chinese cuisine in an informal atmosphere.

Shatou Mita, 2-7-1 Mita, Minato-ku
Tel: 3453-7092

Lunch:	1,400 - 1,800 yen
Dinner:	5,000 - up
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 9:30 P.M.
Closed:	Saturday

4. THE NEW SANNO CENTER FACILITIES

The New Sanno Center is a joint U.S. military services transient billeting facility located in downtown Tokyo. The Center offers several restaurants, bar, barber and beauty shops, Stars and Stripes book store, a general store which sells food items and beverages, a small Navy Exchange branch which carries a limited selection of stereo and video equipment, cameras, film, etc. as well as other general PX items, and a number of small retail outlets (concessionaires) selling curios, pearls, wood-block prints, screens, etc. Prices at the retail outlets are shown in Yen but purchases may be made in yen or dollars; purchases at Navy Exchange and in the general store for beverages and food items must be made in dollars.

Movies are shown at the New Sanno Theater on Sunday evenings. Check the Control Room, if one is set up, or call the Center for the current movie schedule. There is also a packing and wrapping facility and a branch of the APO located at the New Sanno.

An Embassy ID card issued for your use during this trip will permit access to these facilities.
The New Sanno Provides limited check cashing services to holders of Embassy ID cards.

The New Sanno Center can be reached by telephone on 229-8111 from Embassy telephone extensions, or 3440-7871 from commercial lines.

Hours of operation for the New Sanno Center facilities follow:

Wellingtons--Fine Dining: (Reservations Required)

Open:	6:00 - 9:00 P.M.
Closed:	Mondays
Dress Code:	Men - Coat & Tie Ladies - Appropriate attire

Emporium--Family Dining:

Open:	7:00 A.M.-9:00 P.M. Daily

Kikuya--Japanese Restaurant: (Reservations Required)

Open:	11:00-2 P.M.; 6:00-9:00 P.M.
Closed:	Tuesday Evening and Sunday Morning/Afternoon
Dress Code:	No Running Shoes

JJ's--Snack Bar on the 2nd floor:

Open:	24 hours a day.

Embarcadero--Lounge:

Open:	11:00 A.M.-12:30 A.M. Daily 11:00 A.M.-1:00 A.M. Saturday
Dress Code:	In effect from 5:00 P.M.

Game Room:

Open:	11:00 A.M.-12:30 A.M. daily 11:00 A.M.-1:00 A.M. Saturday

The Hasegawa General Store:

Open:	10:00 A.M.-8:00 P.M. daily 10:00 A.M.-9:00 P.M. Saturday

Stars and Stripes Book Store:

Open:	11:00 A.M.-1:00 P.M.; 2:00-7:00 P.M. daily

The New Sanno Theater:

Open:	Sunday evenings Check movie schedule for times.

Travel Desk:

Open:	7:30 A.M.-6:30 P.M. Monday-Saturday 7:30 A.M.-4:30 P.M. Sunday

Pack and Wrap:

Open:	9:00 A.M.-4:00 P.M. Monday-Friday 10:00 A.M.-1:00 P.M. Saturday-Sunday
Closed:	For lunch 11:30 A.M.-Noon

APO:

Open:	8:30 A.M.-12:00 P.M.; 1:00-4:00 P.M. Monday-Friday 10:00 A.M.-1:00 P.M. Saturday
Closed:	Sundays and National holidays

Navy Exchange:

Open:	10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M. Monday-Thursday 8:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M. Friday-Sunday

The following map shows the location of the New Sanno Center and instructions for getting there:

Chianti

Italian restaurant on lower level with coffee-shop at street level. Moderate prices.
1-11, 3 chome, Azabudai, Minato-ku (Tel: 3583-7546)

Lunch:	¥2,500-¥6,000.
Dinner:	¥14,400.
Open:	12 Noon to 2:00 A.M., daily

Tony Roma's

Inexpensive barbequed ribs and chicken in Roppongi's nightclub district, downstairs from the Hard Rock Cafe.

Lunch:	¥1,500-¥2,500.
Dinner:	¥4,000-¥6,000.
Open:	12 Noon to 2:00 A.M., daily

The Hard Rock Cafe

Inexpensive (for Japan) selection of burgers and a limited variety light meals, grilled chicken, seafood, etc.

Lunch:	¥1,000-¥2,000
Dinner:	¥2,500-¥4,000

Fukuzushi - Sushi (raw-fish-on-rice)

5-9, Roppongi, Minato-ku
Tel: 3402-4116

Lunch:	2,500 yen & up
Dinner:	All a lacarte
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2 P.M.; 5:30 P.M. to 11 P.M.
Closed:	Sunday

Kissho

Typifies the traditional Japanese restaurant in both surroundings and menu.

4-8-7, Akasaka, Minato-ku
Tel: 3403-2621

Lunch:	2,500 - 3,800 yen (11:30-3:00)
Dinner:	10,000 - 15,000 yen (table) 15,000 - 25,000 (Japanese style room)
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 10 P.M., daily

Must make reservation for Japanese style room. Better but not necessary to make reservation for table. Parking area available.

Shakey's

3-9-10, Akasaka, Minato-ku (Tel: 3582-4034).

Lunch:	¥390-¥3,200, a la carte ¥650, Pizza, potato, 1 salad, all-you-can-eat-- 11:00 A.M.-2:00 P.M. Pizza, ¥550; ¥760-¥1,280
Open:	11:00 A.M. to 12:00 midnight, daily

Kentucky Fried Chicken

Open in Roppongi (3479-3573) from 11:00 A.M. to 6:00 A.M. daily and in Akasaka (3584-2781) from 10:00 A.M. until 5:00 A.M. daily except Sunday & holidays when it closes at 1:00 A.M.

Prices for chicken (only) buckets are ¥510 for 3 pieces and ¥840 for 5 pieces.

Tokyo Swiss Inn

Offers European cooking in an informal atmosphere; features fondue and steak tartare.

Roppongi Heights Bldg., 1-16, Roppongi 4-chome, Minato-ku (Tel: 3584-0911). Reservations advisable. Moderate.

Dinner:	¥8,000 course menu Approx. ¥7,500, a la carte
Open:	5 P.M. to 11 P.M., daily

Nicola's

Italian specialties. Moderate.
12-6, Roppongi 3-chome, Minato-ku
(Tel: 3401-6936)--on 3rd floor.

	¥1,200-¥1,800, Italian Special ¥600-¥800, Spaghetti
Open:	12:00 Noon to 4:00 A.M., Mon.-Sat. Noon to 1:00 A.M., Sunday & holidays

Moti

Indian restaurant. Authentic and hot. Moderate.
Two locations: 2F, Akasaka Floral Plaza,
8-8, 3-chome, Minato-ku (Tel: 582-3620); and
3F, Roppongi Hama Bldg.,
6-2-35 Roppongi, Minato-ku (Tel: 3479-1939)

Lunch:	¥900 (curry).
Dinner:	¥2,000-¥3,500.
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 10:00 P.M.

Directions by subway.

The simplest directions are by subway. No matter where you are departing from, go to the Hiro-o Station on the Hibiya Subway Line. This will put you about a five-minute walk from the New Sanno Center.

Directions to Sanno Hotel: Take any exit at Hiro-o Station and look for a large red-brick store called the Meidi-ya Food Plaza. Go to the point directly across the street from Meidi-ya Food Plaza, facing it, then turn left and walk down the street to a large pedestrian overpass spanning a major intersection. A Caltex gas station should be on your left. Turn left at the intersection, following the main road, and walk about 200 feet. The entrance to the New Sanno Center will be located on your left.

5. DO'S AND DON'TS

Greetings:

Japanese customarily bow to each other rather than shaking hands upon meeting. However, most Japanese accustomed to dealing with foreigners expect to shake hands with them and are rarely embarrassed when a foreigner offers his hand. A frequently used compromise is a handshake accompanied by a slight bow.

Courtesy and Manners:

You will find the Japanese to be very courteous and well-mannered. Their behavior in public is quiet and usually dignified. "Good manners" in Japan are very much like good manners in America. By practicing simple good manners you are not likely to offend them.

Language:

Though most Japanese have studied English in school, very few speak it with any fluency. The exceptions to this rule are employees of large hotels and restaurants which cater to foreigners, and the large department stores where an English-speaking clerk can be summoned. Taxi drivers, policemen, proprietors and clerks in small shops, etc. usually do not speak English, but the Japanese are a courteous and helpful people particularly when dealing with foreigners, and if you are obviously "in a jam" someone might well step forward to help you out.

Dress:

The proper dress for all official occasions is noted elsewhere. Men would normally wear a suit or sports coat with necktie and women a suit or dress for dining out in Tokyo. Sports shirts, sweater and slacks are acceptable for shopping.

Tipping:

There is virtually no occasion in Japan when tipping is expected. You should not tip in taxis, restaurants or hotels; in fact, Japanese frequently refuse to accept tips even when offered. Hotel and restaurant bills include a ten to fifteen percent service charge.

NOTE: The only exception to this rule is in US Military facilities like the New Sanno Center.

Food:

Sanitary conditions in Japan are the best in all of Asia. Water and milk are considered safe to drink any place in Japan and fruits and vegetables may be eaten safely even if uncooked. Raw meat and fish are frequently served and may be safely eaten in all first-class restaurants.

Bistro Sanno - (French)
Sanyo Akasaka Bldg.
Tel: 3582-7740

Course: 9,000 Yen and up
Open: 12 noon to 2 P.M.; 6 P.M. to 10 P.M.
Closed: Sunday & Japanese holidays

Mexico Lindo - Very small Mexican restaurant

Saikai Bldg., 2nd floor
2-12-18, Akasaka, Minato-ku
Tel: 3583-2095

600 yen - 800 yen Spagetti
1,200 yen - 1,800 yen Italian Special
Open: 12 noon to 4 A.M.
12 noon to 1 A.M. (Sunday & holiday)

3. Restaurants located within 20 minutes walking distance of Embassy/Hotel Okura area:

Yakitori Nanban-tei

Yakitori (barbecued bite size pieces of meat, poultry, vegetables)
4-11-4 Roppongi, Minato-ku (Tel. 3408-1654)

Dinner: ¥2,500, set Yakitori Dinner
(13 sticks, 9 varieties)
A la carte: ¥200 and up per stick
Beverages extra
Open: 5:30 P.M. to 11:00 P.M., daily including Sundays

Hozumi Tempura

1st Floor, Ochiai Bldg.,
3-4-35, Roppongi, Minato-ku, (Tel: 3585-0201)

Lunch: ¥900.
Dinner: ¥2,000-¥3,000; Special ¥4,000
Open: 11:30 A.M. to 2:00 P.M.; 5:30 to 9:30 P.M.

McDonald's

Both in Akasaka (3583-6309) and Roppongi (3405-8251). Inexpensive

Open: 7:30 A.M. to 12:00 P.M.

Aoi-Kaikan Grill
Western-style restaurant on second floor. 2nd Floor, 2-2-6, Toranomon Minato-ku (Tel: 3582-9721, x222)

Directions: From front gate of Embassy, cross street at pedestrian crossing, turn right and cross pedestrian crossing again. Turn left immediately, walk one-half block. Turn right at driveway with trees, the building is facing you.

(Under Construction)

Kasumigaseki Building:

Directions: From front gate of Embassy, proceed across street, walk straight down street one block to traffic lights. Cross intersection to Lufthansa Building, and proceed along right side of building until you come to a garden adjoining it. Take a left turn through the garden and straight ahead will be the Kasumigaseki Building, the tallest building around. (This was the first highrise building built in Tokyo.)

Many Japanese restaurants on ground floor suitable for lunch feature Tonkatsu or Tempura for ¥2,000 or less. Chinese and French restaurants on 35th floor are more expensive for lunch, and considerably higher for dinner, but offer view of Tokyo skyline.

Chambertin:
French restaurant
1st floor, Akasaka Park Building.
Tel: 3585-4478

Lunch:	¥1,600 to ¥5,000 for set lunch); ¥800-¥3,500. a la carte, Moderate prices.
Dinner:	Prices same as lunch.
Open:	11:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M.; 5:00 to 10:00 P.M.
Closed:	Saturday, Sunday and Holidays

Bei Rudi
German beer hall in basement of Kowa Bldg., out front gate of Embassy, turn left to second building.
Tel: 3586-4572

Moderate prices. Informal.
Open: 5:00 P.M. to 12:00 midnight
Closed: Sunday & Holidays

Shoes:

You may wear your street shoes into all western-style restaurants and some Japanese restaurants in Tokyo. At any traditional Japanese restaurant and many temples and other tourist sites, you will be expected to remove your shoes before entering. There is usually a wooden elevation in the entrance hall of such places; you should remove your shoes and put on slippers provided by the establishment before stepping onto the wooden elevation. Before entering a Japanese-style room covered with straw matting (tatami), you should take off the slippers and enter in your stocking-feet. One can almost always tell where it is appropriate to remove shoes by noting the presence of shoes, slippers and shoe-horns in the entry hall.

Dining Japanese Style:

The place of honor in a Japanese dinner party is in front of and with your back to the tokonoma, an elevated alcove which usually contains a scroll hanging on the wall and an ornament or flower arrangement on the floor. You should sit on cushions on the floor called zabuton. Usually at the beginning of a Japanese-style dinner, the sake cups or beer glasses are filled and the host raises his cup in a toast ("cheers" or "kampai") to all present. After joining him in the toast, you will be asked to start eating. The meal will be served in many courses and may last for several hours. You will continue drinking beer, sake or whiskey throughout. You should drink the soup, holding the bowl in your left hand. The last three dishes are usually rice with pickles, fruit, and finally, dessert and tea.

Japanese Night Life:

Japan has its special forms of night life based on the assumption that all patrons are on liberal expense accounts. Bars and cabarets can be extremely expensive, with service and other charges amounting sometimes to as much as five times the cost of the drinks or food. At some night clubs with elaborate floor shows, sitting down with a hostess and having one drink can cost the equivalent of $30 or more. Hotel bar prices are relatively reasonable, $4-8 for a beer.

Japanese Bath:

You may wish to test the pleasures of a Japanese bath. They are available in6some hotels. There are several things you should know. Before entering the bath, you should always wash with soap at the faucets and showers surrounding the tub. Rinse thoroughly before entering the bath, which may be extremely hot, and soak for as long as you wish. You never bring soap into the bath. Baths in Tokyo generally are not mixed.

Personal Transportation:

Taxis in Tokyo are plentiful except during rush hours. However, taxi drivers usually require detailed instructions in Japanese regarding your destination. Therefore, before leaving the hotel for shopping, dining or sight-seeing, ask someone at hotel reception desk for written instructions. Most meters start at Yen 540 or 520 for the first 2 kilometers.

6. PLACES OF INTEREST

The places of interest on the following pages will give you a taste of the culture of Japan and lead you to some of the interesting attractions in Tokyo. Directions are included, as well as Japanese spellings which can be shown to persons to assist you in locating your destination.

Don't be reluctant to seek assistance from passers-by if you get lost. Many Japanese speak English and most can read it. If you find yourself in need of language assistance, you can telephone (pay phones take ¥10 coins) for instant help at the Tourist Information Center (TIC) 3502-1461.

Taxi fares begin at about ¥540 (approx. $4.30). The taxi fare between 2 points is almost impossible to predict due to traffic conditions. If you wish to use taxis, we have included the Japanese names for many locations. Merely point out the name to the driver. Japanese taxi drivers generally follow the fastest routes, depending on traffic conditions and time of day. No tipping is required or expected.

Tokyo subways are well-marked in English. Ticket machines accept ¥10, ¥50, and ¥100 coins and give change. Pink machines will change a ¥1,000 bill--insert bill face side up. Keep your ticket and give it to the attendant as you leave the subway station.

If you don't know the fare, you can buy a ¥140 ticket and pay the balance when you turn in your ticket. The subway stations nearest to the Hotel Okura are Toranomon (Ginza Line) and Kamiyacho (Hibiya Line).

To Return to the American Embassy:

By Subway:

Take Ginza Line and get off at Toranomon Station and come above ground at Exit #3. Walk toward the Kasumigaseki Building (36 story bldg) then turn to the left when you reach the street where the NCR Bldg is located. The Embassy building is straight ahead.

For Taxi: American Embassy "AMERIKA TAISHIKAN" — Akasaka - next to the Hotel Okura)

National Diet (Parliament) Building - Kasumigaseki

The Diet Building was built in 1936 and has a total floor area of about 12 acres. Inside the front door of the building stand three bronze statues representing the trio of the "Fathers of the Constitutional Government at the dawn of modern Japan 70 years ago." They are Japan's first Premier Prince Ito, Marquis Okuma and Count Itagaki. The south half of the building is used by the House of Representatives and the north half by the House of Councillors.

15 min. walk from the Embassy area.

Unkai - 3rd Floor
Japanese-style restaurant, (Tel: 3505-1111, ext. 4552)

Lunch:	¥3,000 (Tempura)
Dinner	¥9,000 (Shabu-shabu)
	¥9,000/11,000 (Tempura)
	¥10,000/15,000/20,000 (Kaiseki Ryori)
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 10 P.M.

KARIN - 3rd Floor
Chinese Restaurant (Tel: 3505-1111, ext. 4560)

Lunch	¥2,000/4,000
Set Course:	¥10,000/13,000/16,000
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 4 P.M.; 5:30 P.M. to 10 P.M.

Akasaka - 37th Floor
Teppanyaki (Tel: 3505-1111, ext. 4558)

Lunch	¥3,500/4,700/6,000/7,000
Dinner	¥10,000/11,000/13,500/1,6000
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 10 P.M.

2. Restaurants located within easy walking distance of the Embassy/Hotel Okura/ANA Hotel area:

Zakuro
Japanese country cooking, across the street from the Embassy; reservation advisable both for lunch and dinner. (Tel: 3582-2661)

Lunch:	¥1,300-¥2,500 (until 4:00 P.M.).
Dinner:	¥7,500 (Sukiyaki)
	¥6,800-¥9,800 (Shabu-shabu)
	¥4,800-¥9,800 (Sashimi or Tempura)
	¥6,000 approx., a la carte
Open:	11:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M.

Akefune
Quaint Japanese-style restaurant (No English Menu).
2-7-10 Toranomon, Minato-ku

Directions: Out front of Embassy; take right, proceeding past Okura Hotel and gas station also on right, to first intersection. Cross street; standing in front of #30 building, restaurant is directly across the street.

Lunch:	Approx. ¥2,000; Tempura, Unagi & Japanese seasonal dishes
Dinner:	¥6,000, ¥8,000, ¥10,000 Courses
Open:	11:30 A.M. to 14:00 P.M.; 5:00 P.M. to 9:30 P.M., daily

1. English-language menus are available in the restaurants listed below:

Hotel Okura--a number of restaurants are located in the hotel; some are briefly described below:

Terrace Restaurant-Main Wing
A pleasant restaurant looking out on the garden. Suitable for a light lunch. (Tel: 3582-0111, ext. 3267)

Breakfast: ¥2,200 (8:00 A.M.-10:00 A.M.)
Lunch: ¥2,200-¥2,800 (Table d'hote).
Open: 8:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M.

Tokarin--Main Wing
Chinese Restaurant. (Tel: 3582-0111, ext. 3262)

Lunch: ¥2,300 (11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.)
Dinner: ¥8,000 and up (5:30 P.M. to 9:30 P.M.
A la carte: ¥2,400 and up

Camellia Corner-South Wing
Coffee Shop just off the Hotel Lobby (Tel: 3582-0111, ext. 4262). Convenient for breakfast or for a light meal anytime.

Breakfast: ¥1,200-¥1,800 (Served until 1:00 A.M.)
Lunch: ¥2,000-¥2,800, Daily Special Menu Dinner: (11:00 A.M.-10:00 P.M.)
Snack: Moderately priced (10:00 P.M.-1:00 A.M.)
Open: 5:30 A.M. to 1:00 A.M.

Yamazato-Main Wing
Traditional Japanese style menu (Tel: 3582-0111, ext. 3264)

Breakfast: 2,500 Yen (7 A.M. to 9:30 A.M.)
Lunch: 4,000 - 5,000 Yen (11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.)
Dinner: 12,000 - 20,000 Yen (5:30 P.M. to 9:30 P.M.)

ANA Hotel-- a number of restaurants are located in the hotel; some are briefly described below:

Rose Room - Main Dining Room, 3rd Floor
French Cuisine (Tel: 3505-1111, ext. 4574)

Lunch: ¥4,000/6,000/8,000
Dinner: ¥12,000/15,000/18,000
Open: 11:30 A.M. to 2:30 P.M.; 5 P.M. to 10 P.M.

Tokyo Tower - Shiba Park

An elevator will whisk you to the 120-meter high observatory tower in 60 seconds, the price is 700 Yen. For another 520 Yen, you can go up to the observatory, 220 meters above the city. From here you can see most of the downtown area and perhaps Mt. Fuji, weather permitting. There is usually a short wait in line on clear days.

Open: 9 A.M. - 8 P.M. daily
9 A.M. - 6 P.M. 11/16 - 3/15
Tel: 3433-5111

Subway: Rather long walk from Roppongi or Hotel.

Taxi: Tokyo Tower (Shiba Koen)

Tea Ceremony - Hotel Okura or Hotel New Otani

Most visitors to Japan have heard of the grace and ritual of the Japanese tea ceremony. One most convenient places for observing the tea ceremony is the Okura Hotel, 7th floor, Main Building. Open from 11 A.M. to 12 noon, and 1 to 4 P.M. Tea is served in the private tea ceremony room called "Chosho-an" on the 7th floor of the Main Building every day except Sunday. Plan to spend about one-half hour. The charge is 1000 Yen per person for tea and sweet cakes. Telephone the hotel 3582-0111, ext. 3119/3244, to make a reservation.

The Seisei-an Room, Hotel New Otani, 4, Kioi-cho, Chiyoda-ku, also has a tea ceremony which you can view on Thursday thru Saturday, from 11 am to 4 pm. The hotel is about 5 minutes by cab from the Okura. The fee is ¥1,000. While you are there you can walk through their lovely Japanese garden. Telephone 3265-1111.

Flower Arranging - Minami Aoyama

Japanese flower arrangements are known throughout the world. The school listed below offers demonstrations and lessons Monday through Friday between 10 A.M. and 12 noon at 1,500 Yen per person. The flowers used in the lesson cost from 1,000 Yen. Visitors also are welcome to attend the class as observers for a fee of 800 Yen. Please call in advance.

Ohara-ryu-Kaikan, Ohara Center of Tokyo
5-7-17 Minami Aoyama, Minato-ku
Tel: 3499-1200

Subway: Omotesando on Ginza Line; Ext B-1
Make left turn and walk about 100m.

Wood-block Prints - Ginza

Japan is famous for its wood-block prints.
Framed/unframed prints are offered for sale.

S. Watanabe Color Print Co.
8-6-19 Ginza, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3571-4684

Subway: Shimbashi (Ginza or Asakusa Lines) Exit toward Ginza. 2 blocks behind Nikko Hotel on Namiki-dori.
Open 9:30 a.m. - 8 p.m. Holiday close at 5 p.m.
Closed : Sunday

Korakuen Garden - Koishikawa

Near Korakuen Baseball stadium, there is one of the most celebrated landscape gardens in Tokyo. The garden, originally laid out in 1969, represents a typical style of formal Japanese gardens. You also can take a ferry to the Asakusa Kannon Temple from here.

Open: 9 A.M. - 4:30 P.M. Closed: 12/29 - 1/3
Entrance: 200 Yen
Tel: 3811-3015

Taxi: Korakuen (Suidobashi)

Rikugien Garden - Komagome

Near Komagome Station (JNR), there is a very well-kept, compact-size garden which reflects all the splendors and architectural beauties of the garden and tea-house concepts of the magnificent Momoyama and Edo periods.

Open: 9 A.M. - 4 P.M. Closed: Monday
Entrance: 200 Yen
Tel: 3941-2222

JNR Komagome Station - South Exit 7 min. walk or Subway (Toei Roku-go line), Sengoku - 15 min. walk

Taxi: Rikugien Koen (Sugamo)

8. DINING OUT IN TOKYO

American Embassy Cafeteria

The cafeteria is open Monday thru Friday during the following hours:

Breakfast 7:30 a.m. - 10 a.m.
Lunch 11:30 a.m. - 2 p.m.

Hot meals and grilled foods are available only during breakfast and Lunch hours, however the cafeteria remains open from 7:30 a.m. to 4 p.m. selling coffee, soft drinks, candy, and snacks. Only yen is accepted.

Restaurants

Please check with the front desk in your hotel for specific recommendations. The hotels usually have a restaurant file showing the types of food, location, etc. The hotel people are willing to help you with maps, directions for taxi drivers and whatever else you need.

The following restaurant listings do not constitute recommendations. These are restaurants known to and used by members of the Embassy staff over the last few years. Per person costs of $40 or less are considered moderate in Tokyo for dinner. Lunches range upwards from $10.

Depending on the restaurant, a 3 percent tax and 10 percent service charge (tip) may be added to your bill. No additional tips are given. The per person costs estimated below include meals, local beverages, tax and service.

Imported wines and alcohol are somewhat expensive and, consequently, will increase the cost of dining beyond the estimates.

The bill is generally not brought to the table in restaurants in Japan. At the end of the meal, you should simply walk to the cashier's desk at the entrance of the restaurant; the bill will be ready for you there.

Tokyo is a city filled with good restaurants, both large and small. At lunch time, most restaurants expect a fast turnover and consequently service is very quick. You are not encouraged to linger; most Japanese will eat quickly and then continue their lunch-break at a coffee shop. Coffee is expensive (appx. ¥400 per cup) but you may remain as long as you wish at a coffee shop (incidentally coffee shops are known for convenient, not good, food). Dining out in the evening is more leisurely but prices are considerably higher.

All department stores have one or two floors with only restaurants. Plastic food in the window will give you an idea of the food served. The easiest way to order is to bring a waiter or waitress outside and point. Japanese restaurants are for the main part of the meal only; for coffee and/or sweets, you must go to a coffee shop which will also often have simple western-style "snacks" such as pizza, spaghetti, or sandwiches. Nearby office buildings such as Kasumigaseki Bldg., Akasaka Twin-Tower Bldg., Aoyama Twin-Tower Bldg., etc. also have a variety of modern restaurants.

TAKASHIMAYA

4-1, Nihonbashi 2-chome, Chuo-Ku
Tel: 3211-4111
Open: 10:00 A.M.-6:30 P.M.
Closed: Wednesday

Department Store has antique section in basement.

WALLY YONAMINE CO., INC.

2nd Floor, 11-8 Roppongi 4-chome
Minato-ku
(Near Roppongi Subway Station)
Tel: 3402-4001/403-4687
Open: 9:30 A.M.-5:00 P.M., Monday - Saturday
Closed: Sunday and holiday

Fine quality pearls

K. UYEDA

Imperial Hotel Arcade
1-1, Uchisaiwai-cho 1-chome, Chiyoda-ku
Tel: 3503-2587
Open: 10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M., Monday - Saturday
10:00 A.M.-6:00 P.M., Sunday and holiday

Fine quality pearls

HAKUHINKAN TOY PARK

8-11, Ginza 8-chome, Chuo-Ku
Tel: 3571-8008
Open: 11:00 A.M.-8:00 P.M., daily

Japan's largest toy store. On Chuo Dori between Shimbashi and Ginza Stations.

Tsukiji Fish Market ("tsukee-jee") - Tsukiji

Early risers and camera fans will enjoy the Tsukiji Fish Market where activity commences at 5 A.M. Monday thru Saturday. The general atmosphere and flurry of activities, including fish auctions and endless varieties of fish, combine to make this a worthwhile photographic expedition. The hustle and bustle is noticeably less after 10:00, when the wholesalers have left. Wear sensible clothes and old shoes (floors can be wet and slippery).

Tsukiji Fish Market South of Ginza area (NE of Hama Rikyu Garden) Tel: 3542-1111

Subway: Tsukiji on Hibiya line; use exit near back of train, climb stairs and go straight for about 3 blocks to second main intersection (the 1st after the canal). Turn left into street/parking area. The fish market is in the second large group of buildings on the right and the entrance is through a tunnel-like large hall.

Taxi: Tsukiji Uogashi

Ginza:

For high-priced shopping and wandering. There are many major department stores and small shops. Restaurants and coffee shops abound. Special restaurants include Ten-ichi and Benihana.

Subway--Get off at Ginza Station on Hibiya or Ginza Lines. At Ginza Station, Exit #A-8 will put you above ground in front of McDonald's, Wako and Mikimoto Pearl (across the street).

Taxi: Ginza Yon-chome (Wako-mae)

Ueno:

Ueno has the National Museum, Tokyo Metropolitan Fine Art and other museums; zoo; interesting side street shopping; small restaurants and coffee shops near the station; McDonald's across from Matsuzakaya Department Store. There is an interesting shopping area along "Ameyoko" and "Ueno-Nakadori" including branch streets under the railroad tracks.

Subway--Get off at Ueno Station on Ginza or Hibiya Lines. Upon exiting, follow signs for JNR station to a wide underground "street" (same level as ticket machines). Take that to the left, up an incline to get above ground. Many small shopping areas are across the street from the station. Or continue down the street and up the hill for Ueno Park (zoo and museums).

Taxi: Tokyo Bunka Kaikan

Asakusa:

Very interesting "old" Tokyo area which includes Asakusa Kannon Temple, Pagoda and Shrine. Again, many small shops, including a street of Korean products, and the Matsuya Department Store. A good area for things Japanese.

Subway--Get off at Asakusa Station (last station) on Ginza Line. If you take the Ginza Line from downtown area, leave the train platform from the central exit (not the one at front of train). Take escalator to ground level and follow signs to Asakusa Temple or Kaminarimon Gate.

Taxi: Asakusa Kaminarimon

Meiji Shrine:

The main Shinto shrine in Tokyo, dedicated to the Emperor Meiji. Grounds include gardens and Treasure House (featuring articles used by and during the time of the Emperor Meiji).

Subway--Transfer at Omote-Sando on the Ginza Line to the Chiyoda Line and get off at the first station, Meiji-Jingumae Station. Exit towards the front of train and follow signs. The Shrine entrance is a U-turn to your right as you come above ground.

Alternate Subway directions--Get off subway at the Omote-Sando stop on the Ginza Line and exit at Exit #A-1. You will be on a main street with a downhill slope in the direction of Meiji Shrine (3/4 mile away). There are boutiques and shops on this street including an Antique Mart and the Oriental Bazaar, a good place for souvenirs. The Shrine entrance is at the top of the far incline near the 2nd main intersection. Cross intersection using overhead crosswalks.

Taxi: Meiji Jingu

Harajuku: On Sunday afternoons, the street next to Meiji Park is closed to car traffic and filled with aspiring rock bands and young teens dressed in 50's and 80's dress.

Harajuku directions: Same directions as Meiji Shrine. Facing the entrance to Meiji Shrine turn left and follow the street pass an overhead walkway and walk another 50 yards.

Nihonbashi:

For Takashimaya and Tokyu Department Stores; also Bridgestone Museum of Art.

Directions:

Subway--Get off at Nihonbashi Station on Ginza Line.

Taxi: Nihonbashi Takashimaya

FUJI-TORII

1-10, Jingumae 6-chome, Shibuya-ku; (Omote Sando Dori)
Tel: 3400-2777
Open: 10:00 A.M.-6:30 P.M.
Closed: Thursday
New screens, lamps Old/new Imariware brass, bronze, chests, lacquer, etc.

KIDDYLAND

1-9, Jingumae 6-chome, Shibuya-ku; (Omote Sando Dori)
Tel: 3409-3431
Open: 10:00 A.M.-8:00 P.M.
Closed: 3rd Tuesday
Toys, gifts, books, decorations

ORIENTAL BAZAAR

9-13, Jingumae 5-chome, Shibuya-ku; (Omote Sando Dori)
Tel: 3400-3933
Open: 9:30 A.M.-6:30 P.M.
Closed: Thursday
Antiques, lamps, old/new brass & bronze, chests, new screens, prints, kimono & old obi material.

MATSUYA--Ginza

6-1, Ginza 3-chome, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3567-1211
Open: 10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M.
Closed: Tuesday
Department Store

MATSUZAKAYA--Ginza

10-1, Ginza 6-chome, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3572-1111
Open: 10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M.
Closed: Wednesday
Department Store

MITSUKOSHI

Ginza Store:
6-16, Ginza 4-chome, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3562-1111

Nihonbashi Store:
7-4, Muromachi 1-chome, Nihonbashi, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3241-3311
Open: 10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M.
Closed: Monday
Department Stores--Nihonbashi store is larger than Ginza

SHOPPING

Tax-free Purchases:

You can buy most articles at a tax-free price at the hotel arcade or other stores identified with a "Tax Free" (consumption tax exemption) sign. You must carry your passport with you, and the purchases will be recorded by the store on a form which is attached to your passport. The form will be removed when you leave Japan. If you are departing on a commercial airline, you should have the articles purchased ready for inspection at the airport.

Tax-free purchases will entitle you to the 3% Consumption tax discount besides any normal discount offered by the shop.

Tax-free articles include: pearls, precious metal plated or covered articles, fabrics for interior decoration, cameras & lenses, projectors, binoculars & telescopes, radio sets, tape recorders, TVs, record players, watches, etc.

PLACES TO SHOP

The Okura Hotel Arcade, Main and South Wings, has a variety of shops for antiques, designer clothes, pearls, jewelry, art, curios, books, cameras and stereo equipment, and pharmacy items. Prices may be slightly higher than at specialty shops outside the Hotel.

AKIHABARA

The Akihabara area (Hibiya line, 2 stops before Ueno) is known for numerous electrical wholesale outlets, camera shops and stereo/TV shops, where the newest in electrical gadgetry is available. Stores range from multi-floor Hirose Musen and Laox, the latter with 4 locations within a few blocks, to small stands selling calculators and tiny tape or CD players.

ANTIQUES MARKET

3-6-1, Kita-Aoyama, Minto-ku
(Omote Sando Dori)
Hanae Mori Bldg.
Tel: 3406-1021
Open: 10:00 A.M. - 8:00 P.M.
Closed: Monday

Consists of 39 antique shops.

BINGOYA

10-6, Wakamatsu-cho, Shinjuku-ku
Tel: 3202-8778
Open: 10:00 A.M.-7:00 P.M.
Closed: Monday

Folk craft.

For those who would like to venture farther from Tokyo:

KAMAKURA:

An old town with many shrines and temples including the Daibutsu, the second largest statue of Buddha in Japan. An easy, but full, day's trip out of the hustle and bustle of Tokyo.

Directions:
Subway--Take the Ginza Line to Shimbashi Station, or go by taxi. Follow signs to JNR Lines. Yen vending machines are to LEFT of ticket collectors. Purchase ¥640 ticket from vending machine and proceed through entrance to trains. As you hand ticket to collector, turn right. You will see a blue sign "Yokosuka/Sobu Line" with a red arrow pointing downstairs. If in doubt, ask collector. Follow signs down the stairs to TRACK 1. Wait for BLUE/CREAM colored train. It's more than an hour's ride to Kamakura. The stop just before Kamakura is Kita-kamakura. Do not get off here. Your stop is at Kamakura Station. At Kamakura Station, there is an Information Window. Someone will speak in English. Ask how to get to the DAIBUTSU or Great Buddha. You can go by bus or electric train (ENODEN). You may also ask about Hase Kannon Temple which is a short walk from the Buddha.

NOTE: We suggest that once you get your ticket, ask uniformed men for "Yokosuka Sen" and they will point in the proper direction; repeat this process up to the moment you step on the train to be sure you don't go astray. Once on the train, wait until you see the sign (in English) identifying Kamakura Station; don't exit at Kita Kamakura and don't be misled by other travelers leaping on and off your train.

Suggested Sightseeing in Kamakura:
Bus #3 goes from the station to the Daibutsu--stop will be announced, but ask the driver if you aren't sure. Entrance to grounds is back and across the street. There is a small entrance fee. You can go up inside the Buddha. After the Daibutsu, walk back the way the bus came to where the main road makes a left turn--take the smaller street to the right (there is a sign for the Hase Kannon, if you look). Purchase entrance ticket from machine. Grounds include a cave with statues carved in the wall, small shrine with dressed stone statues dedicated to children (halfway up stairs), and on top of hill, a temple with the 11-headed statue of Kannon (the goddess of mercy). There is a magnificent view of Sagami Bay from there.

Walk back down to main street and catch bus back to station (bus stop is to left, across street beyond traffic light). At station, backtrack one block to main street, turning left once there. Interesting shops, some restaurants (including McDonald's) and coffee shops line 3/4 mile walk to Hachimangu Shrine grounds which include not only the temple but also the Kamakura Museum, Museum of Modern Arts, and park area.

There are many more shrines and temples in the area--check the large pictographic maps for their locations.

Upon return to Shimbashi, you may want to take a taxi back to the Hotel.

MUSEUMS AND ART GALLERIES IN TOKYO

The Tour Companion devotes two pages to exhibits at museums and department stores. Check the current issue for information about on-going exhibits.

Bridgestone Art Gallery (Bridgestone Bijutsukan) - Kyobashi

Bridgestone Building, 2nd fl.
1-10-1 Kyobashi, Chuo-ku
Tel: 3563-0241

Open 10 A.M. - 5:30 P.M. Closed: Mondays Entrance: 500 Yen

Subway: Kyobashi on Ginza line, Meidiya Exit,
3 minutes walk.

Japan Folkcraft Museum (Nihon Mingeikan) - Komaba

4-3-30 Komaba, Meguro-ku
Tel: 3467-4527

Open: 10 A.M. - 5 P.M. Closed: Mondays Entrance: 700 Yen

Inokashira line from Shibuya (2nd stop), Komaba-Todai-Mae Station, 6 min. walk.

Ceramics, lacquer furniture in ancient folk art tradition.

Nezu Art Museum (Nezu Bijutsukan) - Minami Aoyama

6-5-36 Minami Aoyama, Minato-ku
Tel: 3400-2536

Open: 9:30 A.M. - 4:30 P.M.
Closed: Mondays, the day following holidays, and 12/25-1/10
Entrance: 700 Yen

Subway: Omotesando on Ginza line; Exit. A-5, 6 min. walk.

Japanese and Korean ceramics, Chinese bronzes, tea ceremony utensils.

Tokyo Metropolitan Art Gallery
(Tokyo-to Bijutsukan) - Ueno

Ueno Park, Taito-ku
Tel: 3823-6921

Open: 9 A.M. - 4 P.M. Closed: Mondays
Entrance: 300 - 800 Yen according to current exhibit.

Subway: Ueno on Ginza or Hibiya lines.

Contemporary Japanese artists.

Tokyo National Museum
(Tokyo Kokuritsu Hakubutsukan) - Ueno

Ueno Park, Taito-ku
Tel: 3822-0111

Open: 9 A.M. - 4:30 P.M. Closed: Mondays
Entrance: 400 Yen plus fee for the special exhibits.

Subway: Ueno on Ginza or Hibiya lines

Repository for many of Japan's national treasures.

Old Farm House Exhibition Park
(Nihon Minkaen) - Mukogaoka Yuen

Mukogaoka Yuen, Kawasaki-shi
Tel: 044-922-2181

Open: 9:30 A.M. - 4 P.M. Closed: Monday
Entrance: Adult 300 Yen; Child 100 Yen

Odakyu Line: From Shinjuku less than an hour to Mukogaoka Yuen amd 15 min. walk from South Exit of Mukogaoka Yuen Station

Nihon Minkaen is an open air museum containing some two dozen historic Japanese houses which have been relocated there from throughout Japan.

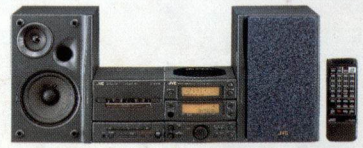
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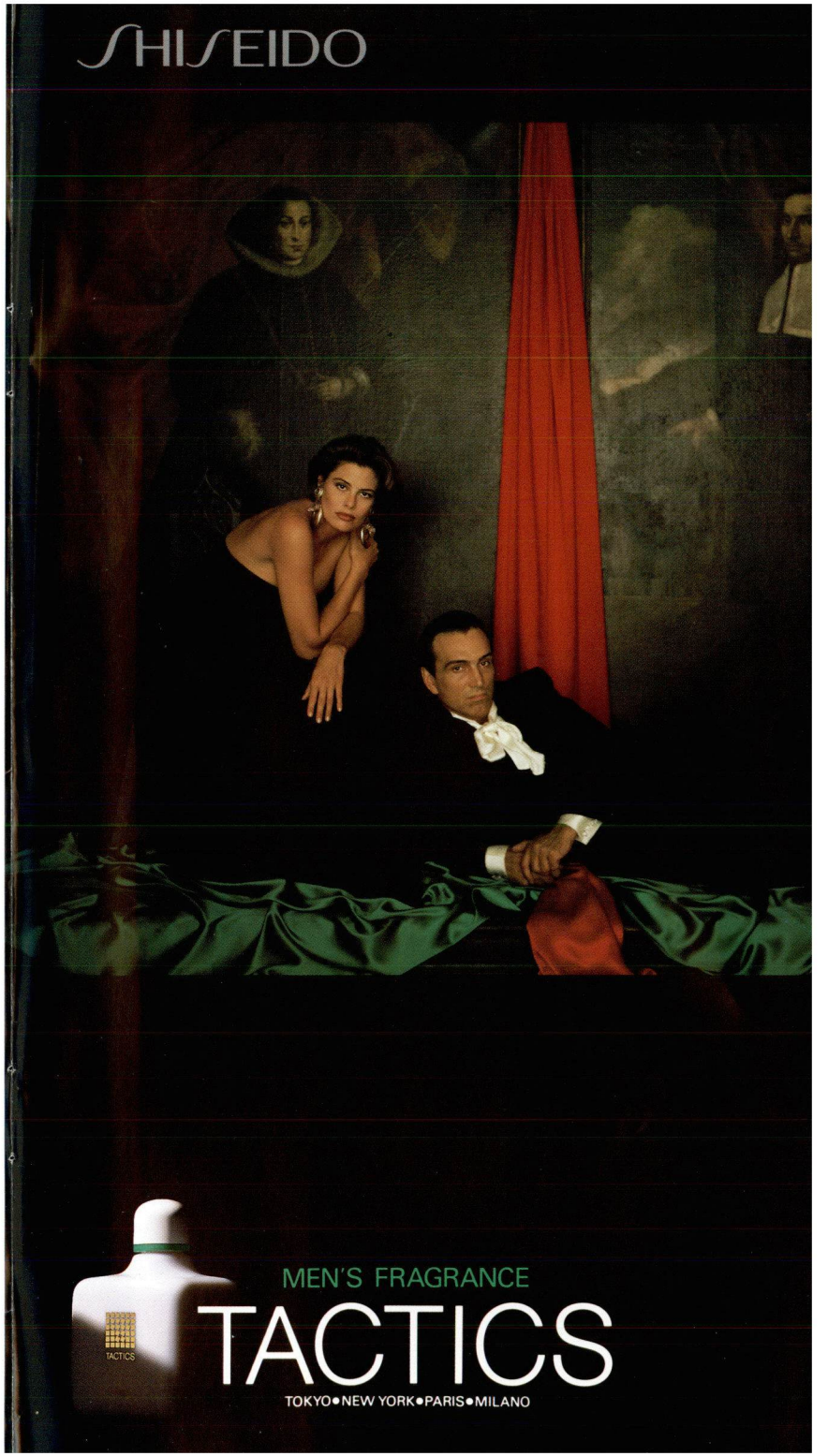
Once upon a time you approached flying with a keen sense of excitement. Then you grew up. Now you have important things to do and places to be, and flying has perhaps become simply a means to an end. Rediscover the things you first loved about air travel. Aboard Japan Airlines. Where a world of comfort sets us a world apart.



JAL

Japan Airlines

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MAJOR CITIES ALONG "SHINKANSEN" (Bullet Train)



ATAMI

Atami, one of the most well-known hot-spring resorts in Japan, is located south of Tokyo and it takes only 55 min. by the Kodama on the Shinkansen. Atami reminds people vividly of warm, pleasant, relaxing baths which are known for medical value in the treatment by springs.

NAGOYA

Nagoya, with a population of over 2 million, is the political, economical, and cultural center of the Tokai area. The city developed during the Edo period (1603-1868) as the castle town of Lord Tokugawa, the powerful ruler of the area, then called Owari. Even in the Edo period, its population was close to 100,000. The city has been developing intensively as a modern city: its Meitetsu bus terminal is second only to The Port Authority Bus Terminal in New York City in size and facilities. Also, noteworth is the 100-meter-wide boulevard.

KYOTO

Kyoto was the former capital during 794—1868. Kyoto is an ancient city and rich in tradition. All of the temples and shrines are so divine that is cannot be expressed in words. To mention a few are the Kiyomize Temple. Ginkakuji, Heian Shrine, and the Kinkakuji Temple which Yukio Mishima wrote about in his novel, "The Golden Pavilion".

OSAKA

In the feudal days. Osaka was Japan's commercial and administrative city. Now, Osaka is a sister-city of San Francisco and a place to get acquainted with the technical, industrial, and commercial face of Japan.
The Osaka castle built in 1586 and reproduced in 1931 is certainly fabulous to see. It's noted for its magnificent scale and the immense size of the stones used in its construction.

HIROSHIMA

In Hiroshima, which is world-renown for the slogan ,, No More Hiroshima," there is a lot to see relating to the atomic bombing. The atomic Bomb Dome, the only building still standing which withstood the nuclear blast is a grim reminder of that tragic moment. But there is beauty as well in Hiroshima: the Shukkei-en Garden and Hiroshima Castle. If you want to take a short trip outside of the city, you could go to Miyajima where the huge wood Torii painted red stands out in the sea.

HAKATA

Hakata, the terminal of the super-express Hikari of the Shinkansen, is the 10th largest city in Japan. It is the gate way to and the center of Kyushu.

MORIOKA

It takes 3 hours 30 minutes from Tokyo to Morioka. Morioka is the terminal station of the New Tohoku Line which is scheduled to be extended to Aomori in the future.

SENDAI

It takes 2 hours from Tokyo to Sendai. Sendai is the largest city in the Tohoku districts. Sendai is a quiet city distinguished by woods and rivers. The ruins of Aoba castle makes reminiscent of the bygone days. Sendai Tanabata Festival is crowded with people in August.

ECHIGOYUZAWA

One hour 30 minute trip by train from Tokyo takes us to Echigoyuzawa, a city located in the folds of mountains, the spas and skiing area of which are well known.

NIIGATA

Located at a 2 hours 30 minutes distance by train from Tokyo. Niigata, a rice-producing area, faces the Sea of Japan; we can ferry from the Niigata port to the Sado island.

"Shinkansen Timetable"

TOKAIDO SHINKANSEN

HIKARI	TIME	KODAMA
40 10 04	6	20 52
40 36 28 08 04 00	7	20 52
44 40 28 08 04 00	8	20 52
44 40 28 08 04 00	9	20 52
44 28 08 04 00	10	20 52
44 28 08 04 00	11	20 52
44 28 08 00	12	20 52
44 28 08 04 00	13	20 52
44 28 12 04 00	14	20 52
44 32 28 08 04 00	15	20 52
44 40 28 16 08 04 00	16	20 52
44 40 28 16 12 04 00	17	20 52
44 40 28 16 08 00	18	20 36 52
44 28 12 04 00	19	20 52
32(04)00	20	20 56
24 00	21	32
	22	08 44

TOHOKU SHINKANSEN

YAMABIKO	TIME	AOBA
52 42 00	6	14
00	7	20
48 20 04 00	8	
48 28 00	9	16
48 28 00	10	16
28 00	11	16
48 28 00	12	16
48 28 00	13	16
28 00	14	16
48 04 00	15	16
28 00	16	16
48 28 00	17	16
48 28 00	18	16
00	19	24 48
22 00	20	28
46 28 16	21	00 50
	22	16 44

JOETSU SHINKANSEN

ASAHI	TIME	TOKI
	6	10 **46**
36	7	10 52
32 16	8	44
08	9	40
08	10	32
08	11	32
08	12	40
08	13	40
08	14	32
24	15	40
24 08	16	40
08	17	32
24 08	18	40
40 04	19	28
	20	08 48
54 08	21	32
	22	08
	23	00

HIKARI
Black = For HAKATA
Blue = For HIROSHIMA
Red = For OKAYAMA
Green = For SHIN-OSAKA
Orange = For NAGOYA

KODAMA
Black = For SHIN OSAKA
Blue = For NAGOYA
Red = For SHIZUOKA
Green = For MISHIMA
Orange = For HAMAMATSU

YAMABIKO
Black = For MORIOKA
Red = For SENDAI

AOBA
Black = For SENDAI
Red = For NASUSHIOBARA

ASAHI · TOKI
Black = For NIIGATA
Red = For ECHIGOYUZAWA
Blue = For TAKASAKI

★ Special trains available in addition to the train schedule

JOYFUL TOKYO®
Vol.17 No.3 AUTUMN 1991
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The Kabuki play



"YOSHITSUNE-SENBON-ZAKURA"
Kabuki is the Japanese theatrical tradition which has been developed over the past 400 years in pursuit of the beauty of stylization. If you are in Tokyo in Summer you are lucky since you have a chance to see a kabuki performance. The nishiki-e, or colored woodlock print, on the front covere Shows.

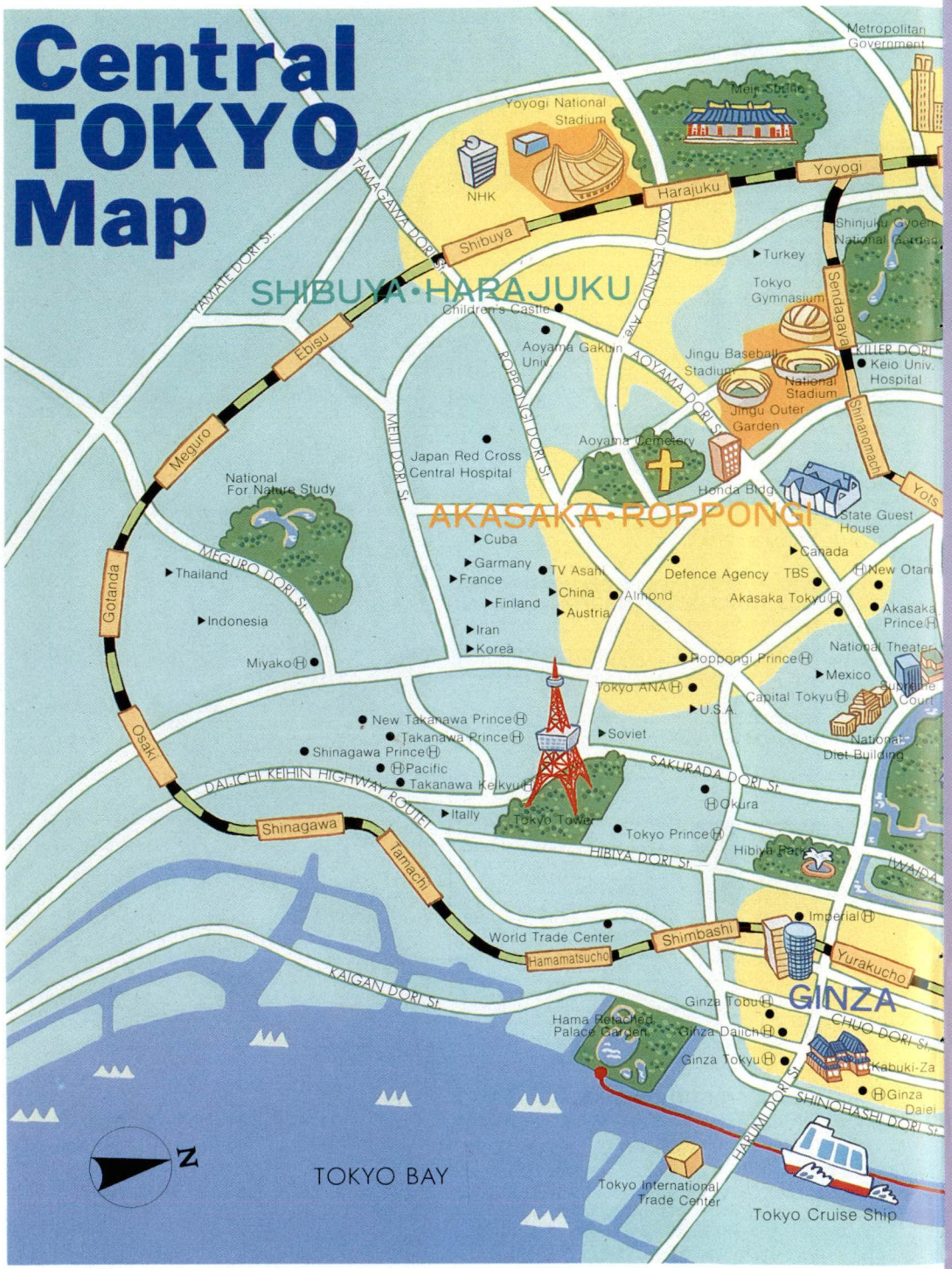
"YOSHITSUNE-SENBON-ZAKURA"
ever popular on stage will play. This play is one of the most visually exciting and extremely Japanese performance. The woodlock print, shows a scene from the play that'll be performed at the National Theatre. See page 20 for more information.

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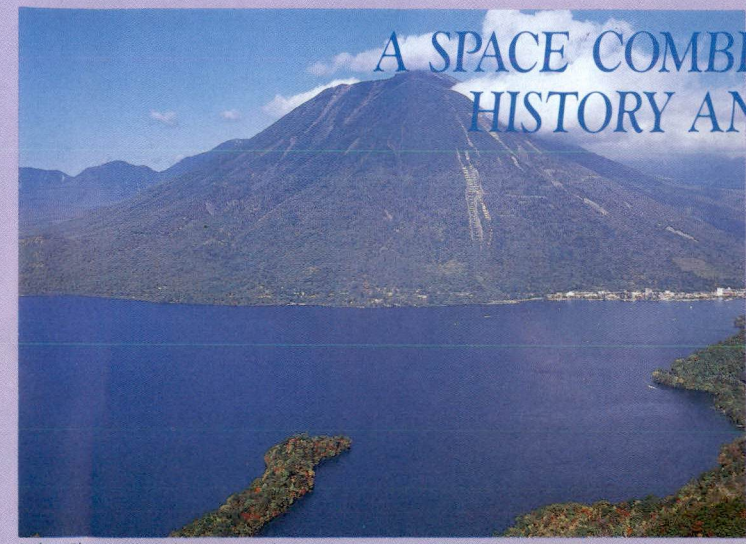


Central TOKYO Map

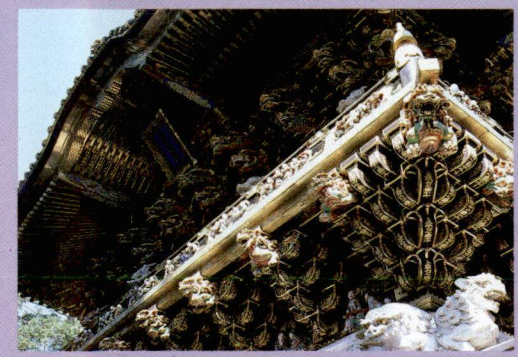


A SPACE COMBINED WITH HISTORY AND NATURE

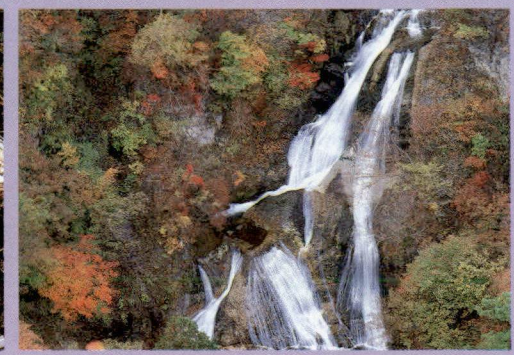
Nikko is a National Park that is well known world wide. Who can leave Japan without visiting Nikko. Its beautiful mountain scenery with rivers, waterfalls and lakes. The Toshogu Shrine is the most notable shrine in Japan from a historical & religious standpoint. You will be spellbound when you see the fine works of art in this precious shrine.



Lake Chuzenji and Mt. Nantai



Yomeimon in Toshogu



Kirifuri Water Fall

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TOBU LIMITED EXPRESS

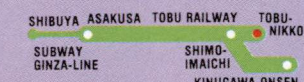
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To HIROSAKI <NOCTURNE>
22:00⇨7:15 ¥9,700

To MIYAKO <BEAM 1>
21:00⇨7:00 ¥9,000

To TOTTORI <CAMEL>
20:30⇨7:00 ¥10,000

To YONAGO <CAMEL>
19:30⇨7:00 ¥11,000

To TOKUSHIMA <EDDY>
21:30⇨8:10 ¥9,900

To IMABARI <PIRATES>
19:00⇨7:40 ¥11,000

To OKAYAMA, KURASHIKI <LE BLANC>
20:45⇨7:45 ¥10,200

To MAIZURU <SYLPHIDE>
22:15⇨7:40 ¥10,500

[From SHINAGAWA, YOKOHAMA]

To NABARI <IGA>
22:30⇨7:30 ¥7,700

[From YOKOHAMA]

To HIROSAKI <NOCTURNE>
21:30⇨7:15 ¥10,230

To INA, KOMAGANE, IIDA <BAY BRIDGE>
9:00⇨14:20 15:30⇨20:50
23:50⇨6:15 ¥4,430

To NAGOYA <LA MER>
23:30⇨6:00 ¥5,650

To KOBE <ANCHOR>
22:30⇨6:10 ¥8,200

[From TOKYO]

To AOMORI <LA FORET>
21:30⇨7:00 ¥10,000



Daily Service
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For more information
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KEIHIN ELECTRIC EXPRESS RAILWAY CO.,LTD.



TOKYO TOWN'S GUIDE

GINZA

Both fashionable shops and old established shops stand side by side on the streets. There are also almost 300 art galleries in one of the world's most distinguished art avenue. Ginza also has many high-class bars and clubs, and the great number of import brands shops make it convenient for shopping. You can also enjoy visiting the old buildings.
In nearby hibiya, the so-called Broadway of Japan, boasts its great number of theaters and cinemas. And near by the subway Ginza station stands the very distinctive Kabukiza theater.

AKASAKA

With several first-rate hotels aligning the streets (Akasaka Prince, New Ohtani, Capitol Tokyu), this area leaves a strong impression of an international city.
It also houses the National Diet building as well as the Geihinkan, the official guest house which serves as our nation's living room.
This area is also home of authentic Japanese restaurants and geisha. As a night spot, we can also find many discoteques and pubs.

ROPPONGI

An international night spot with many embassies nearby. A fashionable place with many people, including a number of foreigners and fashion models, who gather at numerous pubs and discos even well past midnight.
The well-known rendezvous point is "Almond" near the subway station.

SHIBUYA

A terminal city where both JR and subway lines meet. The town spreads out in all directions in front of the station. A shopping center with many large department stores.
As a rendezvous spot "the front of Hachi-ko (a statue of a dog)" right in front of the station is most convenient.
To mention some particularly nice spots, you can't miss the park avenue, the pop wallpaintings and artistic objects found on Spain avenue and so on.
It's also a place full of college kids who all get together at the Live House Jan-Jan, CLUB QUATTRO and so on.
You can also visit the NHK and planetarium, as well as going to Tokyu Hands, which is an exclusive hobby and handcrafts store.

HARAJUKU

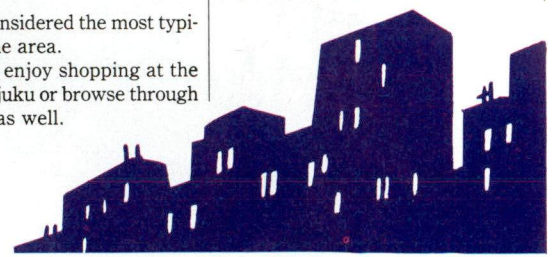
There are many coffee shops and boutiques. On Sundays a number of rock bands jostle about in Yoyogi Park giving live performances.
This so-called Little London is the "scrap-and-build" zone of his latest fashion.
You can also enjoy cycling and bird-watching in Meiji Shrine and Yoyogi Park.
Crépes are considered the most typical food of the area.
You can also enjoy shopping at the Laforet Harajuku or browse through Kiddy-Land as well.

SHINJUKU

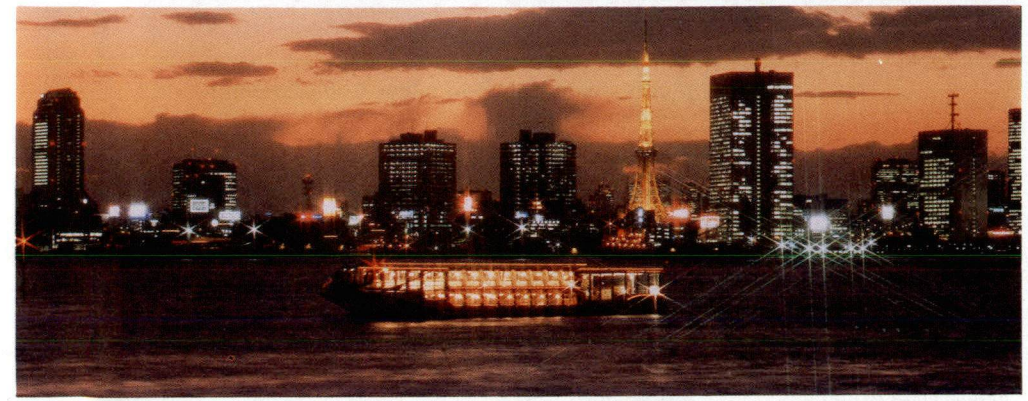
The new Tokyo Metropolitan Government Office had just been transferred, making itself a new landmark for Shinjuku. It's a skyscraper in the city. The place also offers an oasis in the big city, the Shinjuku Gyoen, a spacious garden full of 1700 species of plants.
As a night spot it offers Kabukicho which houses the Koma Theater, movie theaters, restaurants, bars and casual counter bars and Japanese-style bars in great numbers.
A big terminal city with large book shops like Kinokuniya and large department stores like Isetan aligning the streets.

AKIHABARA

When you come right out of the West exit of Akihabara station, you'll immediately confront an enormous array of electrical appliances in front of you. It is perhaps known by many as one of the world's greatest electric avenue.
It offers a great variety of computers, television sets, VCRs, cameras, etc., at reasonable prices. The famous electrical appliance shop LAOX is also found here. If you proceed on further beyond LAOX, you can visit the Transportation Museum and enjoy seeing all kinds of vehicles



Cruising Through Tokyo



Cruise Sumida River on the River-Commuter.
See the Famour 11 Bridges.

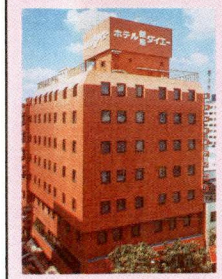
Recently a newly built tourist liner had just entred service. The big, lovely water-bus will surely charm the hearts of foreigners.

Amusement Cruise

A course is offered leaving the Hinode pier for Kasai Seaside Park. This park is a new scenic spot in the water-front area creating an almost futuristic image with its promenade to the sea, artificial beach and so on centering around a gigantic glass dome aquarium. The main attraction of the aquarium is the world's first school of swimming tuna. As soon as you get off the waterbus, you encourter a utopia of sea and nature.

Stay in Ginza Shopping area and save money !

Room Rates: Single : ¥9,750 up
Double: ¥15,000 up
Twin : ¥15,000 up



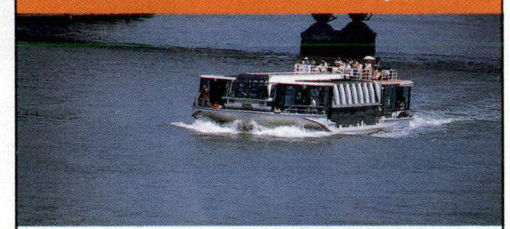
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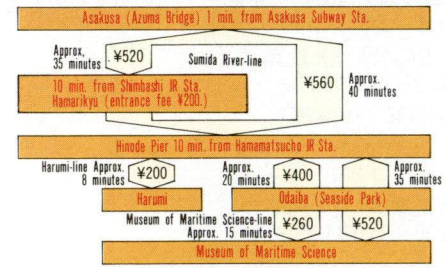


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J.R. LINES & SUBWAY

SUBWAY・J.R. NETWORK OF TOKYO

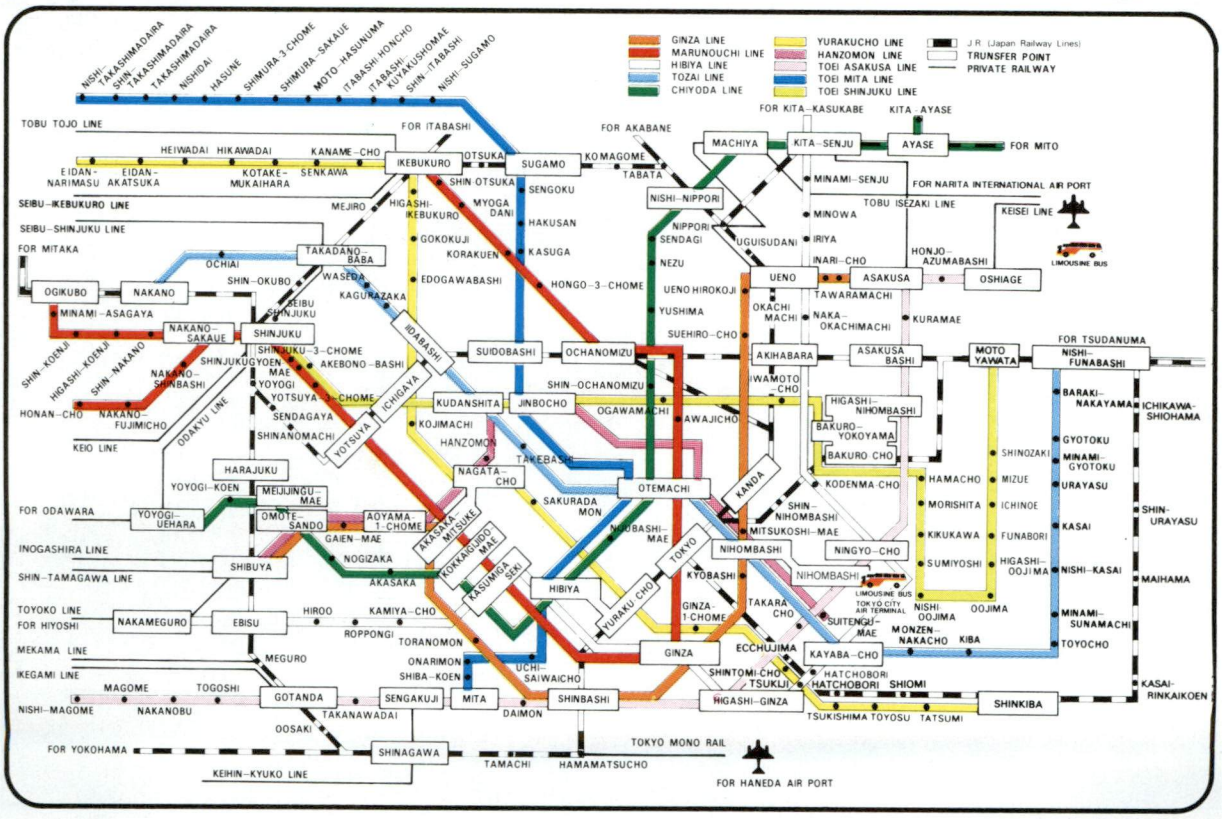
● How to access the automatic wicket.

Insert the ticket which is colored black (or brown) on its back side and specially designed for an automatic wicket into the slot.



When entering, be sure to pick your ticket up from the outlet. When exiting, leave your ticket to be collected at the wicket.





MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION IN TOKYO

Traveling around by train is the least problem in Tokyo. The two major lines: the J.R.(Japan) and the subway called **chikatetsu** run all over the city until late at night. They always run on schedule so that wherever you may want to go, it's quite often much easier and quicker to get to you destination by train rather than by expensive taxi.

The minimum fare is ¥120 for J.R. and ¥140 for the subway respectively.

You can get your ticket from vending machines at all the stations, and even if you don't know how much your ticket is, there is an English fare-chart posted.

NIKKO

Short Trips From TOKYO



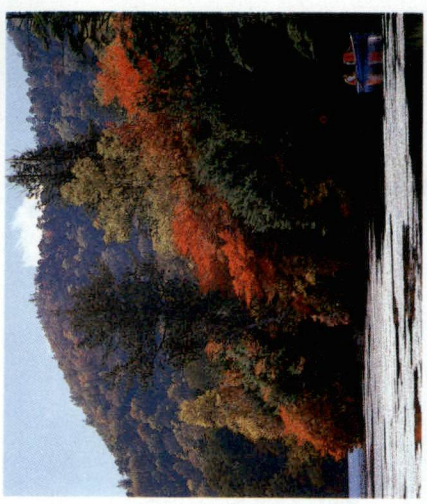
Kegon Waterfall

Location of Nikko

Nikko is located at the west end of Tochigi prefecture on the Japanese main island of Honshu. The north side of the city is blessed with natural beauty highlighted by mountains such as Mt. Nyoho, Mt. Nantai and Mt. Shirane (2500 m high) as well as a number of lakes, marshes and waterfalls. In addition, Toshogu Shrine, Rinnoji Temple and the Futara-san Shrine are well known as international sight-seeing places for their traditional beauty characterized by the art and craftsmanship of the early Edo era (1603-1889). You can amuse yourself throughout the four seasons with hiking in spring, camping in summer, viewing scarlet maple leaves in autumn and skiing in winter. The distance from Tokyo is about 145 Km.

Nikko's Natural Beauty

Due to Nikko's abundant fresh and clean water and sites showing the magnificence of nature, the area has been designated as a National Park. Scenes such as majestic Mt. Nantai looking over the still waters of Lake Chuzenji, Lake Yunoko secluded by dense woods, the wildlife of the Sugenuma marsh, the vast Senjogahara and Kirifuri plateaus, and the awe inspiring force of the Kegon waterfall are fascinating throughout the year.



Lake Yunoko



Iroha-Zaka

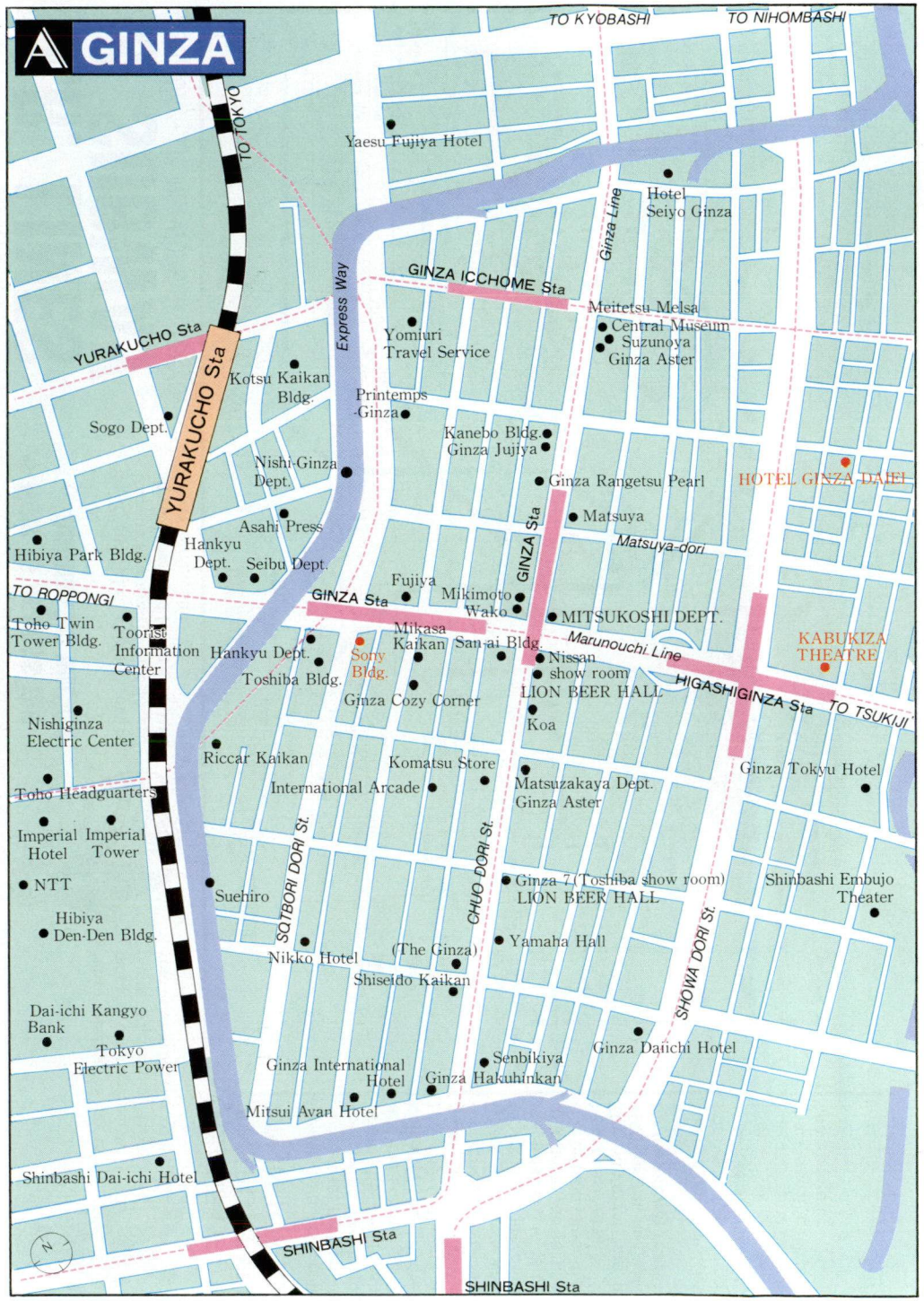
Kegon Waterfall

The Kegaon waterfalls is one of the most famous waterfalls in Japan. The sound of water falling 97 m from Lake Chuzenji into the basin with a terrific explosion is just overpowering. The waterfall can be seen from the top. However, descending to the basin by elevator and seeing it from the front is the most recommended way to enjoy this spectacle.

Iroha-zaka

A road connecting Umagaeshi and Lake Chuzenji, Iroha-zaka is composed of the No. 1 Iroha-zaka and No.2 Iroha-zaka having 48 curves altogether. No. 1 is for descending only, and No.2 for ascending. No. 1 Iroha-zaka presents a thrilling drive together with beautiful views of Hannya Waterfall and Hoto Waterfall. Both azaleas in spring and autumn leaves in fall are very impressive.

* Please confer p.31 for details.



Take the Keisei skyliner to Narita Airport

Comfortable access-right under the wings: ¥1,630



KEISEI SKYLINER

DOWN

	UENO	Nippori	Narita	Narita Airport
1	6:30	6:35	—	7:32
3	7:00	7:05	—	8:02
5	7:29	7:34	—	8:33
	○7:30	7:35	—	8:32
7	8:00	8:05	—	9:08
9	8:40	8:45	9:36	9:45
11	9:20	9:25	10:15	10:24
13	10:00	10:05	10:54	11:03
15	10:40	10:45	11:34	11:43
17	11:20	11:25	12:14	12:23
19	12:00	12:05	12:54	13:03
21	12:40	12:45	13:34	13:43
23	13:20	13:25	14:14	14:23
25	14:00	14:05	14:54	15:03
27	14:40	14:45	—	15:42
29	15:20	15:25	—	16:22
31	16:00	16:05	—	17:02
33	16:40	16:45	—	17:43
35	17:20	17:25	—	18:23
37	18:00	18:05	—	19:05
51	(E)18:40	18:46	19:43	19:52
53	(E)19:20	19:26	20:25	20:33
55	(E)20:00	20:06	21:03	21:12
57	(E)21:00	21:06	22:03	—
59	(E)22:00	22:06	23:03	—

UP

	Narita Airport	Narita	Nippori	UENO
50		(M) 6:03	7:07	7:12
	○(M) 7:15	7:25	8:25	8:30
52	(M) 7:50	8:00	9:05	9:10
	○(M) 7:52	8:02	9:01	9:06
54	(M) 8:35	8:44	9:46	9:51
	○(M) 8:41	8:50	9:46	9:51
2	9:20	—	10:18	10:23
4	10:00	—	10:57	11:02
6	10:40	—	11:37	11:42
8	11:20	—	12:17	12:22
10	12:00	12:09	12:58	13:03
12	12:40	12:49	13:38	13:43
14	13:20	13:29	14:18	14:23
16	14:00	14:09	14:58	15:03
18	14:40	14:49	15:38	15:43
20	15:20	15:29	16:18	16:23
22	16:00	16:09	16:59	17:04
24	16:32	16:41	17:31	17:36
26	16:56	17:07	17:58	18:03
28	17:30	17:39	18:29	18:34
30	18:00	18:09	18:58	19:03
32	18:40	—	19:37	19:42
34	19:20	—	20:17	20:22
36	20:00	—	20:56	21:01
38	20:40	—	21:36	21:41
40	21:15	—	22:11	22:16
42	22:00	—	22:56	23:01

(E) Evening Liner
(M) Morning Liner
> Stop at Nippori, Aoto. Yachiyodai, Sakura, and Narita.

○ For holidays the schedule is as follows.In addition Limited-express and express are avaiable.

- ¥1,630—Fare ¥910, Liner Ticket ¥720
- Both in coming and outbound Skyliner make a stop at Nippori station.
- 2, 4, 6 and 8 are no-smoking cars.
- All reserved seats.
  Express ticket will be sold from one month ahead at Keisei Travel, Keisei Ueno Information Bureau, Japan Travel Bureau, and other major travel agencies.
- Limited Express trains will be operated.
  Takes 72 minutes. Be operated at 20 minute intervals. Fare ¥910

★ 61 minutes from Ueno, 56 minutes from Nippori Operated in every 30 to 40 minutes
(Limited-expresses also largely increased : operated every 20 minutes)



Keisei

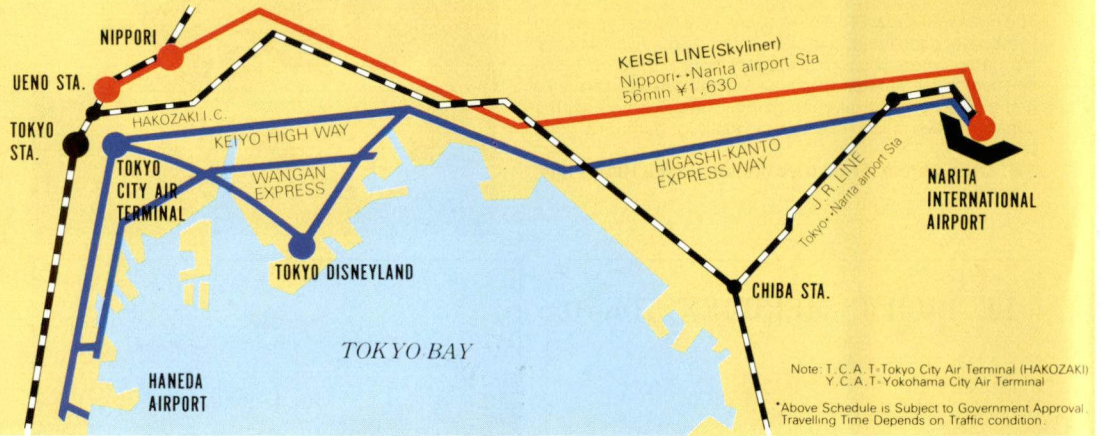
For further information, call03-3831-0131
(9:00am-6:00pm)

TRANSPORTATION TO & FROM NARITA

1. People going to and from Downtown Tokyo should use the following transportation which departs from the first floor of the terminal building:
   - Airport Limousine Bus to Downtown Tokyo
   - Terminal Bus to Keisei Airport Station
   - J.R Bus to J.R.Narita Station
   - Taxis and Hires
2. Check in counters of all airlines are seperately located at the South and Nouth Wing. Passengers are Kindly requested to confirm their flights at the check-in counter. You can go directly to the basement floor at the center of the north and south wings to get on the Keisei Skyliner.

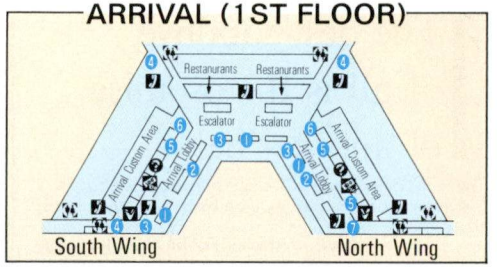


NARITA TEMPLE



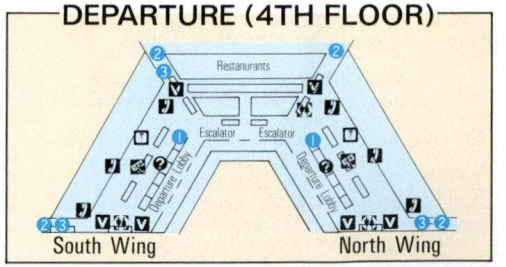
AIRPORT TERMINAL BUILDING

ARRIVAL (1ST FLOOR)



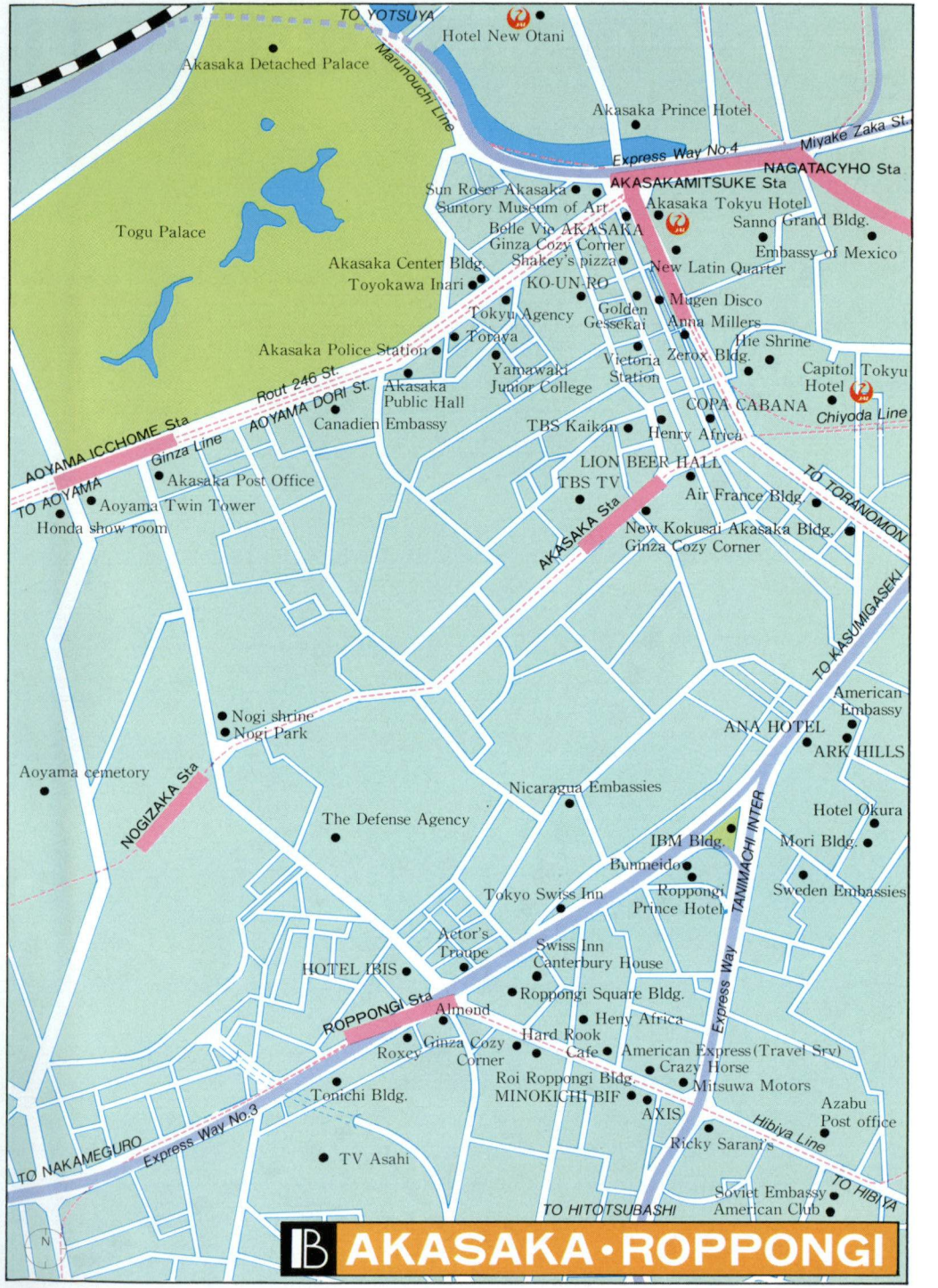
1. Keisei Information Counter
2. To Narita Airport Station
3. Pick-Up Service Counter for Baggage
4. Cloak Room
5. Poters
6. Taxable Baggage Counters
7. Domestic Check-in Counters

DEPARTURE (4TH FLOOR)

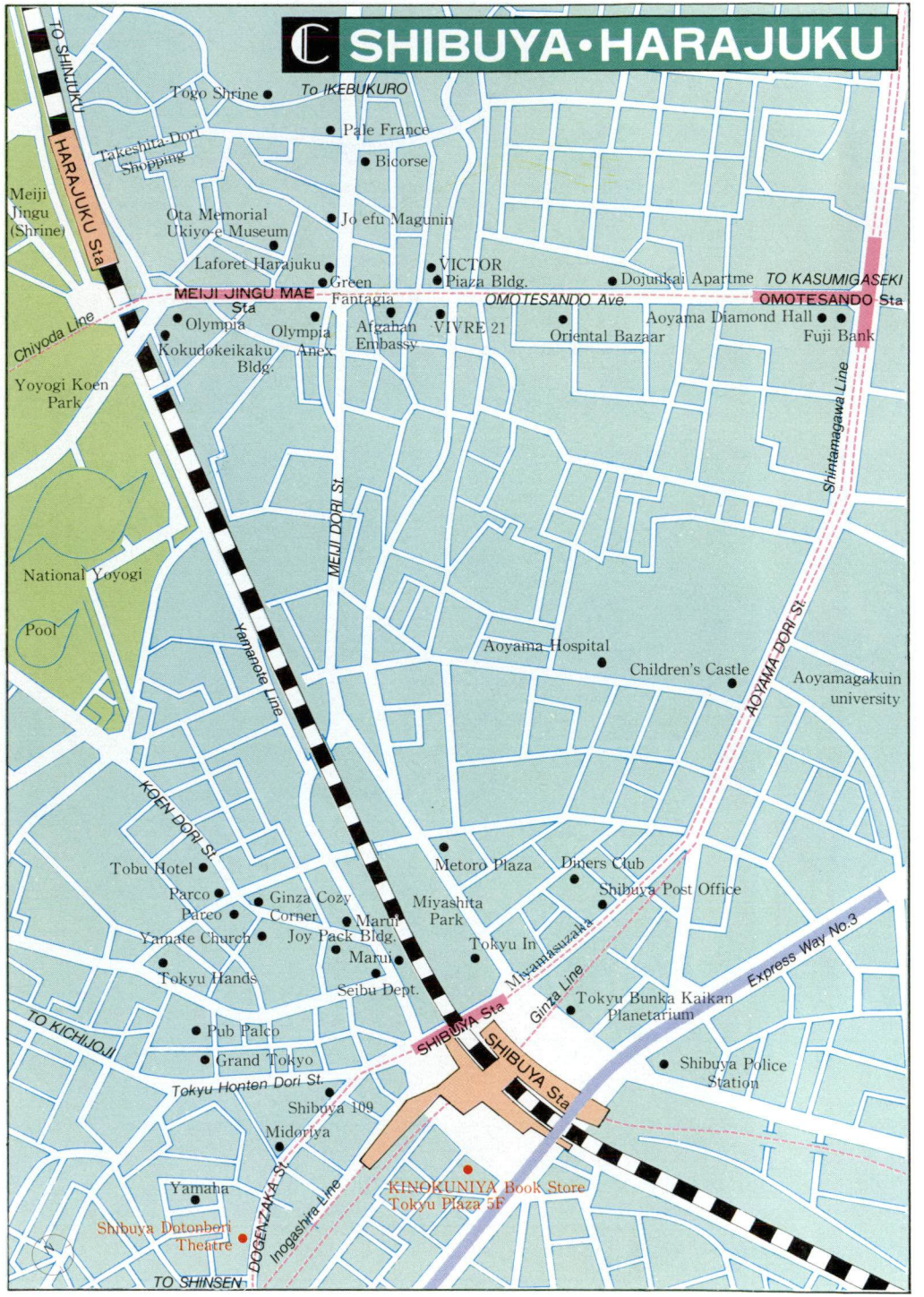


1. Check-in Counters
2. Pick-Up Service Counter for Baggage
3. Cloak Room

Information Counter | Rest Room | Money Exchange | Public Telephoes | Charged Waiting Room | Post Office



B AKASAKA・ROPPONGI



ZOOM UP FESTIVAL

Fantastic Japan

11th/23th Tori-no-ichi at Otori Shrine



The most well-known Tori-no-ichi, or a rake market (rakes are symbols of good luck), is the one at Otori Shrine in Asakusa. No matter where you turn in the precincts of the shrine, you see booths decorated with various kinds of rakes on sale. Like just as we use real rakes to gather leaves and grass, the Japanese see these rakes as symbolic of gathering good fortune.

*** At Otori Shrine. From Iriya station on the Hibiya line, subway.**

3rd Shirasagi-no-mai at Sensoji Temple
AM 11:00—PM 1:00
This is a folk dance originally intended for celebration of a good rice crop.
Eight maidens, put on hoods and wings, perform a dance like egrets.

November



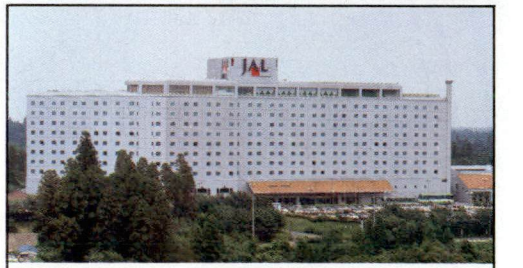
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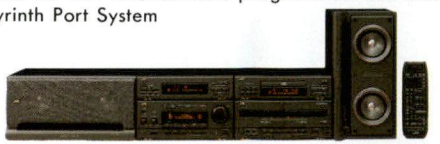
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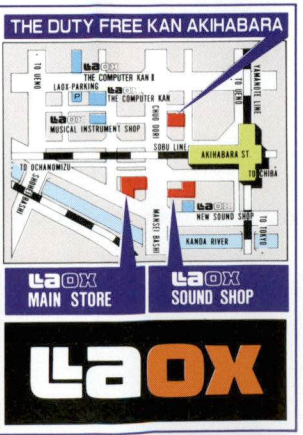
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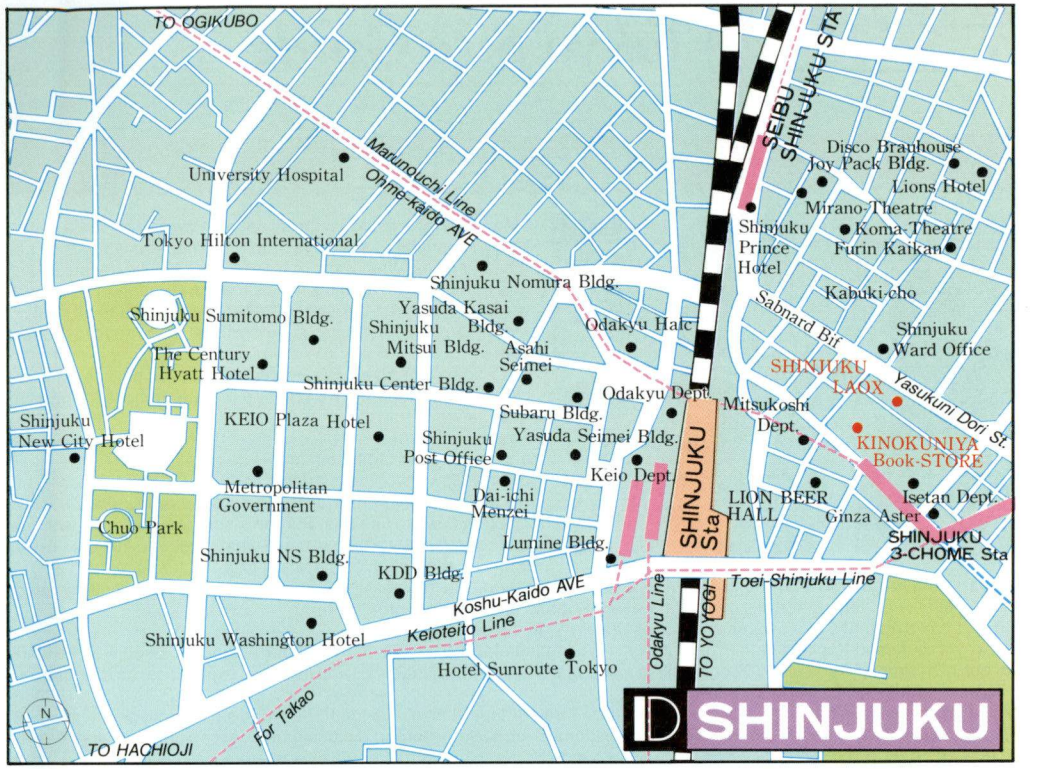
LAOX SOUND SHOP
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PHONE 03-3255-5481
15-3, Sotokanda 1-Chome, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo.

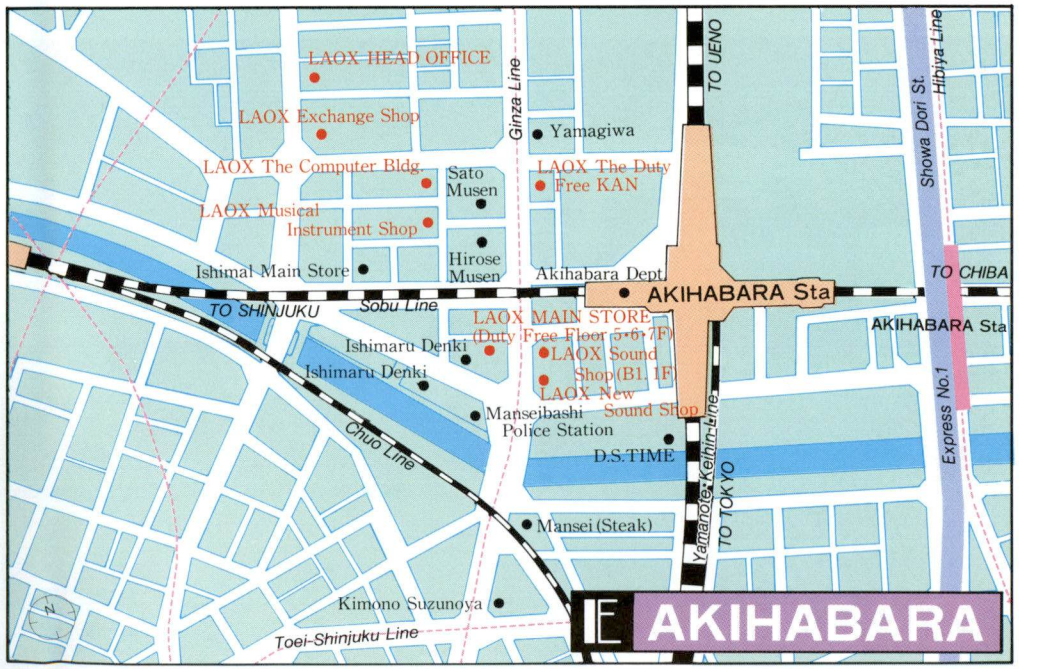
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Little Tehran



*Many Iranians gather in the streets of Yoyogi Park in Harajuku. Many Japanese passersbys stop for a moment when they see these Iranians. What is the reason for this? Maybe because Allah (the Iran power) is abiding? This situation is widely spreading at Narita Airport and throughout other regional cities as well.
More than 30,000 Iranians have immigrated to Japan in the past year.
*In Tokyo you can earn in 3 months what you earn in 10 years over in Iran. Recently we can see more and more Iranians all over Japan.
Restaurant owners in Tokyo all say that these Iranians come up and ask them, "Does this meal use pork?"
Being followers of the Islamic faith, they avoid having pork, but we Japanese are perplexed to see such behaviors since we have no such custom like this. Rumor is spreading all over their native country that "You can make what takes you 10 years in Iran in only 3 months over there in Tokyo."
Thus naturally they leave for Japan dreaming of a wealthy nation. The Iranians who came here last year speak no Japanese nor English, so they gather at Yoyogi Park every Sunday to exchange information.
In fact it is true that there are many Iranians unable to find jobs.
Nearly a thousand Iranians gather on Sundays, making the place just like a "Little Tehran," and the people do all kinds of business among themselves. People selling foods, books and reading materials and there are even those who open barber shops charging ¥1000 per person.
At sunset they leave the park to return home where three or four of them live together in one small room on the average. There are even those Iranians who accommodate themselves at Narita airport. That number is over a hundred, and at times it even goes up to about 400 as well. On the other hand, 652 Iranians were rejected by Immigrations at Narita airport which is 43 times greater than the previous year.



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* Based on internal and independently compiled data .

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Asakusa View Hotel	3847-1111
Akasaka Tokyu Hotel	3580-2311
Capital Tokyu Hotel	3581-4511
Dai-ichi Hotel Tokyo Bay	(0473)55-3333
Dai-ichi Hotel Shinbashi	3501-4111
Diamond Hotel	3263-2211
Fairmont Hotel	3262-1151
Gajoen Kanko Hotel	3491-0111
Ginza Dai-ichi Hotel	3542-5311
Ginza International Hotel	3574-1121
Ginza Nikko Hotel	3571-4911
Ginza Tokyu Hotel	3541-2411
Haneda Tokyu Hotel	3747-0311
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Holiday Inn Tokyo	3553-6161
Hotel Ginza Dai-ei	3545-1111
Hotel Dai-ei	3813-6271
Hotel Grand Palace	3264-1111
Hotel Ibis	3403-4411
Hotel Edmont	3237-1111
Hotel New Otani	3265-1111
Hotel Nikko Narita	(0476)32-0032
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Miyako Hotel Tokyo	3447-3111
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Narita Prince Hotel	(0476)33-1111
Narita View Hotel	(0476)32-1111
New Takanawa Prince Hotel	3442-1111
Palace Hotel	3211-5211
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Roppongi Prince Hotel	3587-1111
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Shiba Park Hotel	3433-4141
Shinagawa Prince Hotel	3440-1111
Shinjuku New City Hotel	3375-6511
Sunshine City Prince Hotel	3988-1111
Sunroute Plaza Tokyo	(0473)55-1111
Shinjuku Washington Hotel	3343-3111
TAkanawa Prince Hotel	3447-1111
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Tokyo Hotel Urashima	3533-3111
Tokyo Prince Hotel	3432-1111
Tokyo Station Hotel	3231-2511
Tokyo Hilton International	3344-5111
The Century Hyatt	3349-0111
Yaesu Fujiya Hotel	3273-2111

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Algenia	3711-2661
Aregentine	3592-0321
Apostolic Nunciature	3263-6851
Australia	5232-4008
Austria	3451-8281
Bangladesh	3442-1501
Belgium	3262-0191
Bolivia	3499-5441
Brazil	3404-5211
Bulgaria	3465-1021
Burma	3441-9291
Canada	3408-2101
Central Africa	5272-0011
Chile	3452-7561
China	3403-3380
Colombia	3440-6451
Costa Rica	3486-1812
Cote d'Ivore	3499-7021
Cuba	3449-7511
Czechoslovakia	3400-8122
Denmark	3496-3001
Dominican Republic	3499-6020
Ecuador	3499-2800
Egypt	3770-8022
El Salvador	3499-4461
Ethiopia	3718-1003
Fiji	3587-2038
Finland	3442-2231
France	3473-0171
Gobonese	3448-9540
Ghana	3409-3861
Greece	3403-0871
Guatemala	3400-1830
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Iraq	3423-1727
Ireland	3263-0695
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Italy	3453-5291
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Kenya	3479-4008
Korea	3452-7611
Kuwait	3455-0361
Laos	3778-1660
Lebanon	3580-1227
Liberia	3441-7138
Libva	3477-0701
Madagascar	3446-7252
Malaysia	3280-7601
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Mongol	3469-2088
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Nepal	3705-5558
Netherlands	3431-5126
New Zealand	3467-2271
Nicargua	3499-0400
Nigeria	3468-5531
Norway	3440-2611
Oman	3402-0877
Pakistan	3454-4861
Panama	3499-3741
Papua New Guinea	3454-7801
Paraguay	3447-7496
Peru	3406-4240
Philippines	3496-2731
Poland	3711-5224
Portugal	3400-7907
Qatar	3446-7561
Rumania	3479-0311
Rwanda	3486-7800
Saudi Arabia	3589-5241
Senegal	3464-8451
Singapore	3586-9111
Somali	3442-7138
Spain	3583-8531
Srilanka	3585-7431
Sudan	3406-0811
Sweden	3582-6981
Switzerland	3473-0121
Syrian	3586-8977
Tanzania	3425-4531
Thailand	3441-7352
Tunisia	3353-4111
Turkey	3470-5131
U.A.E.	3478-0659
Uganda	3469-3641
U.K.	3265-5511
Uruguay	3486-1888
U.S.A.	3224-5000
U.S.S.R.	3583-4224
Venezuela	3409-1501
Viet Nam	3466-3311
Yemen	3499-7151
Yugoslavia	3447-3571
Zaire	3423-3981
Zambia	3445-1041
Zimbabwe	3473-0266

AIRLINES

Aeroflot Soviet Airlines	3434-9681
Air Canada	3586-3891
Air France	3475-1511
Air India	3214-7631
Air New Zealand	3284-1291
Air Lanka	3573-4261
Alitalia	3580-2181
All Nippon Airways	3272-1212
American Air Lines	3214-2111
Austrian Airlines	3582-2231
British Airways	3593-8811
Canadian Pacific	3281-7426
Cathay Pacific	3504-1531
Civil Aviation of China	3436-1661
Continental Airline	3214-2623
Delta Airlines	3213-8781
Egipt Air	3211-4521
Finnair	3222-6801
Garuda	3593-1181
Iran Air	3586-2101
Iraq Airways	3264-5501
Japan Air Lines	3457-1111
Japan Air System	3432-6111
Japan Asia Airways	3455-7511
K.L.M.	3216-0771
Korean Airlines	3211-3311
Lot Polish	3437-5741
Lufthansa	3580-2111
Malaysian Airline	3503-5961
Northwest Orient	3432-6000
Pakistan Int'l	3216-6511
P.A.A.	3508-2211
Philippine Airlines	3593-2421
Qantas	3593-7000
Sabena	3585-6151
Scandinavian Airlines	3503-8101
Singapore Airlines	3213-3431
South Africa Airways	3470-1901
Swissair	3212-1011
Thai Airways Int'l	3503-3311
Transworld Airlines	3212-1477
United Airlines	3817-4411
Varig	3435-8330
Yugoslav Airlines	3434-3843
Czechoslovakia Air Lines	3409-7414

MUSEUMS & THEATERS

Idemitsu Museum of Arts	3213-9402
Kabuki-za	3545-1551
Ginza Noh Theater	3571-6572
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Suidobashi Noh Theater	3811-4843

FOREIGN BANKS

American Express Banking Int'l	3595-4571
Banca Commerciale Italiana	3242-3521
Banco do Brasil	3213-6511
Bangkok Bank	3503-3333
Bank Indonesia	3271-3415
Bank of America	3587-3111
Bank of New Zealand	3291-5651
Bank of Tokyo	3245-1111
Marunouchi Office	3211-2471
Haneda Office	3747-7831
Banque National de Paris	3214-2881
Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce	3595-1531
Chase Manhattan Bank	3470-8197
Chemical Bank	3214-1351
Citibank	3299-3141
Westpac Banking Corp	3501-4101

JAPANESE HERO

Sumo, the all-time national sport of Japan, has recently become particularly popular. Many people gather around the T.V. to watch the sumo broadcasting from around 5:30 P.M., bringing the audience rating up as high as 41%. The cause for this fever is a young sumo wrestler called Takahanada only 18 years of age.
So great is the Takahanada fever all over Japan that it even made the AP Press wire the news overseas.
He's even gained almost 30 kg. in the last few months and improved his techniques as well.

He is showing himself to be quite fast often knocking out the Yokozuna (Grand Champion Wrestler) and Ohzeki (2nd highest ranking wrestler to Yokozuna) one after the other in succession. He's surely an elite and ace wrestler in the Sumo world. Perhaps soon we might even see him become the future Yokozuna?
Several companies want him to appear on their commercials but the Sumo Association won't consent, putting the appearance fee as high as ¥300 million as a result.
The photograph shows Takahanada, Brooke Shields and other celebrities and sports personalities greeting Soviet President Gorbachev at the World Children Festival.



Schedule:
- Tokyo Autumn Tournament at Ryogoku Kokugikan (National Sport Hall) Sept. 8-22
- Kyushu Tournament at Fukuoka International Center Nov. 10-24

•Photo by Daily Yomiuri

ZOOM UP TOPICS

Latest News Topics within



Information

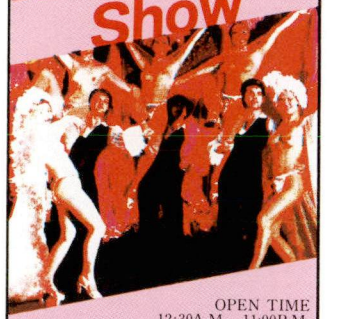
Restaurant guide

NAME	SEAT	PHONE
ISLE DE FRANCE (FRENCH)	ROPPONGI	3404-0384
AUX SIX ARBRES (FRENCH)	ROPPONGI	3479-2888
L'ECRIN (FRENCH)	GINZA	3561-9706
CRESCENT (FRENCH)	SHIBAKOEN	3436-3211
MAXIM'S DE PARIS (FRENCH)	GINZA	3572-3621
MADAME TOKI (FRENCH)	SHIBUYA	3464-9777
RENGAYA (FRENCH)	SETAGAYA	3417-2212
BISTRO DE LA CITE	NISHI-AZABU	3406-5475
OPERA (ITALIAN)	ROPPONGI	3423-4400
FIGARO (BISTRO)	NISHI-AZABU	3400-8718
HUNGLY TIGER (ITALIAN)	ROPPONGI	3470-1971
SABATINI (ITALIAN)	KITA AOYAMA	3402-3782
MADAME TOKI (FRENCH)	ROPPONGI	3461-2263
ASHOKA (INDIAN)	GINZA	3572-2377
SERINA (STEAK)	ROPPONGI	3403-6211
TOKYO KAIKAN (WESTERN)	MARUNO-UCHI	3215-2111
SHISEN HANTEN (CHINESE)	ROPPONGI	3402-3465
JADE GARDEN (CHINESE)	SHINBASHI	3431-6701
HAIWHAN (JAPANESE)	AKASAKA	3586-5666
ROGAIRO (CHINESE)	AKASAKA	3585-1231
WANFU (CHINESE)	NISHI-SHINBASHI	3433-3751
KITCHO (JAPANESE)	GINZA	3541-8228
KISSO (JAPANESE)	ROPPONGI	3582-4191
TSURUNOYA (JAPANESE)	GINZA	3571-1353
TSUTANOYA (JAPANESE)	ARAKICHO	3351-2535
ZAKURO (JAPANESE)	NIHONBASHI	3271-3791
ZAKURO (JAPANESE)	KYOBASHI	3563-5031
SUEHIRO (SUKIYAKI)	GINZA	3571-0950
MAYA (SHABUSHABU)	SHINBASHI	3591-0633
MIMIU (UDONSUKI)	KYOBASHI	3567-6571
TONKI (TONKATSU)	MEGURO	3491-9928
TORICHO (YAKITORI)	ROPPONGI	3401-1827
GANCHAN (YAKITORI)	ROPPONGI	3478-0092
KOMAGATA (DOJO)	KOMAGATA	3842-4001

NAME	SEAT	PHONE
MOMONJA (BOAR)	RYOGOKU	3631-5596
INAGIKU (TEMPURA)	KAYABACHO	3669-5501
TENICHI (TEMPURA)	GINZA	3571-1949
EDOGIN (SUSHI)	TSUKIJI	35434401
NAKATA (SUSHI)	GINZA	3571-0063
NAKATA (SUSHI)	IMPERIAL HOTEL	3503-6026
SUSHIKO (SUSHI)	GINZA	3571-6220
SARASHINA (SOBA)	AZABU-JUBAN	3585-1676
SUNABA (SOBA)	MUROMACHI	3241-4038
YABUSOBA (SOBA)	AWAJICHO	3251-0287
HANNYA-EN	TSUKIJI	3441-1256
MIYAGAWA (UNAGI)	TSUKIJI	3541-1292
TACOYA (JAPANESE)	SHIBUYA	3408-8080
SHIYON (JAPANESE)	ROPPONGI	3423-0344
SEIZAN (JAPANESE)	GINZA	3562-5621
SAKANAYA (JAPANESE)	ROPPONGI	3423-2850
OTOWATEI (YAKITORI)	ROPPONGI	3405-0966
ICCHO (JAPANESE)	SHIBUYA	3400-8870
YOSHIDA (JAPANESE)	GINZA	3567-8090
FUJINO (JAPANESE)	SHIBUYA	3407-3668
YUZUTEI (SASHIMI)	NISHIAZABU	3408-3578
INANIWA (NOODLES)	NISHIAZABU	3401-4966
ABURAYA (NOODLES)	ROPPONGI	3405-0880
SUSHI (SUSHI)	ASAKUSA	3841-1604
NEGIBOZU (TEMPURA)	MINAMI-AZABU	3442-8858
SOHO (CHINESE)	ROPPONGI	3405-4048
GAIENHANTEN (CHINESE)	AOYAMA	3478-0615
RORAN (CHINESE)	GINZA	3575-0787
RIDE (FRENCH)	SHIBAURA	3453-1369
UNO (FRENCH)	NISHIAZABU	3403-4023
NAGE (FENCH)	GINZA	3571-6794



Exciting Strip Show

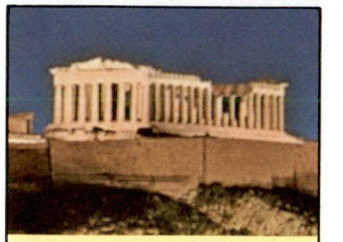


OPEN TIME
12:30A.M.—11:00P.M.
(OPEN DAILY)
¥3,500 PER PERSON

reservation office

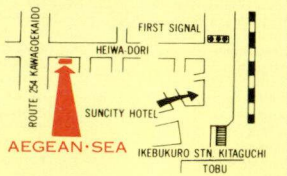
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Bunraku: "Yoshitsune Senbonzakura"

September 5—23

Bunraku: Part 1/Part 2 "Yoshitsune Senbonzakura

Bunraku is a form of traditional Japanese theater with three puppeteers responsible for manipulating a variety of puppets on stage and has gained popularity among both Japanese and Western audiences. Earphones available for English explanations.

This month's program is the above "Yoshitsune Senbonzakura" straight through both parts 1 and 2.

Curtain times: Part 1 : 11:00 A.M.
Part 2 : 4:00 P.M.

Admission: ¥4,800, ¥4,000

October 5—27

Kabuki: "Oomi Genji Senjin-yakata" "Sumidagawa", "Yowanasake ukina no yokogushi"

For the October program, please enjoy he above three plays—a representative authentic work, a refined and graceful dance and a famous realistic play—which play-lovers should never miss, to be performed in commemoration of the 25th anniversary of the National Theater.

Major Performers:
Utaemon, Uzaemon, Shikan, Kohshiroo and others

Curtain times:
12:00 Noon on Sun., Mon., Wed. & Thu,; 17:00 on Tue. & Fri.

Admission: ¥7,800, ¥4,800, ¥2,700, ¥1,300

November 4—26

Kabuki: "Yoshitsune Senbonzakura Part 1"

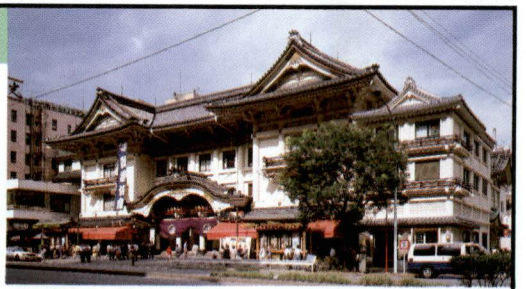
As a special program in commemoration of the 25th anniversary of the National Theater, the whole play of "Yoshitsune Senbonzakura" will be presented for the November and December performances. For November, the first part up to the fourth act will be performed. We are sure you can count on enjoying yourselves greatly!

Major Performers:
Jakuemon, Tomijuuro, Danjuuro and others

Curtain times:
12:00 Noon on Sun., Mon., Wed., Thu. and Closing Day; 4:00 P.M. on Tue. and Fri.; 11:00 A.M. and 5:00 P.M. on Sat.

Admission: ¥7,800, ¥4,800, ¥2,700, ¥1,300

KABUKI-ZA THEATER



These Japanese characters for the name of the theatre are used in a style unique to Kabuki

Kabuki is traditional Japanese theatre that has developed over the past 400 years and represents an extremely high level of stylistic beauty. If you are in Tokyo this autumn don't miss an opportunity to enjoy these uniquely entertaining Kabuki performances.

Address: 15-12-4 Ginza, Chuo-ku, Tokyo
Tel.: (03) 3541-3131

For a very slight fee, Kabuki-za Theatre provides earphones for explanations in English that will allow overseas visitors to achieve a deep understanding of the performance.

Sept. 1—25

Kabuki:
Daytime:
"Juugoya Monogatari "Michiyuki Ukine no Tomodori" "Tamamono Mae Asahi no Tamoto" "Iromoyo Chotto Karimame"
Evening:
"Keisei Hangonkoo" "Shima no Senzai" "Kairaishi" "Banzui Chobei"

The September program of the Kabuki-za Theater offers a spectacle performance for the Grand Kabuki such as the 17th Memorial Performance for Bandoh Mitsugoro VIII, novel and original dances, famous works and so on. Don't miss it!

Major Performers:
Baiko, Shikan, Kichiemon, Uzaemon, Tamasaburo and others

Curtain times: Daytime: 11:00 A.M.
Evening: 4:30 P.M.

Admission: ¥13,500, ¥8,500, ¥4,000, ¥2000

October

Art Festival — Grand Kabuki & Performance

For the October program, enthusiastic works both new and classic will be presented. In our daytime performance, Kichiemon, Danjuuro and Jakuemon will appear. In our evening performance, Ennosuke will present himself. We are sure you can count on enjoying your selves!

Major Performers:
Kichiemon, Danjuuro, Jakuemon Ennosuke and others

Curtain times: Daytime: 11:00 A.M.
Evening: 4:30 P.M.

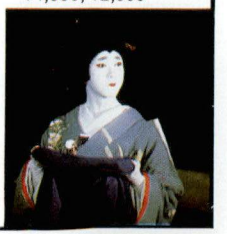
Admission: ¥13,500, ¥8,500, ¥4,000, ¥2,000

November

The Annual All-Star Cast Grand Kabuki Please enjoy the splendid presentation of an entire cast of Kabuki stars in performance

Curtain Times: Daytime: 11:00 A.M.
Evening: 4:30 P.M.

Admission: ¥13,500, ¥8,500, ¥4,000, ¥2,000



the last 3 months in Japan

VOLGANIC ERUPTION

On May 24 in Nagasaki prefecture, the greatest volcanic eruption in Japan of Unzen and Fugen Mountains caused many casualties, more than 20 wounded and 29 missing with its exrupting lava.

We haven't had any casualties due to volcanic activities for the last 12 years, and what is more is that this time we suffered the hot bursting stream of lava ash and hot gas at the same time as well.

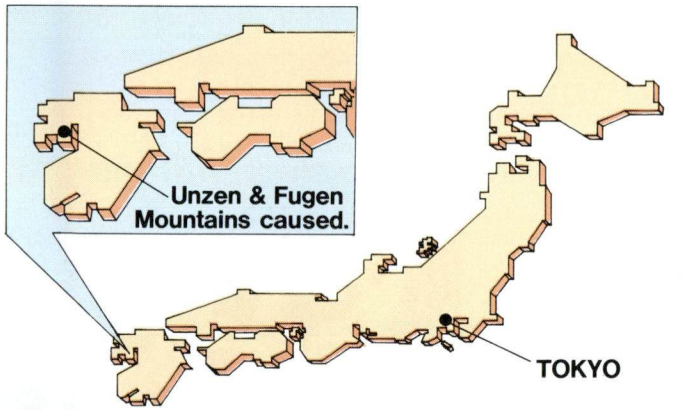
This hot stream had swallowed up two districts at a maximum speed of 150 km. per hour, putting forests and houses on fire.

In the vicinity of these districts, 1090 households and approximately 4200 citizens were affected.

Because the local weather bureau was unable to warn the citizens in the area before the hot stream gushed into the residential districts, many people were lost and injured.

Several days later, heavy rain cuased damage due to avalanches of earth and rocks from the rivers such as Mizunashi-gawa.

At the same time, Mt. Pinatuvo in the central part of Luzon Island of the Philippines, erupted to such a degree as to be considered one of the greatest of the century, causing casualties and damages amounting up to 3% of the national budget. The humber of death casualties have reached more than 400 people and it has also caused a great increase in unemployment and lack of external aid and assistance. The smoke gushing out from the volcanoes are spreading throughout a wide area, bringing about concerns as to global environmental pollution.



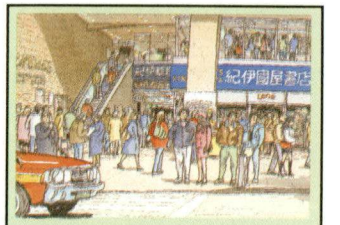
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•*Photo by Daily Yomiuri*



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Ikebana Sixth World Convention



The First World Convention of Ikebana International was held in Tokyo in 1965. Since that time, we have held a World Convention in Japan every five years. In 1986 the Fifth World Convention was held in Kyoto at the Kyoto International Conference Hall with the theme "The History of Ikebana." The convention attracted 800 members from 33 countries and was a great success.

Oct. 3 ~ 7
Demonstrations: NHK Hall
Oct. 3 ~ 8
Exhibition: Seibu Department Store, Shibuya Branch
Ticket: ¥500

Sponsor: IKEBANA INTERNATIONAL
(Non Profit Organization)
Phone: 03-3293-8188

Return Performance of Mimicrych

(Mime & Gag performance)

Mimicrych who had brought about a new and sensational storm of laughter is coming to Japan again. Having won grand prize at the 1st International Variety Contest held in January this year in Stuttgart, Germany, Mimicrych has now become so popular as the hottest celebrity in Europe. This year's performance will be an even more exciting stage with new additions to the program.

Date: Oct. 25 (Fri) 7:00 p.m.
Oct. 26 (Sat) 2:00 p.m./7:00 p.m.
Oct. 27 (Sun) 1:00 p.m./6:00 p.m.
Place: Laforet Museum Harajuku
Fee: ¥4,300 in advance/¥4,800 at the door



An International Soccer Tournament Presenting Excellent Performance and Fine Play!

WORLD TOKAI MASTERS

European Team VS South American Team

Commemorating its third year, former World Cup participants will all get together at this Soccer Tournament to present an exciting and enthusiastic game.

The European team which had lost twice in the past will come with additional members in hopes of achieving victory this time.



ROSSI (Itali)



SOCRATES (Brazil)



Date:
Oct. 6 (Sun) 13: 00 Kickoff
Place:
Tokyo National Stadium
(Sendagaya Station)

Admission ticket : S seats ¥6,000; SA seats ¥4,000; A seats ¥2,500; A seats (junior high students) ¥1,500; A seats (elementary students) ¥1,000
*However, advance tickets have a ¥500 discount. Ticket sold at : Ticket-pia, Ticket-Saison, CN-Playguide, Marui Ticket Guide, Daily Sports Sports Service Center, Bunka Broadcasting Station Ticket Port
Ask: Tokyo(03)3665-4760

TICKET PRESENT!

Send Your Postcard to: Nichido Kikaku Co., Ltd:
JOYFUL TOKYO Ticket present application, Houkoku Bldg., 3-11-13. Iidabashi, Chiyoda-ku, 〒102

A Round of the FORMULA 1 WORLD CHAMPIONSHIP

FUJI TELEVISION JAPANESE GRAND PRIX SUZUKA 18.19.20 OCTOBER 1991



How will the hot and bitter competion between Mancel of Williams-Rou-neaux and Ileton Cena of McLaren Honda as well as their drivers' points turn out?

Will our Japanese team drivers Satoru Nakajima and Aguri Suzuki be able to make a come back?

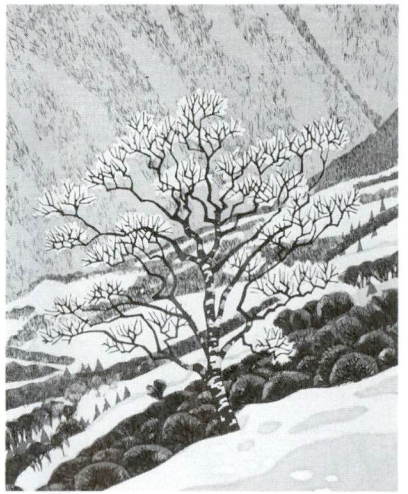
At last year's Japan Grand Prix, our Aguri Suzuki did his best to win third prize, the highest award ever for any Japanese driver to have received in the past.

Schedule: Oct. 18 (Fri) Formula 1 Official Preliminaries 13:00—14:00
Oct. 19 (Sat) Formula 1 Official Preliminaries 13:00—14:00
Oct. 20 (Sun) Formula 1 Finals 13:00—

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College Women's Association of Japan (CWAJ)



36th Print Show

It is with great pride that the College Women's Association of Japan (CWAJ) presents the annual exhibition and sale of prints by contemporary artists in Japan. This Print Show features signed, limited editions of 233 printed works on paper in all mediums by 184 Japanese and foreign artists. This year's Print Show selection committee chose the works from 657 prints submitted by over 300 artists. Artists who are internationally recognized as well as first-time participants have submitted works presenting an enormous variety of styles, themes and techniques of contemporary Japanese print making.

The show is open to the public, free of charge, and will be held: 11:00 am — 7:00 pm on Friday, October 18 and Saturday, October 19, and from 11:00 am — 5:00 pm on Sunday, October 20, 1991.
Located at the Tokyo American Club, Fourth Floor, 2-1-2 Azabudai, Minato-ku, Tokyo. The nearest subway station is Kamiyacho on the Hibiya Line, exit 2.

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ZOOM UP SPORTS

Sports Information

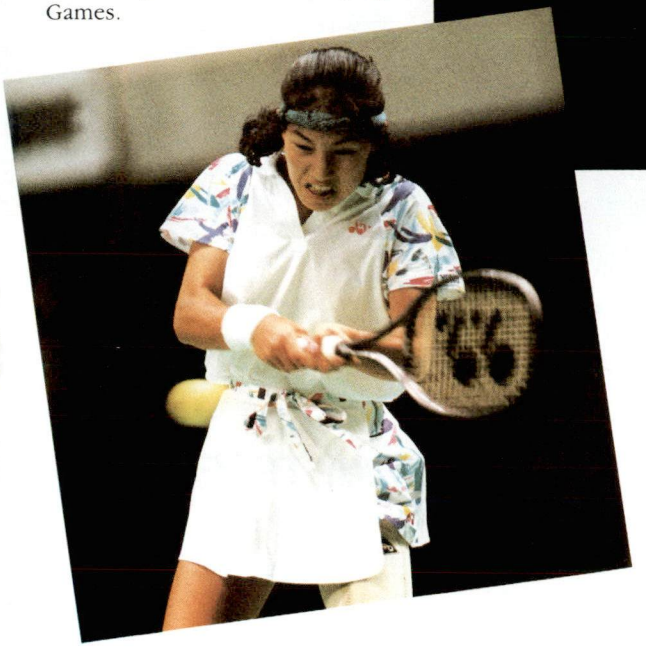
Sergei Bubka (pole jump)



Profile: Born in USSR on December 4, 1963. Aged 27. Height 183 cm, weight 80 kg.

He is a gold medalist from the Seoul Olympic Games, the often set new world records like the birdman that his nickname is. Last year he was not in a good condition, but this year he cleared the recorded 6.12 m in the indoor games defeating his rival Gataurin (USSR) by a wide margin. Also in the indoor games as well, he marked a world record of 6.07 m at the Shizuoka Tournament, and he set a new record at to 6.09 m at the Europe Tournament that followed immediately.

His wife was formerly a practician of New Gymnastics, and they are the typical parents of two children. Great hopes are expected of him in the next year's Barcelona Olympic Games.



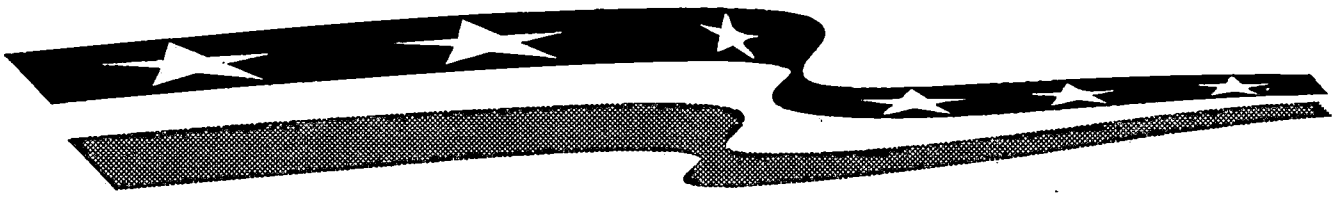
Kimiko Date (tennis)

She was a non-seed, and went on to the finals of the Virginia Slims Tennis Tournament at Los Angeles. The opponent at the semi-finals was Gabriela Sabatini, second seed, and she lost in the first set but won the second and third sets, obtaining a ticket to the finals.

The following day she competed with Monica Seles, first seed, but lost in the game by 6—3 and 6—1. She nevertheless showed an inspiring achievement after a long time on the Japanese circuit, and improved her world ranking to 32nd from the 112th position.

Presidential Preadvance to the Far East

October 1991



Notes on Gifts and Customs

Gifts

As set forth in 22 CFR Part 3, the Foreign Gifts Act specifies that employees and members of their families may accept and retain a gift tendered as a souvenir or mark of courtesy from foreign governments or their representatives if it is of "minimal value," which is currently defined as a retail value in the United States, at the time of acceptance, of $140 or less. However, an employee may accept a gift valued at over $140 only if to refuse it "would likely cause offense or embarrassment or otherwise adversely affect the foreign relations of the United States," and even then such a gift is deemed to have been accepted on behalf of the United States and, upon acceptance, becomes the property of the United States. Any such gift must, within 60 days after acceptance, either be deposited for disposal with the recipient's employing agency, or, subject to the approval of the employing agency, deposited with that agency for official use. For Department of State employees, the depositary is the Office of Protocol.

The Attorney General may bring a civil action in the U.S. District Court against any employee who knowingly has solicited or accepted a gift from a foreign government not consented to by the revised statute, or who has failed to deposit or report such a gift as the law requires. A penalty may be assessed in such a case in any amount not to exceed the retail value of the gift improperly solicited or received plus $5,000.

Customs

Everyone will be expected to fill out a customs declaration form to be returned to the steward just prior to returning to a U.S. point of entry. You will need to note on the declaration when:

- The total fair retail value of articles acquired abroad exceeds $400, or if acquired in American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands, $800.
- More than 1 liter (33.8 fl. oz.) of alcoholic beverages, 200 cigarettes, or more than 100 cigars are included. Or if returning from American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands: more than 4 liters (135.2 fl. oz.) of alcoholic beverages, 100 cigars, and 1,000 cigarettes.
- Some of the items are not intended for your personal or household use, such as commercial samples, items for sale or use in your business, or articles you are bringing home for another person.
- Articles acquired in the U.S. Virgin Islands, American Samoa, or Guam are being sent to the United States.

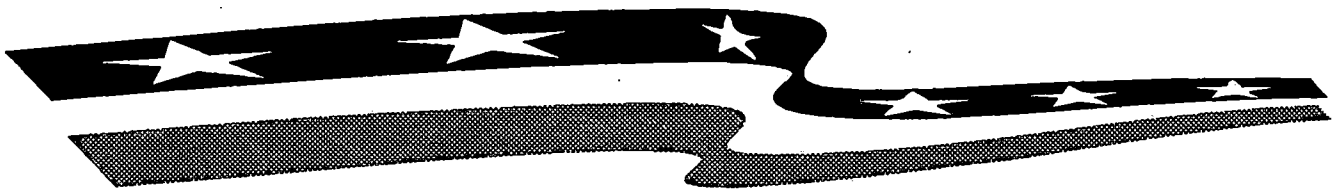
- A customs duty or internal revenue tax is collectible on any article in your possession.

Note: "Courtesy of Port" does not mean you do not have to fill out a declaration or that you will not have to pay customs duty. Your declarations will be reviewed by customs officials at the U.S. point of entry and you will be billed for any dutiable items purchased.

Prohibited and Restricted Articles

Some items must meet certain requirements, require a license or permit, or may be prohibited entry. Among these are:

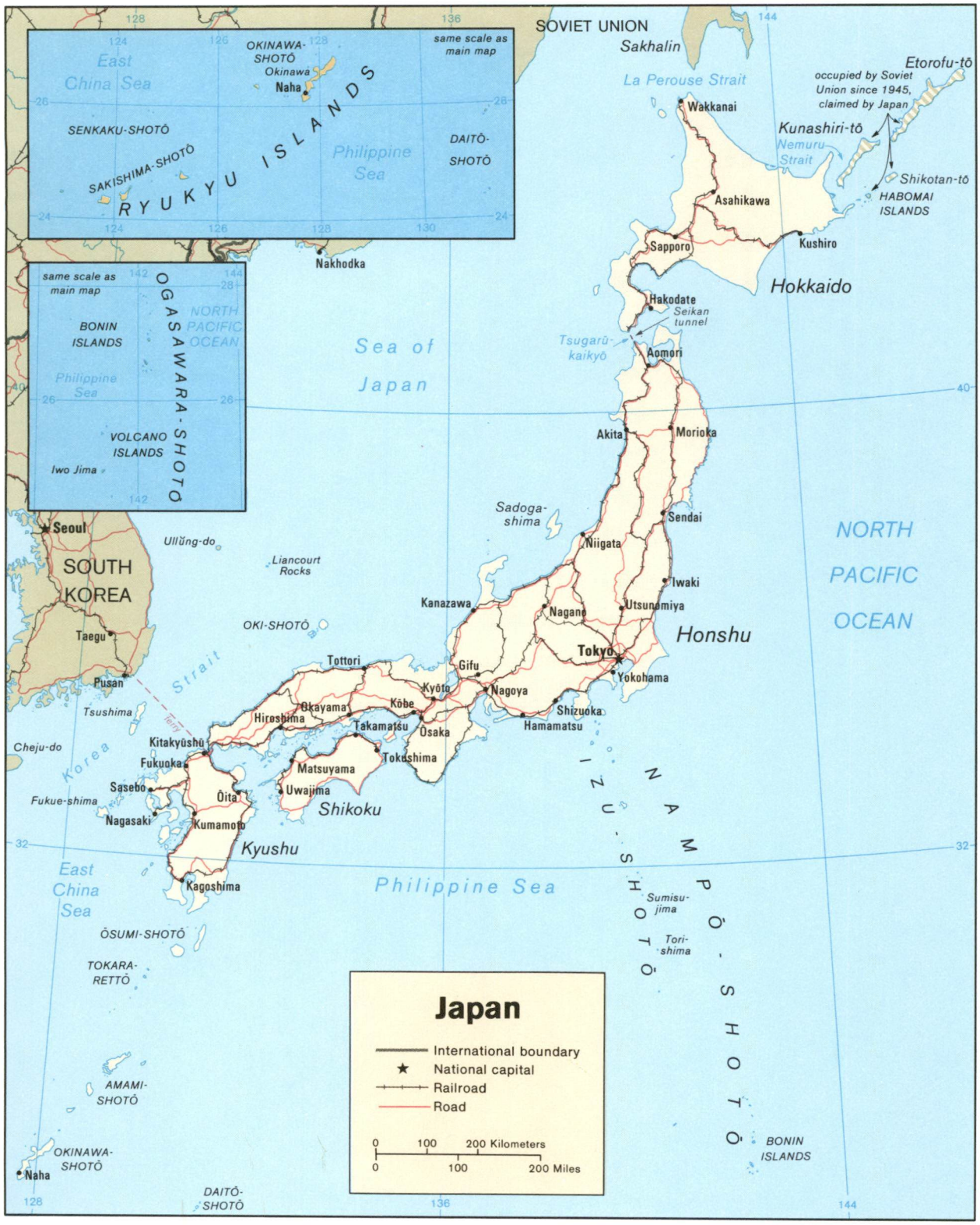
- Absinthe
- Biological material
- Books protected by American copyright if unauthorized foreign reprints
- Candy, liquor-filled
- Copies of gold coins if not properly marked
- Electronic products subject to radiation emission standards
- Firearms and ammunition
- Food, drugs, and certain other items not approved by FDA
- Fruits, plants, vegetables and their products
- Hazardous articles (e.g., fireworks, dangerous toys, toxic or poisonous substances)
- Lottery tickets
- Meats, poultry, and products (e.g., sausage, pate, canned items)
- Motor vehicles not conforming to safety and emission standards
- Narcotics and dangerous drugs including medicine containing same
- Objects of Central and South American pre-Columbian Indian cultures
- Obscene articles and publications
- Pets (e.g., dogs, birds, turtles, monkeys)
- Seditious or treasonable matter
- Trademarked items (e.g., certain cameras, watches, perfumes)
- Switchblade knives
- Wildlife (birds, fish, animals) and endangered and protected species (e.g., pheasants; furskin; feathers, eggs, or skins of wild birds; articles from reptile skins, ivory, and whalebone).



Time

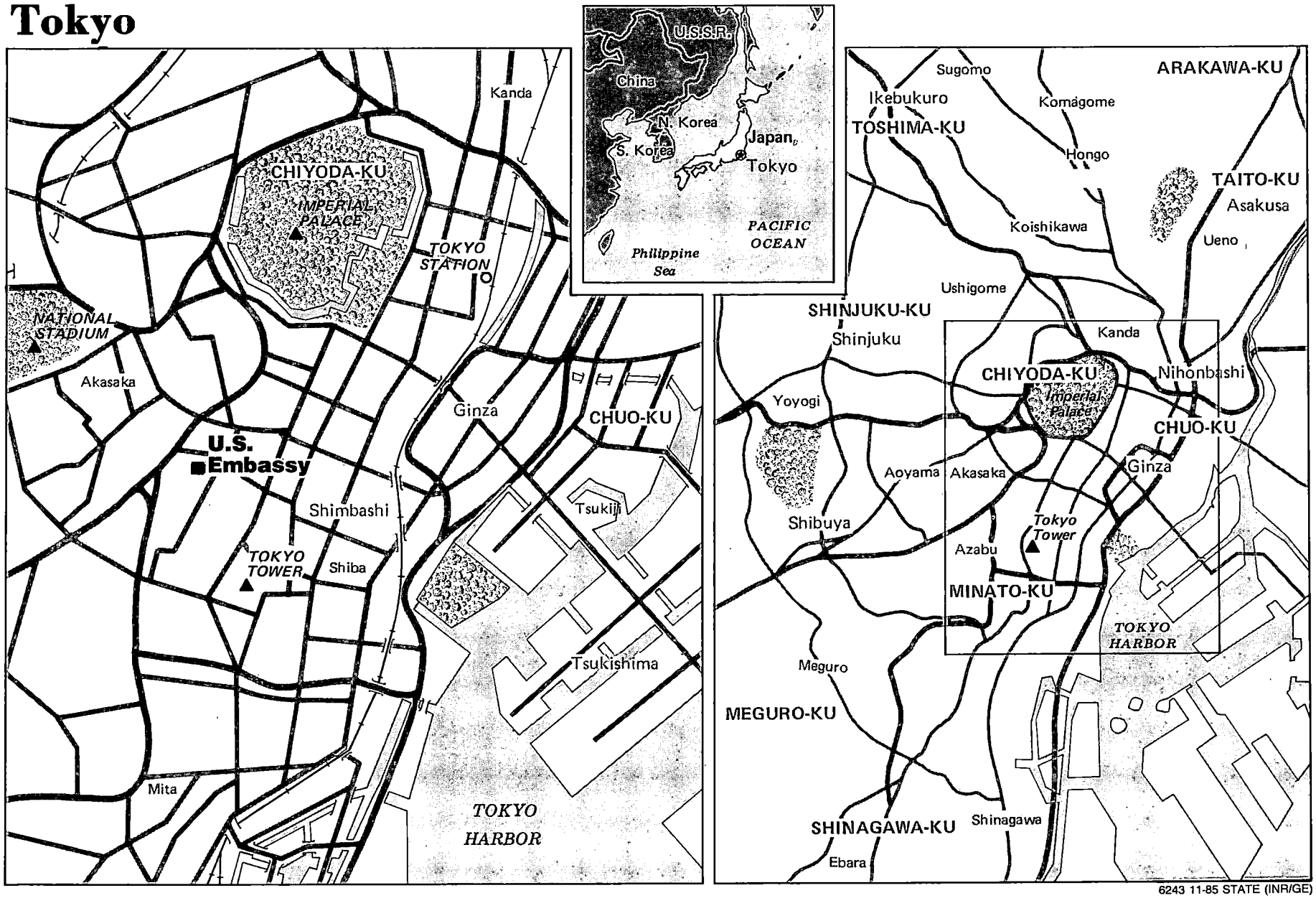
Wash. D.C. (DST) 0	Singapore +12	Kyoto Seoul Tokyo +13	Cairns Canberra Sydney +14	Honolulu –5	Wash. D.C. (DST) 0
0600	1800	1900	2000	0100	0600
0700	1900	2000	2100	0200	0700
0800	2000	2100	2200	0300	0800
0900	2100	2200	2300	0400	0900
1000	2200	2300	2400	0500	1000
1100	2300	2400	*0100*	0600	1100
1200	2400	*0100*	*0200*	0700	1200
1300	*0100*	*0200*	*0300*	0800	1300
1400	*0200*	*0300*	*0400*	0900	1400
1500	*0300*	*0400*	*0500*	1000	1500
1600	*0400*	*0500*	*0600*	1100	1600
1700	*0500*	*0600*	*0700*	1200	1700
1800	*0600*	*0700*	*0800*	1300	1800
1900	*0700*	*0800*	*0900*	1400	1900
2000	*0800*	*0900*	*1000*	1500	2000
2100	*0900*	*1000*	*1100*	1600	2100
2200	*1000*	*1100*	*1200*	1700	2200
2300	*1100*	*1200*	*1300*	1800	2300
2400	*1200*	*1300*	*1400*	1900	2400
0100	*1300*	*1400*	*1500*	2000	*0100*
0200	*1400*	*1500*	*1600*	2100	*0200*
0300	*1500*	*1600*	*1700*	2200	*0300*
0400	*1600*	*1700*	*1800*	2300	*0400*
0500	*1700*	*1800*	*1900*	2400	*0500*

+ 1 day

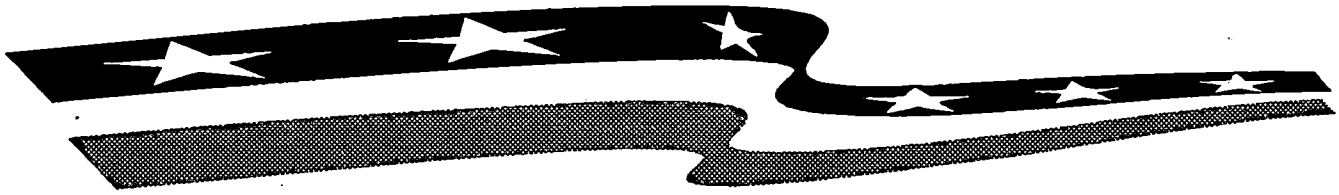


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Tokyo



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Currency

Japanese Yen (¥) Conversion Table at ¥ 134 = U.S. $

(Yen = 100 sen)

Yen to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Yen	
Yen	**U.S. $**	**U.S. $**	**Yen**
10	0.08	0.10	13.10
25	0.19	0.25	32.75
50	0.38	0.50	65.50
75	0.57	0.75	98.25
131	1.00	1.00	131.00
500	3.82	2.00	262.00
1,000	7.63	5.00	655.00
2,000	15.27	10.00	1,310.00
5,000	38.17	20.00	2,620.00
10,000	76.34	50.00	6,550.00
25,000	190.84	100.00	13,100.00
50,000	381.68	300.00	39,300.00
100,000	763.36	500.00	65,500.00

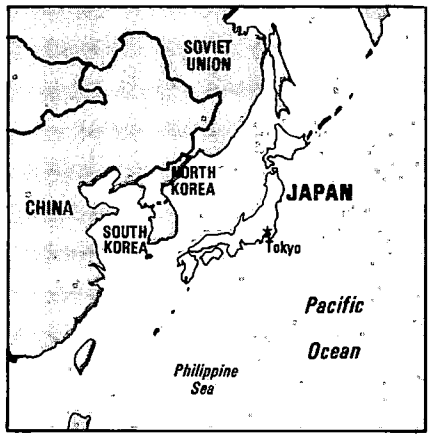
Note: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent. Value of yen fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

background notes

Japan

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

December 1990



Official Name: Japan

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 377,765 sq. km. (145,856 sq. mi.); slightly smaller than California. **Cities:** *Capital*—Tokyo. *Other major cities*—Yokohama, Osaka, Nagoya, Sapporo, Kobe, Kyoto. **Terrain:** Rugged, mountainous islands. **Climate:** Varies from subtropical to temperate.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Japanese. **Population** (mid-1987 est.): 123,100,000. **Annual growth rate** (1989): 0.5%. **Ethnic groups:** Japanese; Korean 0.6%. **Religions:** Shintoism and Buddhism; Christian 0.8%. **Language:** Japanese. **Education:** *Literacy*—99%. **Life expectancy** (1987)—males 75.5 yrs., females 81.3 yrs. **Work force** (60.7 million, 1988): *Agriculture*—7.9%. *Trade, manufacturing, mining, and construction*—32.4%. *Services*—43.3%. *Government*—7.2%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy. **Constitution:** May 3, 1947.

Branches: *Executive*—prime minister (head of government). *Legislative*—bicameral Diet (House of Representatives and House of Councillors). *Judicial*—Civil law system with Anglo-American influence.

Subdivisions: 47 prefectures.

Political parties: Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), Japan Socialist Party (JSP), Democratic Socialist Party (DSP), Komeito (Clean Government Party), Japan Communist Party (JCP). **Suffrage:** Universal over 20.

Flag: Red sun on white field.

Economy

GNP (1989): $2.836 trillion. **Real growth rate:** 4.9% (1989); 4.4% (1987-89). **Per capita GNP** (1989): $23,040.

Natural resources: Negligible mineral resources, fish.

Agriculture: *Products*—rice, vegetables, fruits, milk, meat, silk.

Industry: *Types*—machinery and equipment, metals and metal products, textiles, autos, chemicals, electrical and electronic equipment.

Trade (1989): *Exports*—$269.7 billion: motor vehicles, machinery and equipment, electrical and electronic products, metals and metal products. *Major markets*—US 33.8%, Western Europe 20.5%, developing countries 37.7%, communist countries 4.6%. *Imports*—$210.7 billion: fossil fuels, metal ore, raw materials, foodstuffs, machinery and equipment. *Major suppliers*—US 22.9%, Western Europe 16.7%, developing countries 47%, communist countries 7.4%.

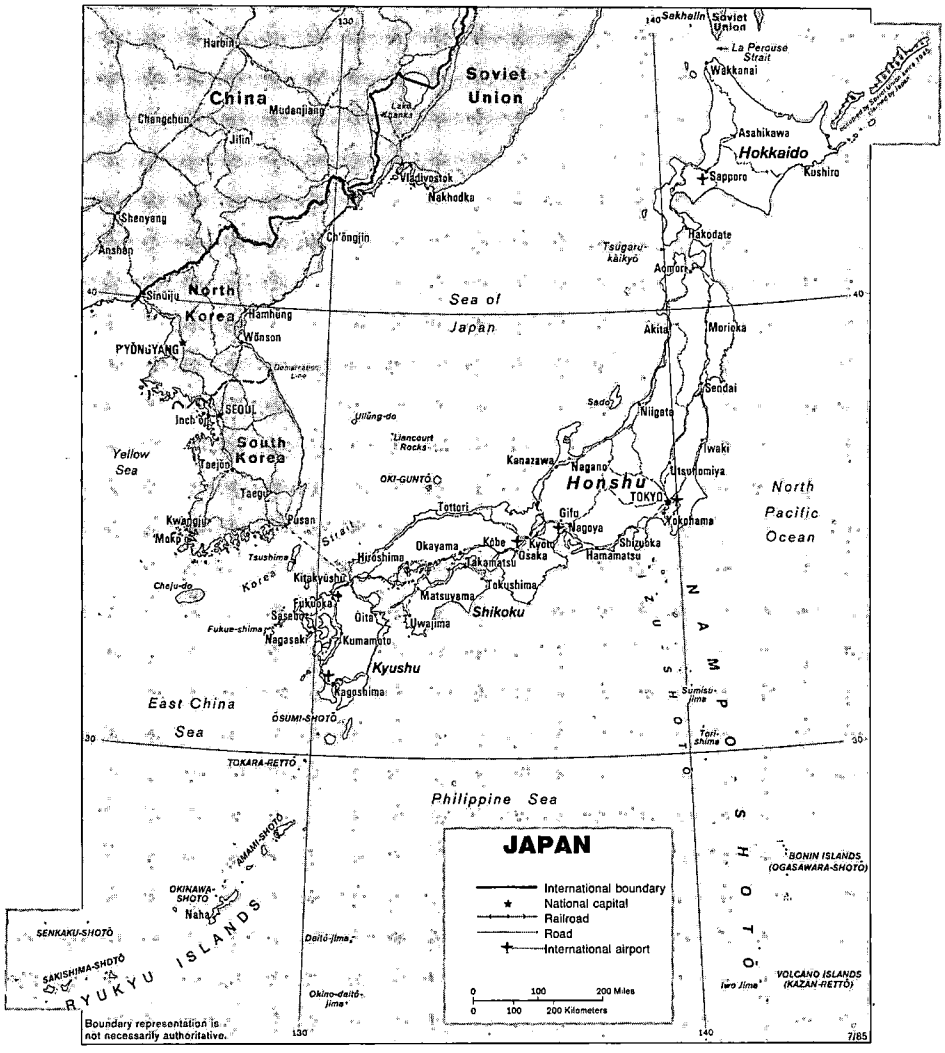
Fiscal year: April 1-March 31.

Exchange rate (avg. 1989): 138 yen= US$1.

Total net official development assistance: $8.9 billion (1989 disbursements, 0.3% of GNP).

Membership in International Organizations

UN and several of its specialized and related agencies, including the International Monetary Fund (IMF), International Court of Justice (ICJ), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), International Labor Organization (ILO), International Energy Agency (IEA), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), INTELSAT.



PEOPLE

Japan is one of the most densely populated nations in the world, with almost 318 persons per square kilometer (823 persons per sq. mi.). The growth rate has stabilized at about 0.5% in recent years, giving rise to some concern about the social implications of an increasingly aged population.

The Japanese are a Mongoloid people, closely related to the major groups of East Asia. However, some evidence also exists of admixture with Malayan and Caucasoid strains. About 675,000 Koreans and much smaller groups of Chinese and Caucasians reside in Japan.

Buddhism is important in Japan's religious life and has strongly influenced fine arts, social institutions, and thought. Most Japanese still consider themselves members of one of the major Buddhist sects.

Shintoism is an indigenous religion founded on myths, legends, and ritual practices of the early Japanese. Neither Buddhism nor Shintoism is an exclusive religion; most Japanese observe both Buddhist and Shinto rituals, the former for funerals and the latter for births, marriages, and other occasions. Confucianism, more an ethical system than a religion, profoundly influences Japanese thought.

About 1.5 million people in Japan are Christians, of whom approximately 60% are Protestant and 40% Roman Catholic.

Education

Japan provides free public schooling for all children through junior high school. Ninety-four percent of students go on to 3-year senior high schools, and competition is fierce for entry into the best universities. Students may attend either public or private high schools, colleges, and universities, but they must pay tuition. Japan enjoys one of the world's highest literacy rates (99%); nearly 90% of Japanese students complete high school.

Communications

Mass communications in Japan are more extensive than those of most other advanced, industrial nations. The mass media are highly competitive, even though they are dominated by four national daily newspapers—the *Yomiuri*, the *Asahi*, the *Mainichi*, and the *Nihon Keizai Shimbun*—with individual circulations of 4-14 million (combined morning and evening editions) daily. These newspapers and several smaller ones publish weekly magazines and have interests in commercial radio and television. The combined circulation of Japan's 178 newpapers totals more than 65 million (in a nation of 120 million people), and Japan publishes more than 3,500 magazines.

Radio and television follow the British pattern, with a nationwide, government-owned network competing with commercial networks. The Japanese motion picture and publishing industries rank among the largest in the world. The Japanese publishing industry creates more new titles each year than the United States.

Social Welfare

In Japan, as in other parts of Asia, care of the sick, aged, and infirm until recently has been the responsibility of families, employers, or private organizations. However, to meet the needs of a modern industrial society, this system has changed greatly, and the government conducts a broad range of modest, but successful, social welfare programs. These include health insurance, old-age pensions, a minimum wage law, and the operation of various hospitals and institutions for orphans, the handicapped, and the elderly. All major political parties are committed to providing increased and more effective social welfare services.

HISTORY

Traditional Japanese records contain the legend that the nation was founded in 600 BC by the Emperor Jimmu, a direct descendant of the sun goddess and ancestor of the present ruling imperial family. About 405 AD, the Japanese court officially adopted the Chinese writing system. During the sixth century, Buddhism was introduced. These two events revolutionized Japanese culture and marked the beginning of a long period of Chinese cultural influence, which resulted in a strong affinity for China.

From the establishment of the first fixed capital at Nara in 710 until 1867, the emperors of the Yamato dynasty were the nominal rulers, but actual power was usually held by powerful court nobles, regents, or "shoguns" (military governors).

Contact With the West

The first contact with the West occurred about 1542, when a Portuguese ship, blown off its course to China, landed in Japan. During the next century, traders from Portugal, the Netherlands, England, and Spain arrived, as did Jesuit, Dominican, and Franciscan missionaries. During the early part of the 17th century, growing suspicions that the traders and missionaries were actually forerunners of a military conquest by European powers caused the shogunate to place foreigners under progressively tighter restrictions. This culminated in the expulsion of all foreigners and the severing of all relations with the outside world, except severely restricted commercial contacts with Dutch and Chinese merchants at Nagasaki. This isolation lasted for 200 years, until Commodore Matthew Perry of the US Navy forced the opening of Japan to the West with the Convention of Kanagawa in 1854.

Renewed contact with the West profoundly altered Japanese society. In 1868, the shogun was forced to resign, and an emperor was restored to power. The feudal system subsequently was abolished, and many Western institutions were adopted, including a Western legal system and constitutional government along quasi-parliamentary lines.

The Meiji Constitution initiated many reforms. Eventually, in 1898, the last of the galling "unequal treaties" with Western powers was removed, signaling Japan's new status among the nations of the world. In a few decades, by creating modern social, educational, economic, military and industrial systems, the Emperor Meiji's "controlled revolution" had transformed a feudal and isolated state into a world power.

Wars with China and Russia

Japanese leaders of the late 19th century regarded the Korean Peninsula as a "dagger pointed at the heart of Japan." It was over Korea that Japan became involved in war with the Chinese Empire in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-05. The war with China established Japan's dominant interest in Korea, while giving it the Pescadores Islands and Formosa as well. After Japan defeated Russia, the resulting Treaty of Portsmouth awarded Japan certain rights in Manchuria and in southern Sakhalin, which Russia had received in 1875 in exchange for the Kurile Islands. Both wars gave Japan a free hand in Korea, which it formally annexed in 1910.

World War I to 1952

World War I permitted Japan, which fought on the side of the victorious Allies, to expand its influence in Asia and its territorial holdings in the Pacific. The postwar era brought unprecedented prosperity to the country. Japan went to the peace conference at Versailles in 1919 as one of the great military and industrial powers of the world and received official recognition as one of the "Big Five" of the new international order. It joined the League of Nations and received a mandate over Pacific islands north of the Equator formerly held by Germany.

During the 1920s, the country progressed toward a democratic system of government. However, parliamentary government was not rooted deeply enough to withstand the economic and political pressures of the 1930s. During this period, military leaders were increasingly influential.

Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931 and set up the state of Manchukuo. In 1933, it resigned from the League of Nations. The Japanese invasion of China in 1937 followed Japan's signing the "anti-Comintern pact" with Nazi Germany the previous year and was part of a chain of developments culminating in the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. After almost 4 years of war, resulting in the loss of 3 million Japanese lives and including the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan signed an instrument of surrender on the USS *Missouri* in Tokyo Harbor on September 2, 1945.

As a result of World War II, Japan lost all of its overseas possessions and retained only the home islands. Manchukuo was dissolved, and Manchuria was returned to China; Japan renounced all claims to Formosa; Korea was granted independence; southern Sakhalin and the Kuriles were occupied by the USSR; and the United States became the sole administering authority of the Ryukyu, Bonin, and Volcano Islands. The United States returned control of these islands to Japan by 1972 with the reversion of Okinawa.

After the war, Japan was placed under international control of the Allied Powers through the Supreme Commander, Gen. Douglas MacArthur. US objectives were to ensure that Japan would become a peaceful nation and to establish democratic self-government supported by the freely expressed will of the people. Political, economic, and social reforms were introduced. The method of ruling through Japanese officials and a freely elected Japanese Diet (legislature) afforded a progressive and orderly transition from the stringent controls immediately following the surrender to the restoration of full sovereignty when the treaty of peace with Japan went into effect on April 28, 1952.

GOVERNMENT

Japan's parliamentary government—a constitutional monarchy—operates within the framework of a constitution that became effective on May 3, 1947. Japan has universal adult suffrage with a secret ballot for all elective offices. The government consists of an executive branch, responsible to the Diet, and an independent judicial branch.

Sovereignty, previously embodied in the emperor, is vested in the Japanese people, and the emperor is defined as the symbol of the state. The cultural prestige of the imperial institution remains great, however, and the enthronement of Emperor Akihito in November 1990 was a major national event.

The government is essentially patterned on the British parliamentary model, with a House of Representatives and a House of Councillors. Executive power is vested in a cabinet composed of a prime minister and ministers of state, all of whom must be civilians. The prime minister, who must be a member of the Diet, is appointed by the emperor on designation by the Diet and has the power to appoint and remove ministers, the majority of whom must be from the Diet.

Japan's judicial system, based on the model of Roman law, consists of several levels of courts, with the Supreme Court as the final judicial authority. The Japanese constitution includes a bill of rights similar to the US Bill of Rights, and the Supreme Court has the right of judicial review. Japanese courts do not use a jury system, and there are no administrative courts or claims courts. Because of the system's basis in Roman law, court decisions are made in accordance with statute law, and only Supreme Court decisions have any direct effect on later interpretation of points of law.

Japan does not have a federal system, and its 47 prefectures are not sovereign entities in the sense that US states are. Most are not financially self-sufficient and depend on the central government for subsidies. Governors of prefectures, mayors of municipalities, and prefectural and municipal assembly members are popularly elected for 4-year terms.

Principal Government Officials

Prime Minister—Toshiki Kaifu

Minister of Foreign Affairs—Taro Nakayama

Ambassador to the United States—Ryohei Murata

Ambassador to the United Nations—Yoshio Hatano

Japan maintains an embassy in the United States at 2520 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, D.C. 20008 (tel. 202-939-6700). Consulates general are in Anchorage, Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Guam, Honolulu, Houston, Kansas City, Los Angeles, New Orleans, New York City, Portland, San Francisco and Seattle; honorary consulates general are in Buffalo, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Nashville, Miami, Minneapolis, Mobile, Phoenix, St. Louis, San Diego, and San Juan; and an honorary consulate is in American Samoa.

The Japan National Tourist Organization, at 630 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10111, also maintains offices in Chicago, Dallas, San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Honolulu.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Japan is one of the most politically stable of all postwar democracies, ruled for more than 40 years by moderate and conservative political interests. A generally close cooperation among politicians, an efficient and dedicated bureaucracy, and the business community have tended to give cohesion to national policymaking. The political organization representing Japanese moderate conservatism is the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP). The party is a coalition of several well-organized factions, the success of which depends on the factional leaders' ability to obtain a position of power in the cabinet or party.

In the February 1990 lower house election, the Socialist party (JSP) increased its strength by 55 seats (from 83 to 138), making it overwhelmingly the largest opposition party. Continuing ideological conflict between the Marxist class-struggle approach of its left wing and the more pragmatic approach of the right wing has kept the JSP from consolidating its own position in the Diet, while disputes with other opposition parties have frustrated attempts to form more than temporary alliances. Although advocating reduction and eventual elimination of US military forces in Japan, the JSP has moved to broaden its dialogue with the United States.

The Komeito (Clean Government Party) is a political affiliate of the Buddhist Soka Gakkai sect but has attempted to expand its base. The party grew rapidly in its early years, but membership has leveled off. The Komeito is moderate but joins the other opposition parties in parliamentary maneuvers against the LDP.

The Democratic Socialist Party (DSP) is a moderate socialist party patterned after the European social democrats. Its membership broke away from the JSP in 1960. Much of its support is from private sector labor unions.

No longer stridently revolutionary, the Japan Communist Party (JCP) rejects close ties with the Soviet Union and espouses a parliamentary road to power like the major West European communist parties. However, it remains hostile to the United States. It is highly unlikely that the JCP ever will have a broad electoral base.

The LDP has ruled Japan continuously since its founding in 1955. Although Japanese politics are stable, the LDP cannot take its parliamentary majority for granted. In the 1989 upper house elections, the LDP lost its majority. However, in the more powerful lower house, the LDP scored an impressive victory in elections in February 1990. It won 275 races and, together with 11 conservative independents who subsequently joined the party, the LDP's 286 seats in the 512-seat chamber give it chairmanship and voting majorities in every committee. The LDP counts on the inability of its opponents to unite. Its excellent overall

performance in achieving high levels of economic growth has improved the lot of the people in the postwar era, and it is still the only party that a majority of the public seems to trust to manage the economy.

ECONOMY

Japan's reservoir of industrial leadership and technicans, its intelligent and industrious work force, its high savings and investment rates, and its intensive promotion of industrial development and foreign trade have resulted in a mature industrial economy. Along with North America and Western Europe, Japan is one of the three major industrial complexes among the market economies.

Japan has few natural resources, and only 19% of its land is suitable for cultivation. The agricultural economy is highly subsidized and protected. With great ingenuity and technical skill, resulting in per hectare crop yields among the highest in the world, Japan maintains an overall agricultural self-sufficiency rate of about 50% on fewer than 5.6 million cultivated hectares (14 million acres). Japan produces a slight surplus of rice but imports large quantities of wheat, sorghum, and soybeans, primarily from the United States.

Given its heavy dependence on imported energy, Japan has aimed to diversify its sources. Since the oil shocks of the 1970s, Japan has reduced dependence on petroleum as a source of energy from over 75% in 1973 to about 57%. Other important energy sources are coal, liquefied natural gas, nuclear, and hydropower.

Gold, magnesium, and silver meet current minimum requirements, but Japan is dependent on foreign sources for many of the minerals essential to modern industry. Iron ore, coking coal, copper, and bauxite must be imported, as well as many forest products.

Japan's exports amount to less than 10% of its GNP, less than the percentage of some other major trading nations. Although small in terms of GNP, the Japanese traditionally have seen this trade as necessary for earning the foreign exchange needed to purchase raw materials for their advanced economy.

Compared with the performance of most industrial nations over the past several years, the Japanese economy has performed well. Its 4.9% real economic growth rate in 1989 is one of the highest of the developed countries.

Transportation

Japan has a well-developed international and domestic transportation system, although highway development still lags. Tokyo and Osaka International Airports and the ports of Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, and Nagoya are important terminals for air and sea traffic in the western Pacific. However, greatly increased traffic in the Pacific markets is putting severe strains on Japan's airports.

The domestic transportation system depends on the government-owned rail network. Rail transportation is supplemented by private railways in metropolitan areas, a developing highway system, coastal shipping, and several airlines. The rail system is efficient and well distributed and maintained throughout the country. The super express "bullet trains" take as little as 3 hours between Tokyo and Osaka, a distance of 520 kilometers (325 mi.).

Labor

Japan's labor force consists of approximately 60 million workers, 40% of whom are women. Members of labor unions number about 12 million (about 27% of the nonagricultural labor force).

In 1989, the 3-million member, predominantly public-sector union confederation Sohyo (General Council of Trade Unions of Japan) merged with the 5.5 million member Rengo (Japanese Private Sector Trade Union Confederation) to form the 8-million member Japanese Trade Union Confederation, also called Rengo.

US-Japanese Trade

The United States is Japan's largest trading partner; Japan is the second largest trading partner for the United States after Canada. Bilateral trade totaled $138 billion in 1989. Japan is the largest market for US agricultural products, more than $8 billion annually. Manufactured goods constitute 58% of US exports to Japan. In 1989, the leading US export to Japan was machinery and equipment. Japan is the first- or second-best market for many US manufactured goods, including chemicals, pharmaceuticals, photo supplies, commercial aircraft, nonferrous metals, plastics, and medical and scientific supplies.

The US trade deficit with Japan has been a source of significant bilateral friction. US trade policy has concentrated on efforts to encourage structural change to reduce Japan's export orientation and increase imports; negotiation on specific market access problems; coordination of macroeconomic policies; and coordination in multilateral fora such as the GATT and OECD.

There have been some encouraging trends. Japan's economic growth has been generated more by domestic demand than exports. Between 1981 and 1989, US exports to Japan grew more than twice as fast as our exports to the rest of the world. And the $49 billion US merchandise trade deficit with Japan in 1989 represented a 5% improvement over 1988. Nevertheless, the United States is continuing to focus on opening Japanese markets and increasing US exports.

Significant bilateral trade negotiations have occurred. In 1988, the United States signed agreements with Japan covering beef, citrus, other agricultural products, and public works procurement. In April 1990, the two countries reached agreements on the three sectors—satellites, supercomputers, and wood products—identified for trade liberalization under the Super 301 provision of the Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act of 1988. In June 1990, the US and Japan concluded 9 months of intensive talks under the Structural Impediments Initiative (SII) by producing a final report which commits both countries to comprehensive measures to reduce impediments to current account adjustment.

Despite the lack of formal barriers to trade compared with other countries, the Japanese market continues to be

difficult for new firms to penetrate. Efforts to improve access to that market continue to take place in semiannual bilateral meetings of the trade committee and meetings related to the market-oriented sector-selective (MOSS) process. US follow-up talks with the Japanese government continue in medical equipment, pharmaceuticals, auto parts, construction, semiconductors, intellectual property rights, and services.

In August 1990, the US and Japan reached agreement on liberalizing the Japanese telecommunications market for terminal equipment and international value-added services.

There are considerable investment flows between the United States and Japan. US direct investment in Japan rose by $1.4 billion from 1988 to 1989, much of it largely in finance, banking, and manufacturing. The total stock of US direct investment at the end of 1989 totaled $19.3 billion. Japanese direct investment in the United States expanded by $16 billion in 1989 over 1988 with substantial increases in real estate, finance, and manufacturing. The total stock of Japanese direct investment in the United States at the end of 1989 was $69.7 billion.

Houston Economic Summit, July 9-11, 1990

President Bush hosted the 16th annual G-7 summit for the leaders of the major industrialized democracies—Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States—and the president of the European Community, in Houston, Texas, July 9-11. The summit was held against the backdrop of movement toward democracy and freer markets in many parts of the world, including elections in Eastern Europe and Nicaragua, increasing momentum toward German unification, and political reforms in the Soviet Union. The summit leaders agreed on most international economic and political issues, but intense discussions were needed on agricultural subsidies in the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations, economic assistance to the Soviet Union, and global warming before consensus could be reached.

Economic Accomplishments

- Agreement on progressive reductions in internal and external support and protection of agriculture and on a framework for conducting agricultural negotiations in order to successfully conclude by December 1990 the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade talks under the auspices of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

- Request to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development to undertake, in close coordination with the European Community (EC), a study of the Soviet economy, to make recommendations, to establish the criteria under which Western economic assistance could effectively support Soviet reforms, and to submit a report by the end of 1990.

- Support for aid to Central and Eastern European nations that are firmly committed to political and economic reform, including freer markets, and encouragement of foreign private investment in those countries and improved markets for their exports by means of trade and investment agreements.

- Pledge to begin negotiations, to be completed by 1992, on a global forest convention to protect the world's forests.

Political Accomplishments

- Promotion of democracy throughout the world by assisting in the drafting of laws, advising in fostering independent media, establishing training programs, and expanding exchange programs.

- Endorsement of the maintenance of an effective international nuclear nonproliferation system, including adoption of safeguards and nuclear export control measures, and support for a complete ban on chemical weapons.

DEFENSE

After World War II, the Allies disarmed and occupied Japan. Article IX of the Japanese constitution provides that "land, sea, and air forces, as well as other war potential, will never be maintained." During the Korean war, this position was modified by the establishment of a national police reserve force. Before the end of the occupation in April 1952, the first steps had been taken to expand and transform the force into the Self-Defense Force (SDF). At the same time, the Japanese government derived from Article 51 of the UN Charter the doctrine that each nation has the right of self-defense against armed attack and that this right is consistent with Article IX of the Japanese constitution.

In 1954, the Japan Defense Agency was created with the specific mission of defending Japan against external aggression. Ground, maritime, and air self-defense forces were established under a joint chiefs of staff organization patterned after that of the United States.

In recent years, the Japanese public has shown a substantially greater awareness of security issues and increasing support for the security treaty and the SDF. However, there are still significant political and psychological constraints on strengthening Japan's defense. An important minority in Japan advocates strict interpretation of Article IX of the constitution. More generally, there continues to be a strong underlying antipathy, resulting from Japan's experience in World War II, toward military matters.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Japan is a major economic power not only in Asia but also in the world. Japanese foreign policy since 1952 aims to promote peace and prosperity for the Japanese people by working closely with the West and through strong support for the United Nations. Japan has diplomatic relations with nearly all independent nations and has been an active member of the United Nations since 1956.

Although a military role for Japan in international affairs is precluded by its constitution and government policy, Japanese cooperation through the US-Japan security treaty has been important to the peace and stability of East Asia. All Japanese governments in the postwar period have relied on a close relationship with the United States as the foundation of their foreign policy and on the mutual security treaty for strategic protection. In recent years, within the context of a close relationship with the United States, Japan has diversified and expanded its ties with other nations.

Good relations with its neighbors continue to be of vital interest to Tokyo. After the signing of the peace and friendship treaty with China in 1978, ties between Tokyo and Beijing developed rapidly. Prior to the June 1989 events in Tiananmen Square, the

Japanese extended significant economic assistance to the Chinese in various modernization projects. At the same time, Japan has maintained economic but not diplomatic relations with Taiwan, where a strong bilateral trade relationship thrives.

Japanese ties with the Republic of Korea have improved since an exchange of visits in the mid-1980s by the Japanese and South Korean political leaders. Most recently, President Roh Tae Woo made a highly successful visit to Japan in May 1990. Japan has limited economic and commercial ties with North Korea; the release in October 1990 of two Japanese seamen held by Pyongyang since 1983 removed a key obstacle to a normalization of relations.

Although the Japanese have sought to improve relations with the Soviet Union, relations between Tokyo and Moscow never have been close, because the Soviets continue to occupy the Northern Territories—small islands off the coast of Hokkaido that have been occupied by the USSR since the end of World War II. The Japanese reacted strongly to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and supported various initiatives, including boycotting the Moscow Olympics, to express their opposition.

Soviet President Gorbachev's scheduled visit to Tokyo in early 1991 will be the first by a Soviet leader in the post-war period. It may provide the occasion for movement toward a settlement of the territorial dispute and major improvement in Soviet-Japanese relations.

The Japanese have pursued a more active foreign policy in recent years, recognizing the responsibility that accompanies Japan's economic strength. Japan has expanded its ties with the Middle East, which provides most of its oil. The Japanese also have been increasingly active in Africa and Latin America and have extended significant support to multilateral and bilateral development projects in both regions.

After the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in August 1990, Japan rapidly adopted tough sanctions against Iraq and strongly supported the UN effort to roll back the aggression. Initial Japanese contributions included $2 billion in assistance to countries most affected economically by the crisis, an additional $2 billion for the multinational military force, and aid to refugees.

Development assistance is a major tool of Japan's foreign policy. Japan became the world's largest aid donor in 1989, surpassing the United States with aid levels of $9 billion. Japanese aid to other Asian countries far exceeds that of the United States, and Japan is also a major donor to Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America, the Middle East, and the Philippines. Japan and the United States hold subcabinet-level consultations regularly to coordinate foreign assistance programs. The United States supports Japan's efforts to open its markets to developing nations' products.

US-JAPANESE RELATIONS

The close and cooperative relationship with Japan is the cornerstone of US policy in Asia and the basis of a strong, productive partnership in addressing global issues. Despite different social and cultural traditions, Japan and the United States have much in common. Both have open, democratic societies, high literacy, freedom of expression, multiparty political systems, universal suffrage, and open elections. Both have highly developed free-market industrial economies and favor an open and active international trading system. Given Japan's economic power and its growing international role, it clearly has become one of the most important countries to the United States.

In accordance with Japan's enhanced international influence and its continued close ties with the United States, the two countries have developed a close global partnership in supporting the many values they share. This global cooperation spans fields as diverse as counter-terrorism, anti-narcotics collaboration, human rights, development assistance, support for refugees, and international action to protect the environment.

Bilateral trade problems attract significant attention and often generate considerable controversy within the relationship. The United States is working hard to achieve greater access to Japan's markets and has made much progress. Trade problems may be the most visible and contentious part of an extremely broad and important relationship. Overall US policy toward Japan goes well beyond the problem areas and is based on three principles.

First, the United States has worked to achieve a close bilateral relationship with Japan as an equal partner. The past decade has brought a significant expansion of Japan's economic and technological prowess, an increase in its defense awareness and capability, and a greater interest and involvement in international political and economic affairs. Although there still are differences in their relative political, economic, and military positions in the world, both nations approach and conduct their relationship as equals.

Second, because of the two countries' combined economic and technological impact on the world—together accounting for 40% of world GNP and 60% of the Western industrialized nations' GNP—the US-Japan relationship has become global in scope. Although in the past the partnership has been measured primarily in economic and technological terms, in the future it will have a larger political dimension as Japan assumes a greater international role and associates itself more actively and closely with Western political and security goals.

Third, Japan is becoming increasingly assertive in global matters and is forging a wider international role.

The United States encourages this trend toward a broader international political and economic role by Japan, within the framework of a continued close bilateral relationship. The United States has called for a "global partnership" with Japan, in which the combined efforts of the two countries can be utilized to promote peace and prosperity throughout the world.

US-Japan Security Relationship

The US-Japan Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security is 30 years old. The original security relationship dates from the early 1950s, when Japan was virtually defenseless. The present security treaty, revised on a broader basis of equality, came into force on

Travel Notes

Japan is one of the countries participating in the Nonimmigrant Visa Waiver Pilot Program. As such, visitors to Japan for either tourism or business for a period of less than 90 days who possess round-trip or onward tickets on a participating carrier do not need visas. This program expires September 30, 1991, unless it is extended by legislation. Meanwhile, for all other types of travel, including official business, a visa is required and must be obtained from a Japanese consulate or embassy before departure.

Travelers transiting Japan for less than a 72-hour stay may routinely apply for a special landing permit upon arrival, provided their passport is properly visaed for onward travel and entry and departure are from the same international airport. If travelers are in any doubt regarding specific transit plans, a visa should be obtained before departure. No immunization is neccessary for travel to Japan from the United States.

Detailed tourist information can be obtained from the Japan National Tourist Organization, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10111.

June 23, 1960, and became subject to abrogation by either party upon 1 year's notice in June 1970. At the time, both governments declared their intention to extend the treaty indefinitely.

Under the treaty, Japan hosts elements of the US 7th Fleet. The bases and facilities provided by Japan under the treaty do not exist solely for the defense of Japan. They are also important to the US ability to maintain commitments to other allies in Asia. US military assistance to Japan was terminated at the end of 1967. Since 1952, US military forces in Japan have decreased from more than 260,000 to the present level of about 65,000, more than half of whom are stationed in Okinawa. For Japan, the treaty provides a strategic guarantee against external attack.

As US forces were withdrawn, the Japanese SDF expanded its capabilities and has assumed primary responsibility for the immediate conventional defense of Japan. Japan's defense roles and missions, which the United States supports, are the defense of its homeland, territorial seas and skies, and sea lines of communication out to 1,000 nautical miles. Japan has been increasing its defense budget annually and continues to make qualitative force improvements. As a matter of policy, Japan has foresworn nuclear armaments and forbids arms sales abroad. A bilateral agreement signed in 1983, however, allows the export of Japanese defense and dual-use technology to the United States.

In addition to its own forces, Japan also provides bases and facilities to US forces in Japan and contributes substantially to the support of US forces (over $3 billion in FY 1990).

Principal US Officials

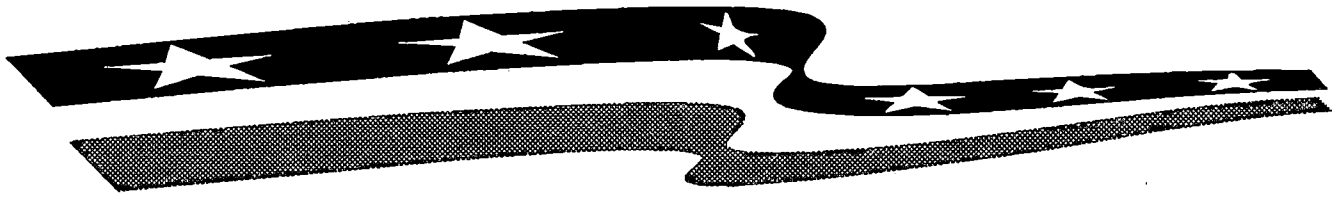
Ambassador—Michael H. Armacost
Deputy Chief of Mission—William T. Breer
Economic Minister-Counselor—Joseph Winder
Political Minister—Rust M. Deming
Public Affairs Minister—Robert L. M. Nevitt
Administrative Minister—Jose J. Cao-Garcia
Commercial Minister—Keith R. Bovetti
Agricultural Minister—James V. Parker
Consul General—Nancy Sambaiew
Labor Counselor—John J. LaMazza
Science Counselor—Edward Malloy
Defense Attache—Capt. S. A. Van Hoften
Customs Attache—Gary W. Waugh
Mutual Defense Office Director—Capt. Walter T. Dziedzic

The US Embassy in Japan is located at 10-5 Akasaka 1-chome, Minato-ku, Tokyo (107); tel 224-5000; fax 505-1862; mailing address: American Embassy Tokyo, APO San Francisco 96503. US Consulates General are in Osaka, Sapporo, and Naha, and a Consulate is in Fukuoka. The American Chamber of Commerce in Japan is at 7th floor, Fukide No. 2 Bldg., 1-21 Toranomon 4-chome, Minato-ku, Tokyo (105). ■

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Biography

U.S. Ambassador to Japan

Michael Hayden Armacost became the U.S. Ambassador to Japan on May 8, 1989. Prior to his appointment, Ambassador Armacost was Under Secretary of State for Political Affairs, a position he had held since 1984.

From February 1982 to May 1984, he served as Ambassador to the Philippines. From 1980 to 1982, he was Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for East Asian and Pacific Affairs. In 1978–80, he served as Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense, and in 1977–78, he was senior staff member for East Asia at the National Security Council. From 1972 to 1974, he was special assistant to the Ambassador to Japan. From 1969 to 1972 and 1974 to 1977, he was a member of the Policy Planning Staff at the Department of State.

Ambassador Armacost was a lecturer at Georgetown University in 1971–72 and at Johns Hopkins University in 1970–71. In 1968–69 he was visiting lecturer of international relations at the International Christian University in Tokyo. He was assistant professor of government (1965–68) and instructor of government (1962–65) at Pomona College in Claremont, California. He has published commentaries on national security and foreign affairs.

Ambassador Armacost is a recipient of the Secretary of State's Distinguished Service Award (1988); the President's Meritorious Service Award (1985); and the Department of Defense's Distinguished Civilian Service Award (1980).

Born April 15, 1937, in Cleveland, Ohio, Ambassador Armacost received a B.A. from Carleton College in 1958 and an M.A. in 1961 and a Ph.D. in 1965 from Columbia University.

Key U.S. Officials

William T. Breer,
Deputy Chief of Mission, Tokyo

Rust M. Deming,
Political Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Joseph A. B. Winder,
Economic Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Keith R. Bovetti,
Commercial Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Nancy H. Sambaiew,
Consular Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Jose J. Cao-Garcia,
Administrative Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Robert L. M. Nevitt,
Public Affairs Officer, Tokyo

Walter H. Sargent,
Regional Security Officer, Tokyo

Toshiki KAIFU **JAPAN**
(Phonetic: kaifoo)



Prime Minister (since 1989)

Addressed as: Mr. Prime Minister

According to the Japanese press, Prime Minister Toshiki Kaifu faces difficulties in seeking reelection as Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) president in October 1991, when his term expires. Although Kaifu's popularity outstrips that of his two predecessors, a June survey shows that nearly half of those polled think he should not seek reelection. The media reports that his decline in popularity is the result of public disapproval of his handling of Japan's role in the Persian Gulf crisis. Kaifu's reluctance to fall in step with ruling-party advocacy of a more prominent role for the Self-Defense Forces (SDF) in the ill-fated UN Peace Cooperation Bill spurred media and opposition attacks that questioned Kaifu's competence. His profile remains high, however. He is keeping a busy calendar this summer—including visits to China and Mongolia—and is promoting legislative initiatives, such as electoral reform.

A Solid Performer on the World Stage

At the 1991 economic summit in London, Kaifu faces debate over issues that are widely known to be politically sensitive in Tokyo, such as agricultural liberalization and aid to the USSR. According to press reports, Kaifu will highlight disarmament initiatives he had introduced in May; he will call for increased accountability in world arms trade and will stress Japan's plans to link economic assistance to developing countries' arms sales and purchases. He is also likely to highlight Japanese efforts to persuade North Korea to accept IAEA safeguards.

Kaifu took office after his two predecessors had resigned because of scandals and the LDP had lost its majority in the upper house election in July 1989. In early 1990 Kaifu won praise from the public for his diplomatic successes in bilateral and multilateral forums with Western leaders and Asian neighbors: his meeting with President Bush in February 1990 in Palm Springs, his management of the Structural Impediments Initiative, and his performance at the 1990 economic summit in Houston. Before becoming Prime Minister, Kaifu was best known for his work on educational reform and youth affairs during two tours as Education Minister (1976-77, 1985-86). Kaifu comes from the small LDP faction led by Toshio Komoto and was a protege of the late reformist Prime Minister Takeo Miki.

Career and Personal Data

Kaifu was born on 2 January 1931 to an old landowning family. In 1945 he was a student worker in an aircraft factory. He was a candidate for the Wartime Youth Air Corps, but he was too young to serve in World War II. He holds a law degree from Waseda University. In the mid-1950s he pursued graduate studies there and learned politics as a private secretary to Kinsho Kono, who was then a member of the Diet. After the death of

(cont.)

Kono in 1958, his widow held the seat for one term before ceding it to Kaifu. Now in his 11th term, Kaifu has served as parliamentary vice minister of labor, lower house Steering Committee chairman, LDP National Organization Committee chairman, and LDP Youth Department chief.

Kaifu visited the United States in 1962 on a Foreign Leader Grant to observe youth activities of US political parties and in 1974 with a delegation from the LDP Textile Industry Promotion Committee. He is widely known as an eloquent speaker in the Diet. He enjoys photography, swimming, oil painting, and reading historical novels. He understands some English. His signature polka-dot neckties—over 600—include many that were given to him by his constituents. He and his wife, Sachiyo, have a son and a daughter.

27 June 1991

Noboru TAKESHITA **JAPAN**
(Phonetic: tahkehshtah)

Member, House of Representatives (since 1958)

Addressed as: Mr. Takeshita


©

Before the Recruit scandal gradually weakened his administration, Former Prime Minister (November 1987 – June 1989) Noboru Takeshita had established himself as a strong Prime Minister and leader. Although he stepped down to take responsibility for the scandal, he leads the Liberal Democratic Party's (LDP) largest faction and remains one of the most powerful politicians in Tokyo. As Prime Minister, Takeshita made numerous overseas visits—to an ASEAN summit, the United States, South Korea, China, and Europe—to promote a greater political role for Japan in world affairs. To this end he emphasized his country's commitment to increasing foreign aid and involvement in peacekeeping efforts. He also pursued his *furusato* program, an attempt to decentralize government functions outside Tokyo and stimulate regional economic growth through increased government spending on local infrastructure projects.

Takeshita was born on 26 February 1924. He graduated from Waseda University in 1947. He taught junior high school and served in the Shimane Prefectural Assembly before being elected to the Diet in 1958. A protege of Prime Minister (1964-72) Eisaku Sato, he served as Chief Cabinet Secretary under Sato during 1971—the youngest man ever to hold that post. He became Chief Cabinet Secretary for a second time under Prime Minister (1972-74) Kakuei Tanaka in 1974. Takeshita served as Minister of Construction in 1976. He was senior deputy secretary general of the LDP during 1981-82. He has served twice as Minister of Finance (1979-80 and 1982-86). From 1986 until assuming the presidency, he was LDP secretary general—the number-two party post.

The son of a successful sake brewer, Takeshita describes himself as a simple country boy. In his younger days he competed in sumo and judo. He plays golf, enjoys reading, and has a great interest in the fine arts, especially Japanese painting. Takeshita also serves as chairman of the Japan Yachting Association. He is the author of six books, including *Seeking After the Path* and *Wonderful Japan.* He once taught English at the high school level. He received an honorary doctorate in law from Columbia in 1986. He and his second wife, Naoko, have three married daughters.

12 March 1990

Shin KANEMARU **JAPAN**
(Phonetic: kahnehmahroo)

Member, House of Representatives (since 1958)

Addressed as: Mr. Kanemaru



Shin Kanemaru is widely recognized as a master politician who maintains good relations with Diet members throughout the opposition and the various factions of the ruling Liberal Democratic Party (LDP). Although he has no official role in the government or Cabinet, he is an influential power broker in the LDP. He coleads the party's largest faction, and, according to press reports, he maintains considerable influence over party finances.

During his visit to North Korea in September 1990, Kanemaru won praise for obtaining the release of two Japanese sailors who had been held by North Korea for seven years and for helping to pave the way for the ongoing normalization talks between P'yongyang and Tokyo. However, Kanemaru's trip also triggered widespread criticism from the public and from Diet members because he signed a communique implying that Japan would pay greater postwar reparations to North Korea than it paid to South Korea in 1965.

Kanemaru was born on 17 September 1914. He graduated from the Tokyo College of Agriculture in 1937. After teaching in public schools for a few years, he started a small building supply firm in his hometown. He subsequently founded a winery and a sake brewery and became one of the largest wine merchants in Yamanashi, his home prefecture. First elected to the Diet in 1958, Kanemaru has been returned to the legislature in all subsequent elections. During his 11 terms he has held a series of important posts, including those of Deputy Prime Minister, LDP secretary general, and director general of the National Land Agency. He has also served as Minister of Construction and director general of the Japan Defense Agency. He currently heads the Japanese Center for Strategic Studies, a conservative think tank that provides defense policy studies to the government.

Kanemaru and his wife, Reiko, have three sons, one of whom is married to the daughter of former Prime Minister Noboru Takeshita.

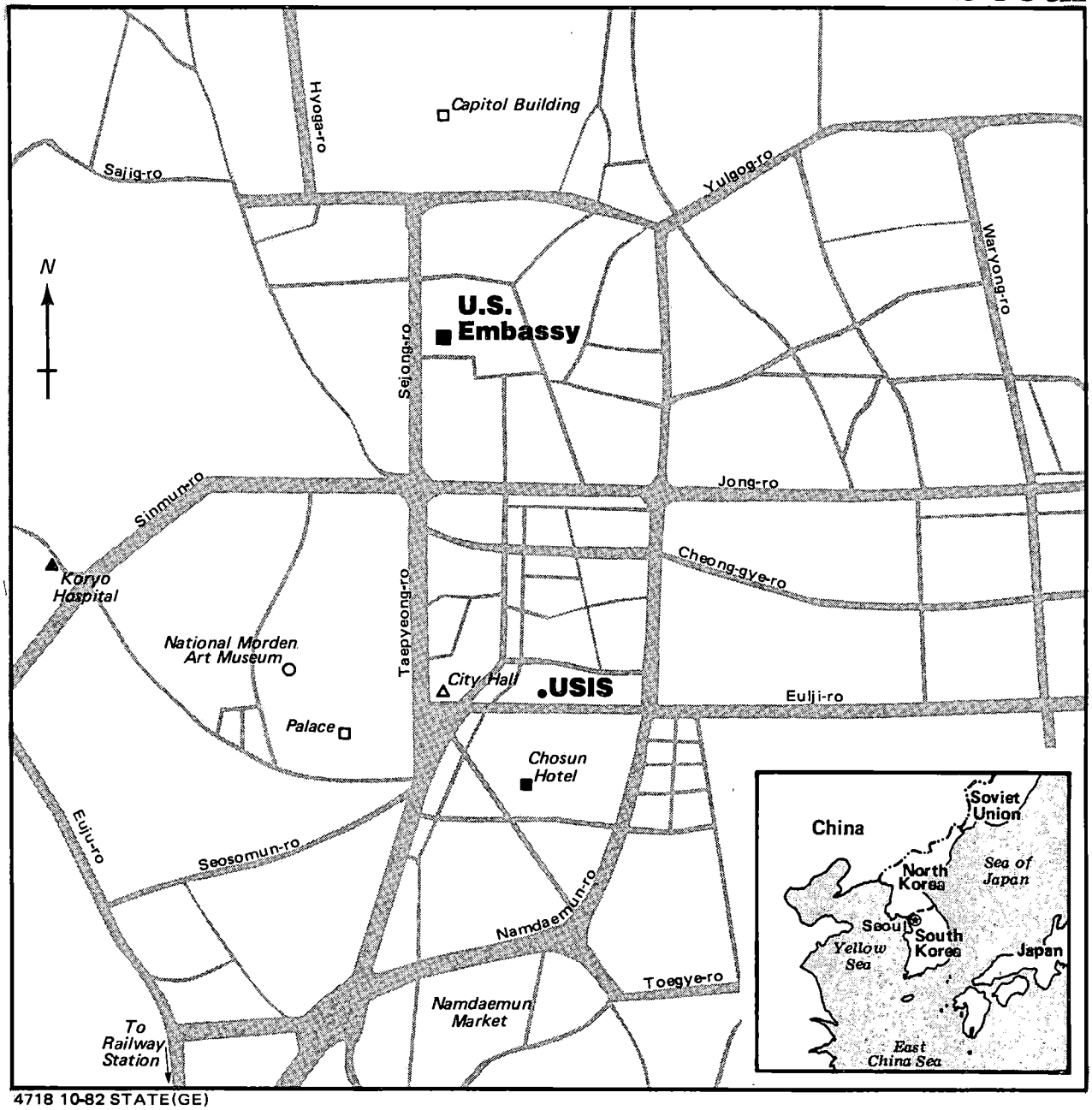
19 March 1991

The Korean Peninsula



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Seoul



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background notes

South Korea

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

April 1991



Official Name: Republic of Korea

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 98,500 sq. km. (38,000 sq. mi.); about the size of Indiana. **Cities:** *Capital*—Seoul (10 million). *Other major cities*—Pusan (3.5 million), Taegu (2 million), Inchon (1.4 million). **Terrain:** Partially forested mountain ranges separated by deep, narrow valleys; cultivated plains along the coasts, particularly in the west and south. **Climate:** Temperate.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Korean(s). **Population** (1988): 43 million. **Annual growth rate:** 1%. **Ethnic groups:** Korean; small Chinese minority. **Religions:** Buddhism, Christianity, Shamanism, Confucianism. **Language:** Korean. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—6. *Number of students*—11,182,000. *Attendance* (1988)—of those eligible, 99% attended middle school, 94% attended high school. *Literacy*—98%. **Health** (1987): 1 doctor/1,000 persons. *Infant mortality rate* (1988)—6/1,000. *Life expectancy* (1988)—men 67 yrs., women 73 yrs. **Work force** (17 million, 1988): *Agriculture*—21%. *Industry*—28%. *Services*—50%.

Government

Type: Republic with powers shared between the president and the legislature. **Independence:** August 15, 1948. **Constitution:** July 17, 1948; last revised 1987.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state). *Legislative*—unicameral National Assembly. *Judicial*—Supreme Court and appellate courts, Constitutional Court.

Subdivisions: 9 provinces, 6 administratively separate cities (Seoul, Pusan, Inchon, Taegu, Kwangju, Taejon).

Political parties: *Government party*—Democratic Liberal Party (DLP). *Opposition parties*—New Democratic Union (NDU) and Democratic Party (DP). **Suffrage:** Universal at 20.

Central government budget (1991): *Expenditures*—$38 billion.

Defense: $11 billion, about 4% of GNP in real terms and 29% of government budget; about 650,000 troops.

Flag: Centered on a white field is the ancient Chinese symbol of yin and yang; at each corner of the white field is a different trigram of black bars.

Economy

GNP (1990 est.): $224 billion. **Annual growth rate** (1965-86): 7%; (1986-88): 12%; (1990 est.): 9%. **Per capita GNP:** $5,500. **Consumer price index** (1990 avg. increase): 9%.

Natural resources: Limited coal, tungsten, iron ore, limestone, kaolinite, and graphite.

Agriculture, including forestry and fisheries (9% of 1990 GNP): *Products*—rice, barley, vegetables. *Arable land*—22% of land area.

Mining and manufacturing (35% of 1990 GNP): Textiles, footwear, electronics, shipbuilding, motor vehicles, petrochemicals, industrial machinery.

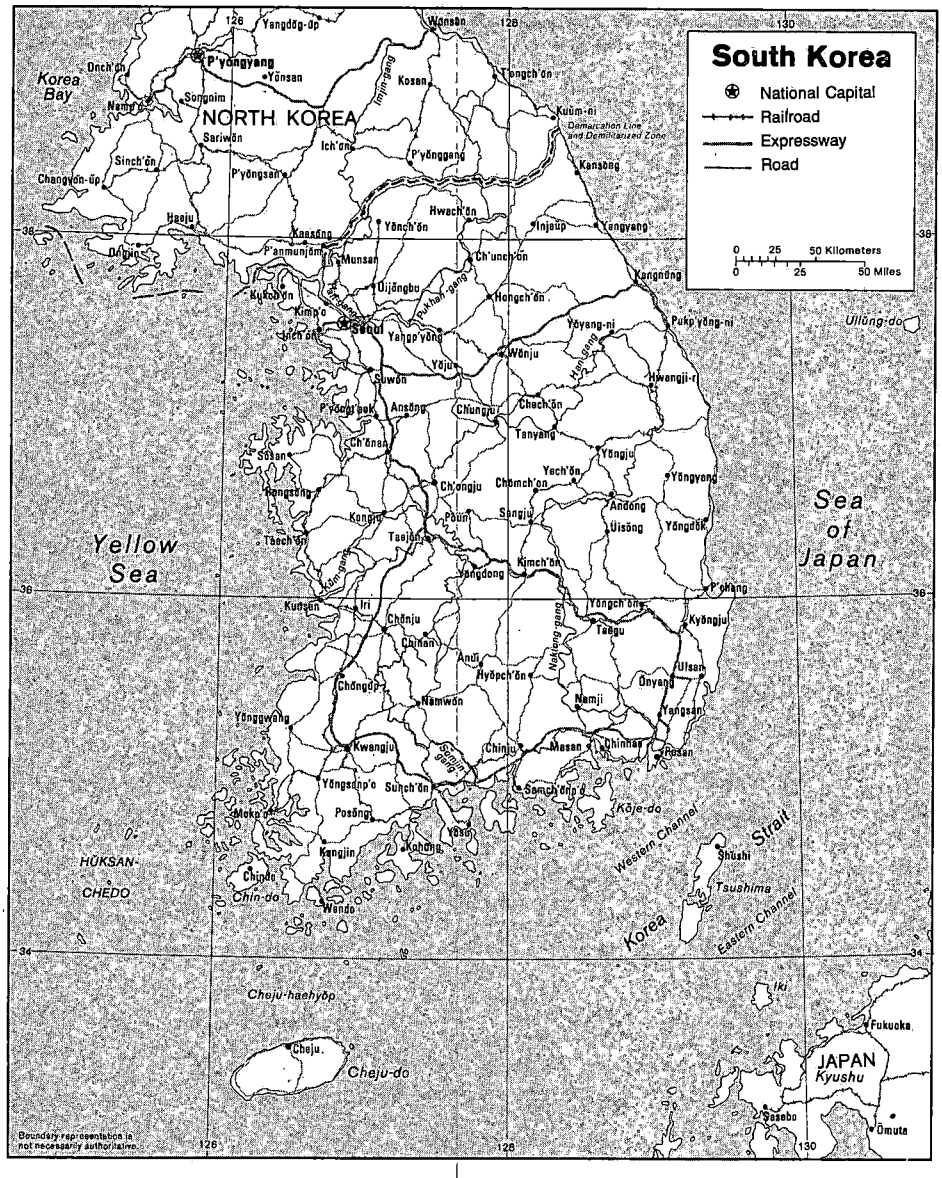
Trade (1990): *Exports*—$65 billion: manufactures, textiles, ships, electronics, footwear, steel. *Major markets*—US, Japan, European Community, Middle East. *Imports*—$70 billion: crude oil, food, machinery and transportation equipment, chemicals and chemical products, base metals and articles. *Major suppliers*—Japan, US, Middle East.

Official exchange rate (December 1990): 715 won=US$1.

Fiscal year: Calendar year.

Membership in International Organizations

Official observer status at UN; active in many UN specialized agencies (FAO, GATT, IAEA, IBRD, ICAO, IDA, IFAD, IFC, IMF, IMO, ITU, UNCTAD, UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNIDO, UPU, WHO, WIPO, WMO, WTO) and other international organizations (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Geneva Conventions of 1949 for the Protection of War Victims, Asian Development Bank, INTELSAT, the Administrative Council of the International Telecommunications Council, International Whaling Commission, Interparliamentary Union, INTERPOL); official observer status in African Development Bank (member of Africa Development Fund), International Labor Organization, and Organization of American States.



PEOPLE

Korea was first populated by a Tungusic branch of the Ural-Altaic family, which migrated to the peninsula from the northwestern regions of Asia. Some also settled parts of northeast China (Manchuria); Koreans and Manchurians still show physical similarities—in their height, for example. Koreans are racially and linguistically homogeneous, with no sizeable indigenous minorities, except Chinese (50,000).

South Korea's major population centers are in the northwest area of Seoul-Inchon and in the fertile southern plain. The mountainous central and eastern areas are sparsely inhabited. Between 1925 and 1940, the Japanese colonial administration in Korea concentrated its industrial development efforts in the comparatively underpopulated and resource-rich north, resulting in a considerable migration of people to the north from the southern agrarian provinces. This trend was reversed after World War II, when more than 2 million Koreans moved from the north to the south following the division of the peninsula into US and Soviet military zones of administration. This southward migration continued after the Republic of Korea was established in 1948 and during the Korean war (1950-53). About 10% of the people in the Republic of Korea are of northern origin. With 43 million people, South Korea has one of the world's highest population densities—much higher, for example, than India or Japan—while the territorially larger North has about only 20 million people. Ethnic Koreans now residing in other countries live mostly in China (2.6 million), Japan (700,000), the United States (1.2 million), and the Soviet Union (500,000).

Language

Korean is a Uralic language, remotely related to Japanese, Hungarian, Finnish, and Mongolian. Although dialects exist, the Korean spoken throughout the peninsula is mutually comprehensible. Chinese characters were used to write Korean before the Korean Hangul alphabet was invented in the 15th century. These characters are still in limited use in South Korea, but the North uses Hangul exclusively. Many older people retain some knowledge of Japanese from the colonial period (1910-45), and most educated Koreans can read English, which is taught in all secondary schools.

Religion

Korea's traditional religions are Shamanism and Buddhism. Although Buddhism has lost some influence since the 15th century, it still commands the greatest number of adherents of any faith—about 20% of the population. Shamanism (traditional spirit worship) is still practiced in some rural areas. Although Confucianism remains the dominant cultural influence, its religious adherents are few and tend to be elderly.

Christian missionaries arrived in Korea in the 19th century and founded schools, hospitals, and other modern institutions throughout the country. Today, nearly 7 million Koreans, or 16% of the population, are Christians (about 78% Protestant)—the largest figure for any East Asian country except the Philippines. There are estimated to be 4 million adherents of *Chondogyo*, a native religion founded in the mid-19th century that fuses elements of Confucianism and Christianity.

HISTORY

According to Korean legend, the god-king Tangun founded the Korean nation in BC 2333, after which his descendants reigned over a peaceful kingdom for more than a millennium. By the first century AD, the Korean Peninsula, known as Chosun ("morning calm"), was divided into the kingdoms of Silla, Koguryo, and Paekche. The Silla kingdom unified the peninsula in

AD 668. The Koryo dynasty (from which is derived the Western name "Korea") succeeded the Silla kingdom in 935. The Yi dynasty, which supplanted Koryo in 1392, lasted until the Japanese annexed Korea in 1910.

Throughout most of its history, Korea has been invaded, influenced, and fought over by its larger neighbors. Korea was under Mongolian occupation from 1231 until the early 14th century and was devastated by a large number of Chinese rebel armies in 1359 and 1361; the Japanese warlord Hideyoshi launched major invasions in 1592 and 1597. In the mid-19th century under the Yi kings, Korea adopted a closed-door policy to ward off Western encroachment, earning Korea the name of "Hermit Kingdom." Although the Yi Dynasty paid nominal fealty to the Chinese throne, Korea was, in fact, independent until the late 19th century. At that time, Japanese, Chinese, and Russian competition in Northeast Asia led to armed conflict. Japan defeated its two competitors and established dominance in Korea, formally annexing it in 1910. The Japanese colonial era, which lasted until the end of World War II, was characterized by tight control from Tokyo and ruthless efforts to supplant Korean language and culture. Korean resistance to such colonialism, notably in the 1919 Independence Movement, failed.

At the April 1945 Yalta Conference, the United States and the Soviet Union agreed to establish a joint trusteeship for Korea. The trusteeship was intended as a temporary administrative measure pending democratic elections of a Korean government. The US proposed—and the Soviet Union agreed—that Japanese forces surrender to US forces south of the 38th parallel and to Soviet forces north of that line.

In the north, the Soviets initially transferred the administrative powers of the former Japanese colonial government to "people's committees," and later to a 5-province administrative bureau under the nationalist, Cho Man-Sik. Cho was later purged by the Soviets for opposing the decision of allied foreign ministers at the Moscow Conference in December 1945 for a 5-year trusteeship, during which a Korean provisional government would prepare for full independence.

In the south, the US military government in Korea (1945-48), headed by Lt. Gen. John R. Hodge, was marked by uncertainty and an unclear US policy toward Korea. The Moscow conference's decision for a trusteeship also generated a firestorm of protest in South Korea. Trusteeship was unacceptable to nationalist leader Syngman Rhee and other rightist Korean leaders associated with the provisional government established in Shanghai in 1919 by Korean nationalists living abroad. It was also opposed by groups within southern Korea who had established local self-governing bodies after the Japanese surrender.

The US military government initially relied on the advice of conservative elements but later tried to put together a moderate coalition to provide it with a broader base of political support. In December 1946, the military government established an interim legislative assembly to draft legislation and appointed moderates to half the seats. (The others were indirectly elected seats that went to rightists.) But the July 1947 assassination of a prominent leftist in the coalition and the decision of a coalition moderate to enter into unification talks with the north led to the demise of the coalition effort.

The joint Soviet-American commission provided for by the Moscow conference met intermittently in Seoul but became deadlocked over the issue of free consultations with representatives of all Korean political groups for establishment of a national government. The US submitted the Korean question to the UN General Assembly for resolution in September 1947.

Korean Conflict

The Soviet Union and the Korean authorities in the north ignored the UN General Assembly resolution of November 1947, which called for UN-supervised elections throughout Korea. Elections, nonetheless, were carried out under UN observation in the south, and on August 15, 1948, the Republic of Korea (ROK) was established. Syngman Rhee, became the republic's first president. On September 9, 1948, the Soviet Union established the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) in the north under Kim Il Sung, a former anti-Japanese guerrilla who served with the Soviet Army in the Far East during World War II.

Guerrilla fighting between southern and northern forces intensified during 1948-50. During this period, although the US provided modest military aid to the south, it planned and executed a withdrawal of its occupation forces which was completed by June 1949.

A year later, on June 25, 1950, North Korean forces invaded South Korea. The UN, in accord with its charter, engaged in its first collective action by establishing the UN Command (UNC), under which 16 member nations sent troops and assistance to South Korea. At the request of the UN Security Council, the United States, which contributed the largest contingent, led this international effort.

After initially falling back to the Pusan perimeter, UN forces conducted a successful surprise landing at Inchon and rapidly advanced up the peninsula. As the main UN force approached the Yalu River, large numbers of Chinese "people's volunteers" intervened, forcing UN troops to withdraw south of Seoul. The battle line seesawed back and forth until the late spring of 1951, when a successful offensive by UN forces was halted to enhance ceasefire negotiations prospects. The battle line thereafter stabilized north of Seoul near the 38th parallel.

Armistice negotiations began in July 1951, but hostilities continued until July 27, 1953. On that date at Panmunjom, the military commanders of the North Korean Army, the Chinese People's Volunteers, and the UNC signed an armistice agreement. Neither the United States nor South Korea is a signatory of the armistice per se, though both adhere to it through the UNC. No comprehensive peace agreement has replaced the 1953 armistice pact, which remains in force. Thus, a condition of belligerency still exists on the divided peninsula. A Military Armistice Commission (MAC), composed of 10 members, five appointed by each side, supervises implementation of the armistice.

In April 1954, an international conference on Korea met in Geneva but ended without agreement or progress after 7 weeks of futile debate.

Postwar Developments

Syngman Rhee served as president of the Republic of Korea until April 1960, when university students forced him to step down. A caretaker government was established, the constitution was amended, and national elections were held in June. The opposition Democratic Party easily defeated Rhee's Liberals, and the new National Assembly named Chang Myon prime minister in August. Chang's democratic but ineffectual government—

the Second Republic—lasted until May 1961, when it was overthrown in an army coup led by Maj. Gen. Park Chung Hee. After 2 years of military government under Park, civilian rule was restored with the advent of the Third Republic in 1963. Park, who had retired from the army, was elected president (and was reelected in 1967, 1971, and 1978).

In 1972, a popular referendum approved the *Yushin* (revitalizing) constitution, greatly strengthening presidential and executive branch powers. Key provisions included indirect election of the president, presidential appointment of one-third of the national assembly, and presidential authority to issue decrees restricting civil liberties in times of national emergency. Park subsequently issued several such decrees; the best-known of these, EM-9, banned discussion of false rumors, criticism of the constitution or advocacy of its reform, and political demonstrations by students.

The Park era, marked by rapid industrial modernization and extraordinary economic growth, ended with his assassination in October 1979. Prime Minister Choi Kyu Ha assumed office briefly (the Fourth Republic), promising a new constitution and presidential elections. In December 1979, Maj. Gen. Chun Doo Hwan and close military colleagues removed the army chief of staff and soon effectively controlled the government.

University student-led demonstrations spread in the spring of 1980. The government declared martial law in mid-May, banned all demonstrations, and arrested many political leaders and dissidents. Special forces units in the city of Kwangju reacted harshly to any who ignored the ban, setting off a confrontation which left 200 civilians dead. This incident left a wound that has proven slow to heal. By September 1980, President Choi had been forced to resign, and General Chun, by then retired from the army, was named president.

In October 1980, a referendum approved a new constitution, beginning the Fifth Republic. This document retained key features of earlier ones, including a strong executive and indirect election of the president, but limited the chief executive to one 7-year term. Elections were held in early 1981 for a National Assembly and an electoral college; the latter elected President Chun to a 7-year term (1981-1988).

Although martial law ended in January 1981, the government retained broad legal powers to control dissent. An active and articulate minority of students, intellectuals, clergy, and others remained critical of the Chun government and demonstrated against it. Demonstrations at Inchon in May 1986 and at Konkuk University in fall 1986 were marred by violence.

In April 1986, the president responded to a signature campaign by the opposition New Korea Democratic Party (NKDP), which called for direct election of the next president by amending the constitution. The NKDP soon split into two opposition parties—Kim Dae Jung's Peace and Democracy Party (PPD) and Kim Young Sam's Reunification Democratic Party (RDP). They agreed on eight demands for reform including constitutional revision, repeal or revision of onerous laws, and release of political prisoners.

President Chun, who could not succeed himself, pledged in early 1987 that he would step down at the end of his term in February 1988. Chun suspended all discussion of constitutional revision in June 1987, and the ruling Democratic Justice Party approved Chun's hand-picked successor, Roh Tae Woo. Students, and then the general public, took to the streets to protest Chun's suspension of constitutional revision. On June 29, in a surprise move, presidential candidate Roh Tae Woo distanced himself from President Chun by announcing that he would implement democratic reforms if elected. The constitution was revised in October to include direct presidential elections and a strengthened National Assembly consisting of 299 members.

In December 1987 Roh Tae Woo won with 37% of the vote in the first direct presidential election since 1971. The two leading opposition leaders, Kim Dae Jung and Kim Young Sam, unable to agree on a single candidate, both ran and lost. Kim Dae Jung, Kim Young Sam, and former prime minister Kim Jong Pil polled 27, 28 and 10%, respectively.

The new constitution entered into force in February 1988, when President Roh assumed office. Elections for the national assembly were held on April 26. In a stunning upset, President Roh's ruling Democratic Justice Party (DJP) won only 34% of the popular vote, thereby losing control of the assembly for the first time since 1952. The final count was 125 seats for the DJP, 70 seats for Kim Dae Jung's Party for Peace and Democracy (PPD), 59 seats for Kim Young Sam's Reunification Democratic Party (RDP), 35 seats for Kim Jong Pil's New Democratic Republican Party (NDRP), and 10 for independent candidates.

The new opposition-dominated national assembly quickly challenged the president's prerogatives. In July 1988 it turned down President Roh's choice for chief of the Supreme Court. In the fall, the assembly conducted the first government audit in 16 years and began televised hearings into practices and policies of former President Chun's Fifth Republic. By late November, Chun was forced to make a public apology to the nation, turn over his personal wealth to the nation, and go into internal exile in a Buddhist temple. In December, the government and the assembly for the first time worked together to pass the budget, which the government had previously handed down.

After months of speculation and demands from the opposition that President Roh hold the interim assessment on his administration that he had promised while campaigning, Roh decided in March 1989 to postpone the evaluation indefinitely, citing the unstable political situation. Labor, farmer, and student unrest continued despite Roh's promises of further reforms.

In April 1989, the government began cracking down against leftist elements it maintained were destabilizing the country. The nation was shocked by the deaths of seven policeman in Pusan in a confrontation with students. This was soon followed by the illegal visit of 71-year old dissident Rev. Moon Ik Kwan to North Korea. Rev. Moon embraced North Korean leader Kim Il Sung while in Pyongyang and was arrested upon his return to South Korea. In July, student activist Yim Su Kyong made an unauthorized visit to the North to attend Pyongyang's World Youth Festival and was arrested. In August opposition leader Kim Dae Jung was indicted in connection with unauthorized visits to North Korea by one of his party members, Suh Kyong Won. In October the government acknowledged that 1,315 people had been arrested in the first 9 months of 1989, including 284 for security violations.

South Korean politics have changed dramatically because of the 1988 legislative elections, the assembly's greater powers under the 1987 constitution, and the influence of public opinion. There has been significant political liberalization since 1987, including freedom of the press and greater freedoms of expression and

assembly than in the past. In 1988, the government released several hundred political prisoners and restored the civil rights of former detainees. In 1989, the government asserted its prerogatives to maintain public stability, raising concerns over human rights issues.

The nation was stunned in January 1990 when the 3 political parties led by President Roh, Kim Young Sam, and Kim Jong Pil merged to form a new majority party, the Democratic Liberal Party (DLP). This new alliance left Kim Dae Jung and his Party for Peace and Democracy (PPD) as the primary opposition, since the tiny Democratic Party (DP) controlled just eight seats in the National Assembly. In July 1990, the DLP passed several significant bills without debate, and the PPD and the DP precipitated a legislative crisis by announcing a boycott of the national assembly. The PPD returned to the assembly in November, only after getting assurances on several issues, including greater local autonomy. In March 1990 the ROK held its first local elections in 30 years. Further local elections were planned for June 1991, and the trend toward greater democratization continued to gain momentum.

Principal Government Officials

President—Roh Tae Woo
Prime Minister—Roh Jae Bong
Deputy Prime Minister; Chairman, Economic Planning Board—Lee Seung Yun
Minister of Foreign Affairs—Lee Sang Ock
Minister of National Defense—Lee Jong Ku
Ambassador to the United States—Hyun Hong Choo
Ambassador to the UN—Roe Chang Hee
Speaker of the National Assembly—Park Jyun Kyu

Korea maintains an embassy in the United States at 2320 Massachusetts Avenue NW., Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-939-5600).

ECONOMY

Over the past 25 years, the Republic of Korea's economic growth has been spectacular. Despite the need to maintain a large military, South Korea, one of the world's poorest countries only a generation ago, is now the United States' seventh largest trading partner and a middle-ranking industrial power. Lacking natural resources, Korea's greatest asset is its industrious, literate people.

The division of the Korean peninsula in 1945 created two unbalanced economic units. North Korea inherited most of the peninsula's mineral and hydroelectric resources and most of the heavy industrial base built by the Japanese. South Korea was left with a large, unskilled labor pool and most of the peninsula's limited agricultural resources. Both north and south suffered massive destruction in the Korean war, but an influx of refugees added to the south's economic woes. South Korea began the postwar period with a per capita gross national product (GNP) far below that of the north. It received large amounts of US foreign assistance until the 1970s. All US direct aid was stopped in 1980.

South Korea's meager mineral resources include tungsten, anthracite coal, iron ore, limestone, kaolinite, and graphite. There is no oil, and energy is a continuing concern for the ROK's economic planners. An ambitious program to develop nuclear power is well underway; Korea now has eight nuclear plants in operation, one under construction and two planned. The nation's successful industrial growth program began in the early 1960s, when the Park government instituted sweeping economic reforms emphasizing exports and labor-intensive light industries. The government also carried out a currency reform, strengthened financial institutions, and introduced flexible economic planning.

From 1963 to 1978, real GNP rose at an annual rate of nearly 10%, with average real growth of more than 11% for the years 1973-78. While Korea's national production was rising throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the annual population growth rate declined to the current 1%, resulting in a 20-fold increase in per capita GNP. Per capita GNP, which reached $100 for the first time in 1963, now exceeds $4,000, or four times that of North Korea.

The political and social unrest that followed the 1979 assassination of President Park and the effect of world economic developments, including the drastic increase in world oil prices in 1979, triggered a severe recession in Korea. In the early 1980s, external debt was a serious concern, peaking at $47 billion in 1985. The economy had already recovered somewhat by the spring of 1983 when a strengthening US economy helped stimulate Korean economic performance. From 1986 to 1988, booming exports led once again to high growth rates averaging 12% per year. Current account surpluses reached a total of $14 billion by the end of 1988, at which time foreign debt had decreased to $31 billion—18% of GNP and 44% of exports.

Korea registered bilateral trade surpluses of about $10 billion with the US in 1987 and 1988. In 1989, Korea's global trade and current account surpluses and bilateral surplus with the US declined dramatically, due to a number of factors: appreciation of the *won*, labor disputes, cumulative wage increases and strong domestic demand. The surplus remained approximately $4 billion in 1990. It has yet to be demonstrated, however, whether a structural, lasting decline in Korea's surplus has begun. Long-term growth prospects remain bright. External factors will remain important. Korea continues to emphasize exports, while the quickly expanding domestic market provides greater economy of scale. The ability to adapt to a more open system suitable to a growing democracy and to Korea's greater role in the world economy are important to the continued success of the Korean economy.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

South Korea is committed to peaceful settlement of international differences, a commitment best illustrated by its restrained response to a number of provocations by North Korea over the past 15 years. These include the 1968 Blue House raid, the October 1983 bombing in Rangoon, Burma, which killed six of the ROK's most prominent leaders, and the November 1987 bomb explosion aboard Korean Air Lines flight 858, in which 115 lives were lost. Captured North Korean agents confessed to all of these acts.

South Korea is becoming increasingly active in international affairs. Although not a UN member, it has launched a campaign to join that organization. However, North Korea opposes separate admission to the UN on the grounds that it would perpetuate the division of the peninsula; some of its allies support this contention. South Korea presently has a UN observer mission headed by an ambassador and is active in most UN

specialized agencies. In addition, South Korea has made efforts to join or participate actively in many other international fora, ranging from the Antarctic Treaty to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

South Korea today has diplomatic relations with 148 countries and an even broader network of trading relationships. It has hosted a series of prestigious international events, including the 1988 summer Olympics. A total of 159 countries participated in the Seoul Olympics, making it the largest Olympics ever. Only six nations followed North Korea's call to boycott. Chinese, Soviet, and Eastern European participation in the Seoul Olympics underscored and accelerated President Roh's policy of "Nordpolitik"—the pursuit of wide-ranging relations with socialist nations and contacts and dialogue with North Korea.

Nordpolitik has so far met with notable success. In February 1989, Hungary became the first communist nation to establish full diplomatic relations with the ROK. The ROK now has diplomatic relations with all the countries of Eastern and Central Europe except Albania. Nordpolitik's crowning achievement came in September 1990, when the ROK and USSR opened formal diplomatic relations. In early 1991 the ROK and People's Republic of China exchanged trade offices, a clear sign of improvement in relations and a possible first step toward eventual diplomatic relations.

The South Korean government and politicians have long been concerned over the fate of the 35,000 Koreans on Sakhalin Island, now under Soviet control. Koreans were originally brought to Sakhalin by the Japanese as forced labor. A series of semi-official Korean delegations visited Moscow and Sakhalin in 1989. These contacts resulted in Soviet agreement to increase the flow of ethnic Koreans in Sakhalin allowed to visit South Korea. In addition, 20 first-generation Koreans from Sakhalin were repatriated in 1988 after more than 40 years away from their homeland.

Following the ratification in 1965 of a treaty normalizing relations between Japan and Korea, the two nations have developed an extensive relationship centering on mutually beneficial economic activity. Although the legacy of historic antipathies has at times impeded cooperation, relations at the government level have improved steadily and significantly in the past several years.

Korea's economic growth, energy requirements, and need for basic raw materials and for markets have given economic considerations high priority in the country's foreign policy. In light of these concerns, Korean diplomacy in recent years has also concentrated on broadening its international base of support with Third World nations, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and Middle Eastern states. Korea wants to participate actively in Pacific basin economic affairs. It has offered to host in 1991 the third ministerial meeting on Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation initiated by Australian Prime Minister Hawke.

Negotiating Efforts with North Korea

Throughout the postwar period, both Korean governments have repeatedly affirmed their desire for reunification of the Korean peninsula, but, until 1971, the two governments had no direct, official communication or other contact.

In August 1971, North and South Korea agreed to hold talks through their respective Red Cross societies with the aim of reuniting the many Korean families separated following the division of Korea and the Korean war. After a series of secret meetings, both sides announced on July 4, 1972, an agreement to work toward peaceful reunification and an end to the hostile atmosphere prevailing on the peninsula. Officials exchanged visits and regular communications were established through a south-north coordinating committee and the Red Cross, but the two sides made no substantive progress. These initial contacts quickly broke down and finally ended on August 13, 1973. The breakdown reflected basic differences in approach, with Pyongyang insisting on immediate steps toward reunification before discussing specific issues and Seoul maintaining that, given the long history of mutual distrust, reunification must come through a gradual, step-by-step process.

South Korea maintains that a meaningful dialogue should be based on *de facto* recognition of each other's existing political, social, and economic systems. South Korea supports the recognition of both Koreas by the major powers in the region (US, USSR, PRC, and Japan), and the admission of both Koreas to the United Nations, pending peaceful reunification. North Korea currently rejects these ideas, although it applied for UN membership in 1949 (following the lead of the ROK) and supported a Soviet Union draft in 1957, resubmitted in 1958, which called for "simultaneous UN admission." The North now argues that this proposal would perpetuate the peninsula's division.

Tension between North and South Korea increased dramatically in the aftermath of the 1983 North Korean assassination attempt on President Chun in Burma. North-South sports talks the following spring became acrimonious after the Rangoon bombing. South Korea's suspicions of the north's motives were not diminished by Pyongyang's proposal for "tripartite" talks on the future of the Korean peninsula. This initiative, made public in January 1984, called for talks with the United States in which "South Korean authorities" would be permitted to participate. The tripartite talks would replace the armistice agreement with a peace treaty, which would provide for withdrawal of all US troops and set the stage for a declaration of non-aggression between north and south.

North Korea's offer to provide relief goods to victims of severe flooding in South Korea in September 1984—and South Korean acceptance—led to revived dialogue on several fronts: Red Cross talks to address the plight of separated families, economic and trade talks, and parliamentary talks. However, in January 1986, the north unilaterally suspended all talks, arguing that annual ROK/US military exercises were inconsistent with dialogue. The north also announced a unilateral moratorium on large-scale military exercises and called upon the US and ROK to do the same. The US and the ROK responded by reiterating their longstanding offer to allow DPRK officials to observe exercises and by proposing pre-notification of military exercises. These proposals were rejected by the north, and in 1987 the north resumed large-scale exercises.

In a major new initiative on July 7, 1988, South Korean President Roh Tae Woo called for new efforts to promote exchanges, family reunification, inter-Korean trade and contact in international fora. President Roh called on Korea's friends and allies to pursue contacts with the north and said that the south intended to seek better relations with the USSR and China.

Roh's initiative provided renewed momentum to a dialogue suspended since late 1985. Over the following months, the two sides met several times at Panmunjom to try to arrange a joint meeting of the two Korean parliaments. In early 1989, both sides also met in preliminary meetings to discuss arrangements for prime ministerial-level talks. In other fora, the two national Olympic committees met to discuss forming a joint team for the 1990 Asian Games in Beijing.

In February 1989, North Korea suspended the parliamentary talks over US-ROK military exercises. In April the north suspended the prime ministerial talks and the sports talks until July, blaming South Korea's arrest of a dissident clergyman who visited North Korea without government approval. In the fall of 1989, the dialogue resumed in four fora—athletic, Red Cross, parliamentary, and prime ministerial. In the Red Cross talks, there were attempts to reach agreement on reunions of separated family members and exchanges of cultural arts troupes.

Prime ministerial-level talks were initiated in 1990. Delegations met three times, although little concrete progress was made. The north cancelled the fourth meeting, scheduled for February 1991, once again citing annual exercises as the reason.

Hopes for a summit (proposed repeatedly in the past) have also been unfulfilled. President Roh, in a speech to the UN General Assembly in October 1988, offered to go to Pyongyang at any time to discuss any issue, including North Korea's call for a mutual declaration of non-aggression. North Korean President Kim Il Sung did not respond positively. Kim had earlier stated that a summit must first take up his proposal for Koryo confederation and withdrawal of US forces. In his 1989 New Year's address, Kim suggested that Roh come to Pyongyang as a party head in a group with southern opposition and dissident leaders. However, he later referred to Roh by his official title and, in his 1991 New Year's address, offered a revised version of his confederal proposal in which he suggested that regional governments would exercise independent foreign and defense policy.

Following the ROK government's 1988 decision to allow trade with the DPRK, South Korean firms began to import North Korean goods, all via third-country contracts. The DPRK has denounced and denied this trade. Nevertheless, the north publicized a late January 1989 visit by Hyundai Corporation founder Chong Chu Yong as well as a private protocol he signed to develop tourism and other projects in the north.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—Donald P. Gregg
Commander in Chief, UNC—
Gen. Robert RisCassi
Deputy Chief of Mission—
Raymond F. Burghardt
Counselor for Political Affairs—
E. Mason Hendrickson, Jr.
Counselor for Economic Affairs—
Richard Morford
Counselor for Administrative Affairs—
Oliver P. Garza
Counselor for Public Affairs—
John Fredenberg
Consul General—Edward H. Wilkinson
Counselor for Commercial Affairs—
Peter Frederick
Counselor for Agricultural Affairs—
George J. Pope
Chief, Joint US Military Advisory Group, Korea—
Gen. Robert J. Jellison
Defense Attache—
Col. William McKinney, USA

The US Embassy is located at 82 Sejong-Ro, Chongro-Ku, Seoul; APO San Francisco 96301. Tel. 82-2-732-2601, Fax no. 82-2-738-8845.

The US Agricultural Trade Office is located at 63, 1-Ka, Ulchi-Ro, Choong-Ku, Seoul. Fax no. 82-2-752-5626.

The US Export Development Office/ US Trade Center is c/o US Embassy. Fax no. 82-2-739-1628. Director: William M. Yarmy.

US-KOREAN RELATIONS

The United States remains committed to maintaining peace and stability on the Korean peninsula. The United States agreed in the 1954 US-ROK Mutual Defense Treaty to help the Republic of Korea defend itself from external aggression. In support of that commitment, the US maintains about 43,000 service personnel in Korea, including the army's Second Infantry Division and several air force tactical squadrons. To coordinate operations between these units and the 650,000-strong Korean armed forces, a combined forces command (CFC) was established in 1978. The CFC is headed by a US general who serves concurrently as commander in chief of the UN Command (CINC-UNC).

Several aspects of the security relationship are changing as the US moves from a leading to a supporting role. South Korea has agreed to pay more of the US defense costs, to fund relocation of the large US headquarters garrison at Yongsan from Seoul, and to accept changes in the CFC command structure.

The United States supports direct, government-to-government talks between the authorities of South and North Korea. The US believes that the fundamental decisions on the future of the Korean peninsula must be taken by the Korean people themselves. Therefore, the US has refused to be drawn into separate negotiations on Korean issues with North Korea, as Pyongyang has insisted.

The most rapidly developing area in Korean-US relations is that of economics and trade. Korea is now its seventh largest trading partner, and the US seeks to improve its trade imbalance, through greater access to Korea's expanding market and improved investment opportunities for US business. Although Korea is reluctant to abandon industrial protection and the state-directed industrial policy which played such an important role in its industrialization, Korean policy-makers increasingly claim to recognize the benefits of liberalized trade for their economy. Korean leaders seem determined to manage successfully

the complex economic relationship with the United States and to take a more active role in international economic fora as befits Korea's status as a major trading nation.

Since the 1950s, the US-Korean relationship has developed into one of the most important in Asia. The 1982 celebration of the centennial of Korean-American diplomatic relations and President Reagan's 1983 visit to Korea underscored the quality of US-Korean relations. In 1989, a succession of high-level visits—President Bush (February), Vice President Quayle (September) and President Roh (October)—reaffirmed a determination to develop and strengthen the bilateral relationship further. President Roh visited the US again in June 1990. ■

TRAVEL NOTES

Climate and clothing: Korea's temperate, four-season climate is like that of the eastern US. Dress is more conservative than in the US.

Visas: Visas are not required of tourists travelling to South Korea if their stay is less than 15 days or if they are simply transiting the country and have a ticket for an onward destination. Tourist visas, which should be obtained from a Korean consulate for longer stays, are issued for a 5-year period with multiple entries, but the length of any one visit should not exceed 90 days. Visas are required for all official and business visitors. No immunizations are required of travelers from the US.

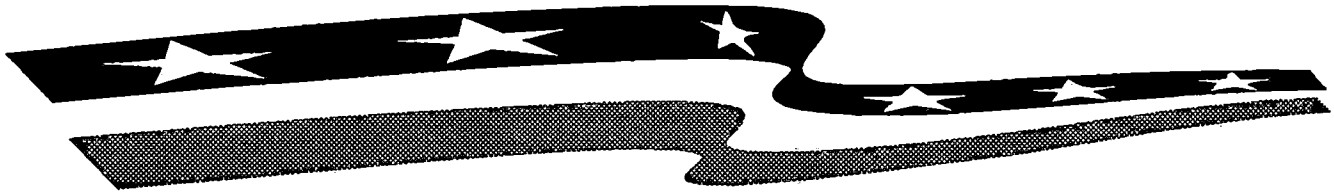
Health: Health services are fair to good in most major cities. Most Korean physicians have been trained in Western medicine, and hospital services are adequate. Outside of the major hotels, water generally is not potable.

Transportation: International airports serve Seoul (Kimpo), Pusan (Kimhae), and Cheju Island. Extensive intercity air, rail, and bus service is available. There is an excellent network of local bus, taxi, and, in Seoul, subway services.

Tele-communications: Seoul is 14 time zones ahead of Eastern Standard Time (13 hrs. during daylight-saving time). International direct-dial service is available to Korea's major cities.

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Biography

U.S. Ambassador to South Korea

Donald P. Gregg was sworn in as Ambassador to the Republic of Korea on September 14, 1989. Prior to his appointment, Ambassador Gregg served as Assistant to the Vice President for National Security Affairs from August 1982 until January 1989, advising the Vice President in the areas of foreign policy, defense, and intelligence.

From June 1951 until his retirement in August 1982 to accept his position with the Office of the Vice President, Ambassador Gregg served with the Central Intelligence Agency, during which time he spent 18 years in Asia; he served in Korea from 1973 to 1975. During the 1975–76 Pike Committee investigation of the CIA, Ambassador Gregg was the Agency contact point. From June 1979 to August 1982, he was seconded to the National Security Council Staff where he was head of the intelligence division of that staff and was responsible for Asian Affairs.

Born in New York City on December 5, 1927, Ambassador Gregg graduated cum laude from Williams College in 1951 with a major in Philosophy. He served in the U.S. Army from 1945 to 1947. He has taught an international affairs workshop to Georgetown University students as part of their Master of Science in Foreign Service program. He speaks Japanese.

Key U.S. Officials

Raymond F. Burghardt, Jr.,
Deputy Chief of Mission, Seoul

E. Mason Hendrickson, Jr.,
Political Affairs Officer, Seoul

Richard A. Morford,
Economic Affairs Officer, Seoul

Peter Frederick,
Commercial Affairs Officer, Seoul

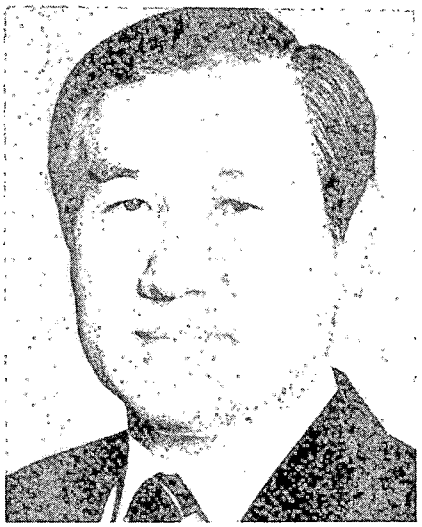
Edward H. Wilkinson,
Consular Affairs Officer, Seoul

Oliver P. Garza,
Administrative Affairs Officer, Seoul

John Fredenburg,
Public Affairs Officer, Seoul

Melvin L. Harrison,
Regional Security Officer, Seoul

ROH Tae Woo **SOUTH KOREA**
(Phonetic: noh)



President (since 1988)

Addressed as: Mr. President

President Roh Tae Woo was elected head of the ruling Democratic Liberal Party (DLP) in May 1990. The DLP became an official party in February 1990 after Roh's Democratic Justice Party (DJP) merged with two opposition groups. As President, Roh is extremely active in foreign affairs; he established diplomatic relations with most East European countries in 1988-89 and with the Soviet Union in October 1990. He also oversaw the opening of a trade office in China in January 1991.

Roh was born on 4 December 1932. He graduated from the Korean Military Academy in 1955 (Class 11) and received additional training at Fort Bragg in 1959 and at the Republic of Korea Army Command and General Staff College in 1967. In the late 1960s he commanded a Korean unit in South Vietnam. Roh has been commanding general of such key units as the Defense Security Command, the 9th Special Warfare Brigade, the Special Warfare Command, and the Capital Security Command. He received his fourth star in July 1980 and retired from the military a year later. He then served briefly as Minister of Sports and as Minister of Home Affairs. Roh was president of the Seoul Olympic Organizing Committee during 1983-86 and won high marks for his handling of the preparations for the 1988 Olympic Games. Former President Chun Doo Hwan selected him as DJP president in August 1987.

Roh enjoys reading and playing golf and tennis. He speaks English. Married, he has a daughter, who heads a business consulting firm in Seoul, and a son, who is a graduate student at Stanford. Roh's name is spelled No Tae-u in the McCune-Reischauer romanization system.

11 June 1991

LEE Sang Ock **SOUTH KOREA**
(Phonetic: yee)



Minister of Foreign Affairs
(since December 1990)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister

A career diplomat with extensive experience in US issues, Lee Sang Ock has publicly stressed the importance of US – South Korean relations. He spent two tours in Washington, during the 1960s and again during the 1970s. Lee was director general of the Foreign Ministry's American Affairs Bureau during 1973-75.

Lee was born on 25 August 1934. He entered the Ministry in 1957 after receiving a bachelor's degree in political science from Seoul National University. He did graduate work at Georgetown during 1959-60. During the mid-1960s he served at the Embassy in Bonn. Lee was secretary for administrative affairs in the Prime Minister's Office in 1976 and then returned to the Ministry to become director of the Office of Planning and Management.

Between 1978 and 1986 he served successively as Ambassador to Singapore, chancellor of the Institute of Foreign Affairs and National Security, assistant minister of political affairs, and Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs. Lee was observer to the UN European Office in Geneva and representative to GATT during 1986-90.

Lee is an avid golfer. He is married to Sin Chung-pil, who studied textile engineering at Seoul National University. The couple has a son and a daughter. Lee's name is spelled Yi Sang-ok in the McCune-Reischauer romanization system.

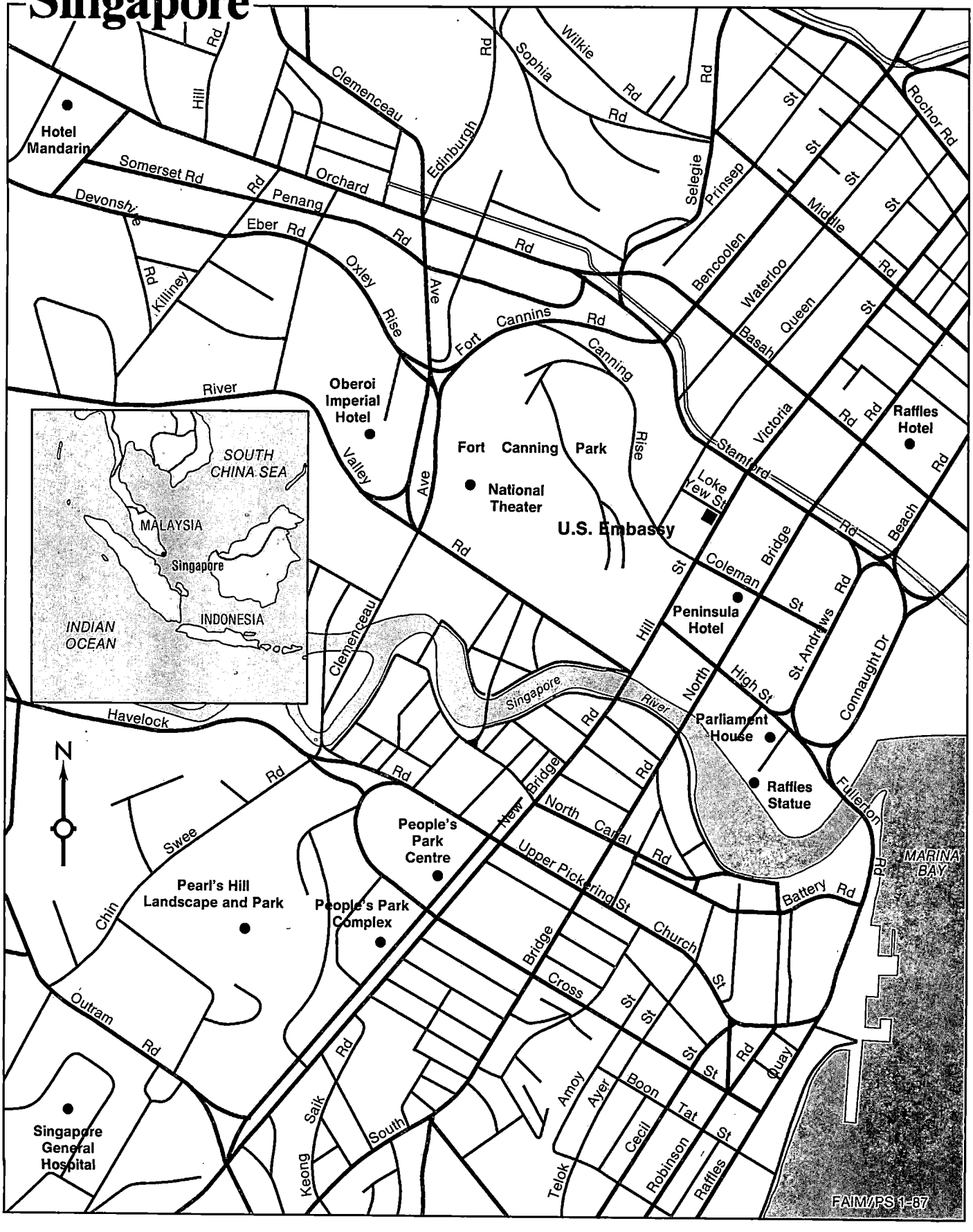
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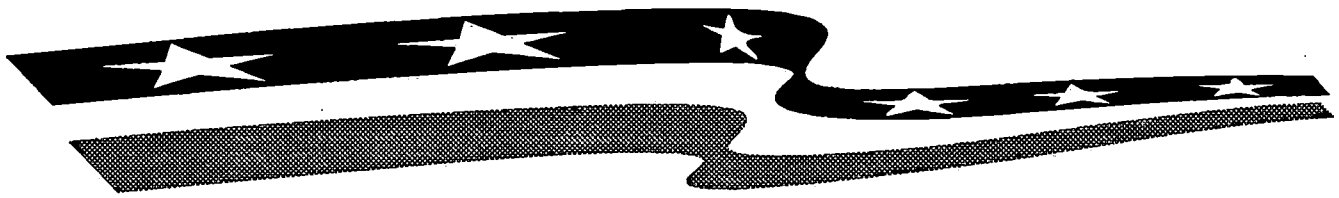


Base 501016 3-73

Central Intelligence Agency

Singapore


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Somerset Rd
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Hill Rd
Clemenceau Rd
Orchard Rd
Penang Rd
Eber Rd
Oxley Rise
Edinburgh Rd
Sophia Rd
Wilkie Rd
Selegie Rd
Prinsep St
Middle St
Rochor Rd
Bencoolen St
Waterloo St
Queen St
Basah Rd
Victoria St
Stamford Rd
Raffles Hotel
Beach Rd
Bridge Rd
Coleman St
Peninsula Hotel
Hill St
North Bridge Rd
High St
St. Andrews Rd
Connaught Dr
Fullerton Rd
Parliament House
Raffles Statue
MARINA BAY
Battery Rd
Church St
Cross St
Boon Tat St
Amoy St
Ayer Quay
Cecil St
Robinson St
Raffles Place
Telok Ayer St
Upper Pickering St
New Bridge Rd
North Canal Rd
People's Park Centre
People's Park Complex
Pearl's Hill Landscape and Park
Chin Swee Rd
Outram Rd
Singapore General Hospital
Keong Saik Rd
South Bridge Rd
Havelock Rd
Clemenceau Ave
Valley Rd
Oxley Rise
Fort Canning Rise
Canning Rise
Fort Canning Park
National Theater
U.S. Embassy
Loke Yew St
Oberoi Imperial Hotel
River
Singapore River
SOUTH CHINA SEA
MALAYSIA
Singapore
INDONESIA
INDIAN OCEAN
N
FAIM/PS 1-87



Currency

Singapore Dollar Conversion Table at S$1.72 = U.S.$

(S Dollar = 100 cents)

Singapore $ to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Singapore $	
S$	U.S.$	U.S.$	S$
0.25	0.15	0.10	0.17
0.50	0.29	0.25	0.43
1.00	0.58	0.50	0.86
1.50	0.87	0.75	1.29
1.72	1.00	1.00	1.72
5.00	2.91	3.00	5.16
10.00	5.81	5.00	8.60
25.00	14.53	10.00	17.20
50.00	29.07	20.00	34.40
100.00	58.14	50.00	86.00
200.00	116.28	100.00	172.00
500.00	290.70	300.00	516.00
1,000.00	581.40	500.00	860.00

Note: All U.S. Dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent. Value of Singapore dollar may vary due to currency market conditions.

background notes

Singapore

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

May 1990



Official Name: Republic of Singapore

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 620 sq. km. (239 sq. mi.). **Cities:** *Capital*—Singapore (country is a city-state). **Terrain:** Lowland. **Climate:** Tropical.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Singaporean(s). **Population** (1988): 2.6 million. **Annual growth rate:** 1.3%. **Ethnic groups:** Chinese 76%, Malays 15%, Indians 7%, others 2%. **Religions:** Buddhist, Taoist, Muslim, Hindu, Christian. **Languages:** English, Mandarin and other Chinese dialects, Malay, Tamil. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—none. *Attendance*—94%. *Literacy*—87.1%. **Health:** *Infant mortality rate*—7.4/1,000. *Life expectancy*—71 yrs. male, 76 yrs. female. **Work force** (1.3 million): *Agriculture*—1.1%. *Industry and commerce*—58.1%. *Services*—33%. *Government*—8.1%.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy. **Constitution:** 1965. **Independence:** August 9, 1965.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state, 4-yr. term); prime minister (head of government). *Legislative*—unicameral 81-member parliament (maximum 5-yr. term). *Judicial*—High Court, Court of Appeal, Court of Criminal Appeal.

Political parties: People's Action Party (PAP), various opposition parties. **Suffrage:** Universal and compulsory.

Central government budget (1986): $10 billion.

Defense (1988): 5% of gross domestic product.

National holiday: August 9.

Flag: Two equal horizontal sections, red over white, with a white crescent and five stars in the upper left corner.

Economy

GDP (1988): $23.9 billion. **Annual growth rate** (1988-in real terms): 11%. **Per capita income:** $8,782. **Avg. inflation rate** (1988): 1.5%.

Natural resources: None.

Agriculture (0.4% of real GDP): *Products*—poultry, orchids, vegetables, fruits.

Industry (17% of real GNP): *Types*—petroleum products, electrical and electronic products, shipbuilding and ship repair, food and beverages, textiles and garments, chemical products.

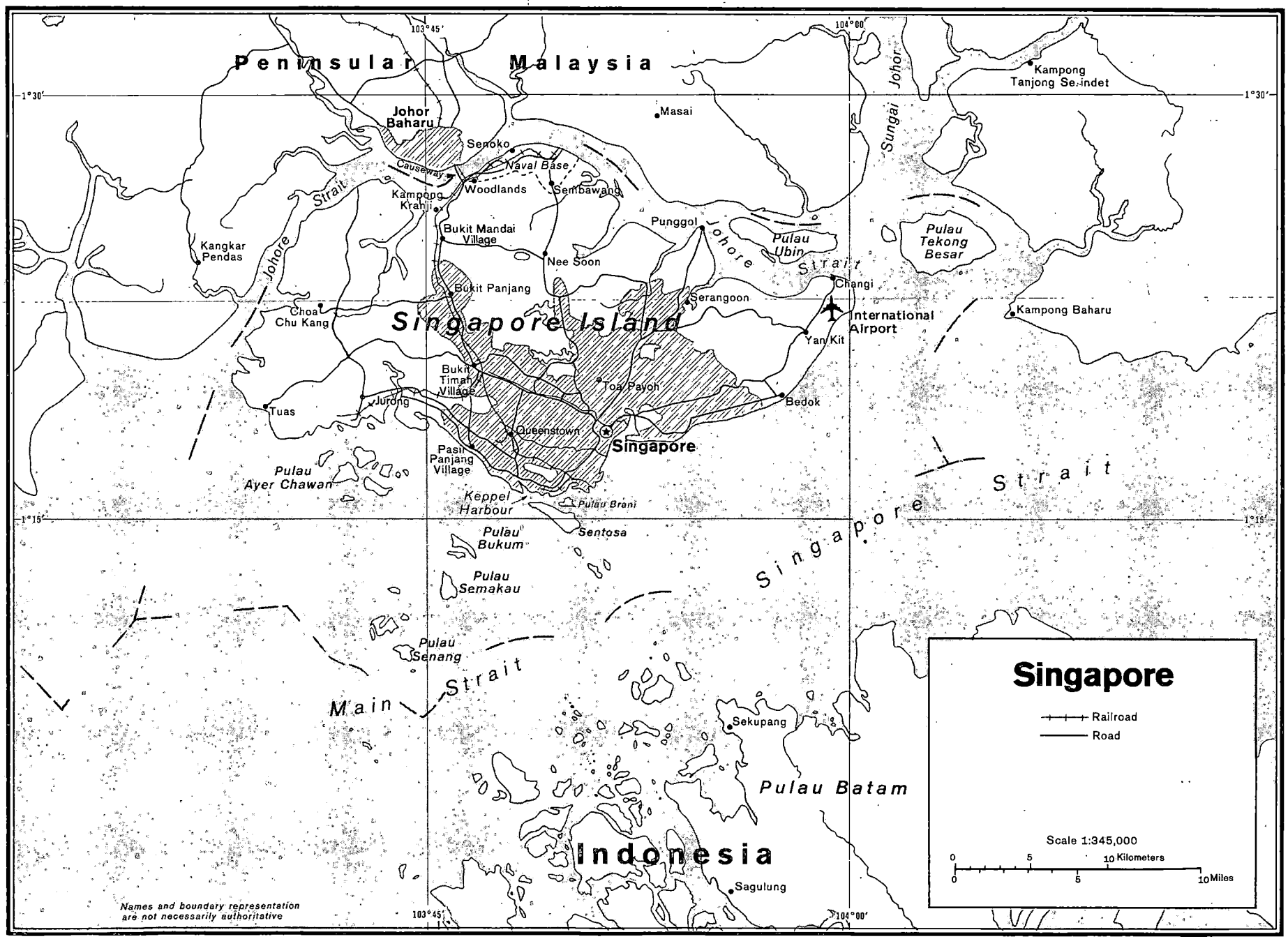
Trade (1988, excluding Indonesian trade, which is not reported by Singaporean authorities): *Exports*—$39 billion: petroleum products, electronics equipment, electrical and nonelectrical machinery, telecommunications apparatus, garments. *Major markets*—US, Malaysia, Japan, European Community (EC). *Imports*—$44 billion: crude oil, machinery, manufactured goods, foodstuffs. *Major suppliers*—US, EC, Malaysia, Japan.

Official exchange rate (avg. 1988): Singapore $2.01=US$1.

Fiscal year: April 1-March 31.

Membership in International Organizations

UN and some of its specialized and related agencies, Commonwealth, Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), Five Power Defense Arrangement, Asian Development Bank (ADB), Colombo Plan, INTELSAT, Nonaligned Movement, Group of 77.

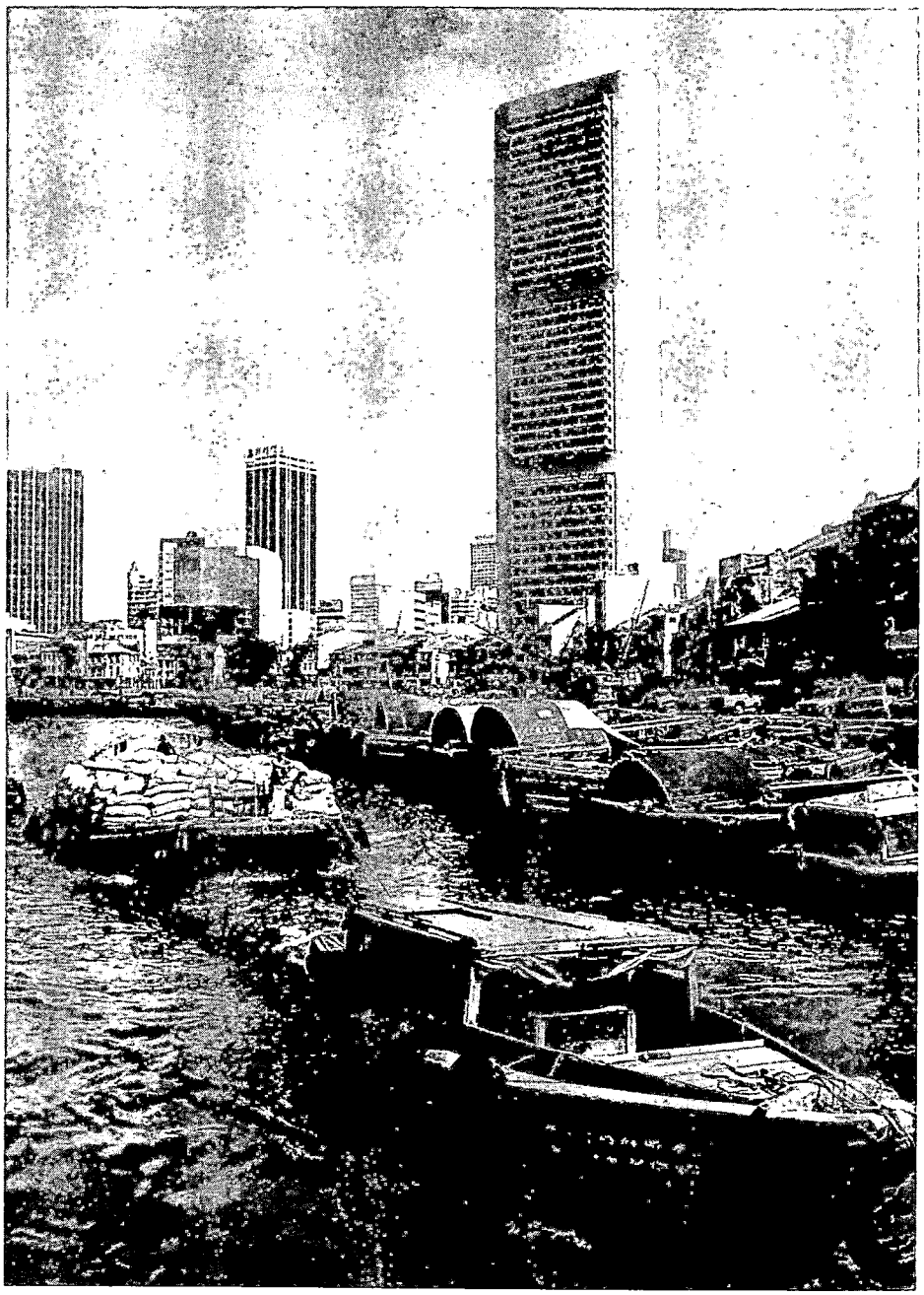

Peninsular Malaysia
103°45'
104°00'
1°30'
1°15'
Johor Baharu
Masai
Kampong Tanjong Se..indet
Sungai Johor
Senoko
Causeway
Naval Base
Woodlands
Sembawang
Kampong Kranji
Bukit Mandai Village
Punggol
Johore Strait
Pulau Ubin
Pulau Tekong Besar
Kangkar Pendas
Nee Soon
Bukit Panjang
Changi
Serangoon
International Airport
Kampong Baharu
Choa Chu Kang
Singapore Island
Yan Kit
Bukit Timah Village
Toa Payoh
Bedok
Tuas
Jurong
Queenstown
Singapore
Pasir Panjang Village
Pulau Ayer Chawan
Keppel Harbour
Pulau Brani
Sentosa
Pulau Bukum
Pulau Semakau
Singapore Strait
Pulau Senang
Main Strait
Sekupang
Pulau Batam
Indonesia
Sagulung
Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative
Singapore
Railroad
Road
Scale 1:345,000
0 5 10 Kilometers
0 5 10 Miles

GEOGRAPHY

Singapore is located in Southeast Asia at the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula and is separated from Malaysia by the Strait of Johore, which is traversed by a 1.2-kilometer (3/4-mi.) causeway carrying a road and a railway. The Singapore Strait separates the country from Indonesia. Singapore is a focal point for Southeast Asian sea routes. Its total land area includes one large island and about 55 nearby islets. The diamond-shaped main island is 41 kilometers (26 mi.) at its broadest from east to west, and 22 kilometers (14 mi.) from north to south.

Much of Singapore is lowland and originally consisted of swamp and jungle. Now mainly urban and industrialized, its geographical features are small in scale—the highest point on the main island, Bukit Timah (Hill of Tin), is only 177 meters (581 ft.) above sea level; the longest river is 14 kilometers (9 mi.) long. A central plateau of about 31 square kilometers (12 sq. mi.) contains a water catchment area and nature preserve. The main urban area lies on the southern part of the island, primarily on land reclaimed from swamp and sea.

Singapore's climate is characterized by warm temperatures, high humidity, and copious rainfall. Virtually no seasonal temperature variation exists. The average maximum temperature is 31 °C (88 °F); the average rainfall is 158 centimeters (62 in.). Singapore has no pronounced wet or dry seasons.



Singapore's modern skyline.

PEOPLE

With a population density of 4,231 persons per square kilometer (10,961 per sq. mi.), Singapore is one of the most densely populated countries in the world. The annual growth rate has fallen, however, from 2.5% in 1965 to 1.3% in 1988. Health standards are high for the region, with about 1 physician for every 837 people (US has about 1 to 700).

Singapore has a varied linguistic, cultural, and religious heritage. Malay is the national language, but Chinese, English, and Tamil also are official languages. English is widely used in professions, businesses, and schools.

The government mandated that English would be the primary language used at all levels of the school systems by 1987, and aims to provide at least 10 years of education for every child. Primary and secondary school students total almost 470,000, or nearly 18% of the entire population. Enrollment at the National University of Singapore is 14,972 and 13,753 at Singapore Polytechnic. The practical engineering-oriented Nanyang Technological Institute, founded in 1981, now has 3,940 students. The overall literacy rate is 87% and is more than 90% for Singaporeans under 35.

Singapore has religious freedom. Almost all Malays are Muslim; other Singaporeans are Hindus, Sikhs, Taoists, Buddhists, Confucianists, and Christians.



A blacksmith for 45 years.

HISTORY

Although Singapore's history dates from the 11th century, little was known about the island until the 19th century, when in 1819, Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles arrived as an agent of the British East India Company. In 1824, the British purchased Singapore Island, and by 1825, the city of Singapore had become a major port, with trade exceeding that of Malaya's Malacca and Penang combined. In 1830, Singapore, Penang, and Malacca were combined as the Straits Settlements to form an outlying residency of the British East India Company; in 1867, the Straits Settlements were made a British Crown Colony, an arrangement that continued until 1946.

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the advent of steamships launched an era of prosperity for Singapore as transit trade expanded throughout Southeast Asia. In the 20th century, the automobile industry's demand for rubber from Southeast Asia and the packaging industry's need for tin helped make Singapore one of the world's major ports. It is now second largest in the world in terms of annual tonnage.

In 1921, the British constructed a naval base, which was soon supplemented by an air base. The Japanese captured the island in February 1942, however, and it remained under their control until September 1945, when it was recaptured by the British.

In 1946, Penang and Malacca were united in a single British Crown Colony called the Federation of Malaya; Singapore remained a separate colony. In 1959, Singapore became self-governing, and, in 1963, it joined the now-independent Federation of Malaya, Sabah, and Sarawak (the latter two former British Borneo territories) to form Malaysia.

Indonesia adopted a policy of "confrontation" against the new federation, charging that it was a "British colonial creation," and severed trade with Malaysia. The move particularly affected Singapore, since Indonesia had been the island's second largest trading partner. The political dispute was resolved in 1966, and Indonesia resumed trade with Singapore.

After a period of friction between Singapore and the central government in Kuala Lumpur, Singapore separated from Malaysia on August 9, 1965, and became an independent republic.

GOVERNMENT

According to the constitution, as amended in 1965, Singapore is a republic with a parliamentary system of government. The president, the ceremonial chief of state, is elected every 4 years by parliament. Political authority rests with the prime minister and the cabinet. The prime minister is the leader of the political party or coalition of parties having the majority of seats in parliament.

The unicameral parliament consists of 81 members (80 of whom are from the governing People's Action Party-PAP) elected on the basis of universal adult suffrage. Up to 3 opposition candidates are invited to become nonconstituent members of parliament after any general election in which less than three opposition candidates are elected. Nonconstituent members may debate but may not vote on constitutional amendments or on bills requiring the expenditure of funds. After the last general election (September 1988), two members were named, one of whom subsequently was disqualified. The maximum term of any one parliament is 5 years. Voting has been compulsory since 1959.

Judicial power is vested in the High Court and Court of Appeal. The High Court exercises original criminal and civil jurisdiction in serious cases as well as appellate jurisdiction from subordinate courts. Its chief justice, senior judge, and six judges are appointed by the president. Appeals from the High Court are heard by the Court of Appeal. Further appeal can be made in certain cases to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council at London.

Principal Government Officials

President—WEE Kim Wee
Prime Minister—LEE Kuan Yew
First Deputy Prime Minister—GOH Chok Tong
Second Deputy Prime Minister—ONG Teng Cheong

Ministers
Communications and Information—YEO Ning Hong
Community Development—WONG Kan Seng
Defense—GOH Chok Tong
Education—Tony TAN
Environment—Ahmad MATTAR
Finance—Richard HU Tsu Tau
Foreign Affairs—WONG Kan Seng
Health (Acting)—YEO Cheow Tong
Home Affairs—S. JAYAKUMAR
Labor—LEEYock San
Law—S. JAYAKUMAR
National Development—S. DHANABALAN
Trade and Industry—LEE Hsien Loong

Ambassador to the United Nations—CHAN Heng Chee
Ambassador to the United States—Tommy KOH Thong Bee

Singapore maintains an embassy in the United States at 1824 R Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20009 (tel. 202–667–7555).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The ruling political party in Singapore (in power since 1959) is the People's Action Party (PAP), headed by Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew. In the 1963 general elections, the PAP won 37 of the 51 seats in parliament. In October 1966, the opposition Barisan Sosialis Party (Socialist Front), a left-wing group that split off from the PAP in 1961, resigned from parliament, leaving the PAP as the sole representative party. In the April 1968 general elections, the PAP won all 58 seats—51 without opposition.

In the general elections of 1972, 1976, and 1980, the PAP won all of the seats in an expanding parliament. In an October 1981 by-election, the PAP lost a seat to the Workers' Party Secretary General J.B. Jeyaretnam, the first time an oppositon party had won a seat since 1963.

In the 1984 elections, the PAP polled 62.9% of the popular vote, a 12% drop from 1980 returns, and lost a second seat. In 1988, the PAP polled 61.9% of the popular vote to win 80 of 81 seats.

Following the 1988 elections, Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew indicated that in 1990 he would retire as head of government but not from politics. First Deputy Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong has been designated to assume the office of prime minister as part of a transition process to a new generation of political leaders.

ECONOMY

Singapore's strategic location and industrious population have given the country an economic importance in Southeast Asia out of proportion to its small size. Following independence, its economy expanded rapidly. Average annual growth in gross domestic product (GDP) during the 1970s was close to 10%, and for 1980–84 it was 8.5%. Following a recession in 1985–86, the economy steadily recovered and registered an impressive 11% GDP growth rate in 1988. The 1988 per capita income, $8,782, is the third highest in Asia after Japan and Brunei. At the end of 1988, official foreign exchange reserves stood at $16.6 billion.

Singapore began as an entrepot (warehousing and transshipment) center for the region but began to industrialize and modernize its infrastructure after independence. The marine and oil services and processing industries were among the leaders in the important manufacturing sector. The late 1970s and early 1980s brought an increasing emphasis on high technology high-value-added goods and services, which made Singapore an electronics and regional banking center. Government policy, aimed at providing modern housing for most of the population by 1990, spurred public and private building, creating a construction and property boom in the early 1980s.

However, by 1984, the government's accelerated construction program was nearly concluded, and there was a massive oversupply of new buildings. Property values tumbled. At the same time, there was a near-collapse of marine and petroleum-related industries worldwide, a shakeout in the US electronics market, and worsening economic conditions in Malaysia and Indonesia. The net result was Singapore's first recession after 21 years of sustained growth. Real GDP growth plummeted to -1.6% in 1985, began to show the first signs of recovery in mid-1986, and has been remarkably buoyant since.

Singapore continues to upgrade worker skills and to search for new products and markets to drive its export-led economy. One major effort is to become a complete business center, offering multinationals a manufacturing base, a developed financial infrastructure, and excellent communications to service regional and world markets.

Trade

In the past, about two-thirds of Singapore's imports and exports consisted of entrepot trade. With rapid industrialization, however, the relative importance of this sector has declined. The trade pattern reflects a shift toward importing capital goods and raw materials for industry and exporting locally manufactured products.

In 1988, the United States was Singapore's largest trading partner.



Major exports to the United States consisted of crude rubber, electronic equipment, electrical machinery, and textile products; major imports from the United States were machinery and other manufactured products.

US Investment and Assistance

The United States is the largest source of foreign investment in Singapore, with more than one-third of all private foreign investment and a quarter of total investment. US private investment played a leading role in Singapore's rapid economic expansion, particularly in general manufacturing, electronics, and in modernizing regional distribution facilities. US activities also include oil refining, shipping, banking, hotels, insurance, and importing and exporting. The resident US business community, including dependents, was estimated at about 5,000 in late 1988. Total US investment in Singapore at the end of 1988 stood at $3 billion, with investment flows continuing at a brisk pace.

The United States has a small military training assistance program with Singapore but provides no other bilateral aid.

Industry

The government's development policy from independence has emphasized industrialization. Separation from Malaysia removed any semblance of a large domestic market, leading naturally to emphasis on manufacturing for export. To support this policy, the government introduced new and remarkably successful financial incentives for export-oriented industry and provided efficient infrastructure for manufacturing. Singapore opened its economy and has pursued a vigorous free-trade policy ever since. Labor legislation enacted in 1968 reduced labor unrest and gave employers more flexibility in hiring and firing. By the early 1980s, Singapore had become a relatively high wage locale by Asian standards, but the government moved in 1985 to restrain wage increases and reduce other costs with a view to making Singapore more competitive.

Several institutions played a key role in carrying out the industrialization policy. The Development Bank of Singapore was responsible for industrial financing. The Jurong Town Corporation was charged with developing industrial estates. Its major achievement, the Jurong Industrial Estate, is a government-planned satellite community devoted to manufacturing, which had more than 1,400 factories in production in the early 1980s and many others in various stages of completion. The government's Economic Development Board has organized a massive program to promote foreign investment in Singapore and has set up a network of offices in Europe, Japan, and the United States (in New York, Los Angeles, Boston, Chicago, and Houston).

These efforts resulted in a dramatic increase in the level of foreign and local investment. From 1962 to 1974, the manufacturing sector grew an average of 20% per year and registered an annual average increase of more than 10% through 1981. After a pause in 1982, growth resumed in 1983. Manufacturing increased as a percentage of total economic activity from 17% in 1960 to 29% in 1988. Extensive petroleum refining operations make that industry—in terms of total value of production—the largest in Singapore. It is closely followed by electronics, transportation equipment and marine services—including ship repair—textiles, electrical machinery, and food industries. The manufacturing sector contracted because of the recession, but the prospects for high-tech manufacturing are still bright.

Construction was the cutting edge of the economy in the early 1980s, providing as much as 30% of total growth. Although the frenzied pace of construction in that period left a massive surplus of offices, hotels, and warehouses, the program also resulted in modern housing for most Singaporeans and an up-to-date system of ports, airports, and roads. Construction of a 66.8-kilometer (41.5-mi.) rapid transit system is underway. The first stage was completed in December 1987.



Agriculture

Singapore's limited agrarian land is devoted primarily to intensive cultivation of vegetables, some poultry and pork, and other food crops. Although rice is a dietary staple, it is not grown domestically. All the island's other food requirements are imported. Singapore is a major exporter of orchids and tropical fish.

Labor

Singapore has a work force of about 1.3 million. The National Trades Union Congress, the sole trade union federation, has 209,000 members or about 98% of total organized labor. Extensive legislation covers general labor and trade union matters. The Industrial Arbitration Court handles labor-management disputes. In recent years, few incidents have occurred to ruffle the generally harmonious state of labor-management relations.

Singapore enjoyed virtually full employment in the early 1980s with an unemployment rate of only 3%. The 1985 recession drove the jobless figure to more than 6% in mid-1986, but with the recovery, it dropped back to 3.3% in mid-1988. Spot labor shortages persist, however, in some growth areas, such as electronics and in industries, such as construction, where foreign workers predominate.

Transportation and Communications

Situated at the crossroads of international shipping and air routes, Singapore is a center for transportation and communication in Southeast Asia. The world's second most active port (after Rotterdam), Singapore handled 153 million tons of cargo in 1988. Singapore is a regional aviation hub served by 50 international airlines. Changi International Airport, opened in 1980, is being expanded. The country also is linked by road and rail to Malaysia and Thailand.

Telecommunications and telephone facilities are modern and comprehensive, providing high-quality communications with the rest of the world. Radio and television stations are government-owned and operated. Privately owned daily newspapers are published in English, Chinese, and Malay.

Further Information

These titles are provided as a general indication of material published on this country. The Department of State does not endorse unofficial publications.

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FOREIGN RELATIONS

Singapore is nonaligned and seeks cordial relations with all nations. As a small country heavily dependent on world trade, it has a special interest in maintaining wide international contacts. It is a member of the Commonwealth and also the United Nations and several of its specialized and related agencies. Singapore supports the concept of Southeast Asian regionalism and plays an active role in the Association of South East Asian Nations, founded in 1967.

DEFENSE

Singapore relies primarily on its own defense forces, which are continuously being modernized. The Singapore armed forces comprises 50,000 army, 3,500 navy, and 6,000 air force personnel. Reserve forces total about 200,000. Singapore is a member of the Five Power Defense Arrangement—United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Malaysia. Designed to replace the former defense role of the British in the Singapore-Malaysia area, the arrangement obligates members to consult in the event of external threat and provides for stationing Commonwealth forces in Singapore.

US-SINGAPORE RELATIONS

The United States has maintained formal diplomatic relations with Singapore since that country became independent in 1965. Singapore's efforts to maintain economic growth and political stability and its support for regional cooperation harmonize with US policy in the region and form a solid basis for amicable relations between the two countries. The growth of US investment in Singapore and the large number of Americans living there enhance opportunities for contact between Singapore and the

Singapore and the United States. Many Singaporeans visit and study in the United States.

The US Government sponsors visitors from Singapore each year under the International Visitor Program. The US Government provides Fulbright awards to enable selected American professors to teach or conduct research at the National University of Singapore and the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies. It awards scholarships to outstanding Singaporean students for graduate studies at American universities and to American students to study in Singapore. The US Government also sponsors occasional cultural presentations in Singapore.

The East-West Center and private American organizations, such as the Asia and Ford Foundations, also sponsor exchanges involving Singaporeans.

Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew has visited the United States several times. He last official visit was in April 1988.

Principal U.S. Officials

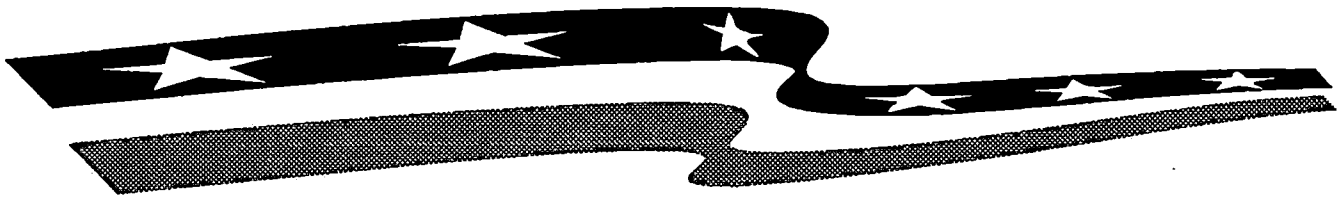
Ambassador—Robert Orr
Deputy Chief of Mission—Arthur Kobler
Economic/Political Counselor—Thomas H. Martin
Political Officer—Edward Dong
Economic Officer—J. Anthony Holmes
Public Affairs Counselor—Richard Gong
Commercial Counselor—George Ruffner
Administrative Counselor—Robert B. Courtney
Defense Attache—Capt. Patrick Cooper, USN

The US Embassy in Singapore is located at 30 Hill Street, Singapore 0617 (tel. 338–0251). ■

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Biography

U.S. Ambassador to Singapore

Robert D. Orr was sworn in as U.S. Ambassador to Singapore on June 29, 1989. He brings a lifetime of state government, business, and military experience to his new assignment. He served most recently as Governor of Indiana for two terms (1981–89), placing heavy emphasis on education reform, economic development, and international trade. As Governor he led 10 successful trade and investment missions to East Asia, Europe, and Latin America. He placed the heaviest emphasis on the Pacific Basin countries of Japan, China, Korea, and Taiwan.

In 1972 and again in 1976, Orr was selected Lieutenant Governor, which in Indiana includes full-time economic development leadership as director of the State Department of Commerce. His responsibilities led to extensive travel in South America, Europe, and the Middle East, assisting the Indiana business community in export roles.

For 25 years from the end of World War II, Ambassador Orr combined a successful career as a business executive with a strong avocational interest in politics. He held numerous positions in business, served as Republican County Chairman, and was elected to a term as State Senator. At the time Orr left private life to enter public service full time,he was Chairman of Indian Industries, Inc., manufacturers of recreational products, and served on several corporate boards of directors.

In 1954, Orr left his business career to lead a small team of people to Vietnam to evaluate the Foreign Operations Administration (FOA, now USAID) mission in Indochina.

While Governor of Indiana, he served, by appointment of President Reagan, 6 years as a member of the board of directors of the National Railroad Passenger Corp. (Amtrak). Ambassador Orr also served as a member of the Executive Committee of the National Governors' Association and as Chairman of the Republican Governors' Association and of the Midwest Governors' Conference.

Ambassador Orr graduated from Yale University in 1940 and attended the Harvard Business School prior to entering military service in World War II in early 1942. From 1942 to 1946, he served in the U.S. Army overseas throughout the Pacific: Aleutian Islands, New Guinea, Philippines, Okinawa, and Japan. He was awarded the Legion of Merit medal. He left the Army with rank of major.

Key U.S. Officials

Arthur L. Kobler,
Deputy Chief of Mission, Singapore

Thomas H. Martin,
Economic/Political Affairs Officer, Singapore

George F. Ruffner,
Commercial Affairs Officer, Singapore

Caryl M.. Courtney,
Consular/Refugee Affairs Officer, Singapore

Robert B. Courtney,
Administrative Affairs Officer, Singapore

Douglas P. Quiram,
Regional Security Officer, Singapore

Dennis D. Donahue,
Public Affairs Officer, Singapore

GOH Chok Tong **SINGAPORE**
(Phonetic: goh)



Prime Minister (since November 1990);
First Minister of Defense (since 1982)

Addressed as: Mr. Prime Minister

Goh Chok Tong leads Singapore's so-called "second generation," a select group of younger politicians groomed by former Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew for high-level government positions. He was designated Lee's successor in 1985 and has been running much of the day-to-day government business since the national election in September 1988. In numerous speeches Goh has made clear his desire to open the political process; to this end, he has called for a consultative style of government that will devolve more decisions to the populace and reduce the government's role in deciding many facets of Singaporean life.

Goh was born on 20 May 1941. He holds a degree in economics from the University of Singapore and an M.A. degree in developmental economics from Williams College in Massachusetts. In 1976, after serving as a government economist, he was elected to Parliament. During 1979-82 he served successively as Minister of State for Finance, Minister of Trade and Industry, and Minister of Health. Goh has been assistant secretary general of the ruling People's Action Party since 1979. In 1985 he became head of a newly created Headquarters Executive Committee and was unanimously selected First Deputy Prime Minister by the Cabinet.

An avid tennis player and golfer, Goh also enjoys swimming. He speaks English. His wife is a lawyer with Lee and Lee, the Prime Minister's law firm. The couple has twins, a son and a daughter.

8 May 1991

WONG Kan Seng **SINGAPORE**
(Phonetic: wahng)

Minister of Foreign Affairs (since 1988);

Addressed as: Mr. Minister



Although Wong Kan Seng's primary responsibility is to formulate and implement foreign policy, he also plays a role in economic decision making. He has told the press that there are three prerequisites for Singaporean prosperity in the 1990s: a sound and agile diplomacy based on a strong national defense, a robust economy to sustain foreign and defense policy, and as many friends as possible.

Wong was born on 8 September 1946. He holds an M.A. degree from the Graduate School of Business Studies in London. During the mid-1970s he was director of manpower in the Labor Ministry. He later transferred to the Ministry of Defense, where he became deputy secretary; in 1981 he resigned to accept a position with Hewlett Packard. Three years later he was elected to Parliament as the representative from Kuo Chuan. At various times between 1984 and 1986 Wong served as Minister of State for Home Affairs, for Community Development, and for Communications and Information. In February 1986 he became Acting Minister for Community Development. Elected to the People's Action Party Central Executive Committee in November 1986, he was reelected to serve a one-year term the following year. In 1987 Wong attended the 42nd Session of the UN General Assembly in New York and participated in a Commonwealth meeting in Canada and bilateral talks in Indonesia. Wong made his first speech as Foreign Minister at the 43rd UN General Assembly Session. He has been house leader in Parliament since 1987.

Wong has traveled to all of the ASEAN countries and to China. He speaks English. Wong likes to play golf and swim. Married to Lee Hong Geok, he has two children.

8 May 1991

LEE Hsien Loong

SINGAPORE

Deputy Prime Minister (since November 1990); Minister of Trade and Industry (since 1987)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister



Army Reserve Brig. Gen. Lee Hsien Loong is the eldest son of former longtime Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew. He runs the country in Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong's absence and is widely viewed as a future prime-ministerial candidate. As Minister of Trade and Industry, he shapes his country's position on bilateral and multilateral trade and economic issues. According to the press, he wants to end Singapore's reliance on the United States as a trading partner and to increase commercial ties to Japan, China, and India. Nevertheless, he believes that a US presence in Southeast Asia is a major factor in the region's stability.

Lee was elected to the newly created post of second assistant secretary general of the ruling People's Action Party (PAP) in February 1989. A member of the party's Central Executive Committee since 1986, he was given responsibility for evaluating the results and identifying the PAP's organizational weaknesses and mistakes after the September 1988 election.

According to the press, Lee is trying to create an image distinct from that of his father. Widely respected for his intelligence and efficiency, Lee is portrayed as outgoing, confident, articulate, and decisive. He has endeared himself to business leaders, who believe he expresses their views.

Lee was born on 10 February 1952. He joined the Singapore Armed Forces (SAF) in 1971; three years later, while on active duty, he graduated from Cambridge with first-class honors in mathematics and a diploma with distinction in computer science. He attended the US Army Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, during 1978-79 and received a master's degree in public administration from Harvard's John F. Kennedy School of Government in 1980. In 1982 Lee was promoted to colonel and appointed Chief of Staff on the General Staff, the number-two post in the SAF. In 1984 he became the youngest SAF officer ever to attain the rank of brigadier general. He resigned from active duty in September 1984 and became a political secretary in the Ministry of Defense. He won a parliamentary seat two months later and shortly thereafter was appointed to the Cabinet as both Minister of State for Defense and Minister of State for Trade and Industry. In 1987 he became Minister of Trade and Industry and Second Minister of Defense for Services. He held his defense post until becoming Deputy Prime Minister.

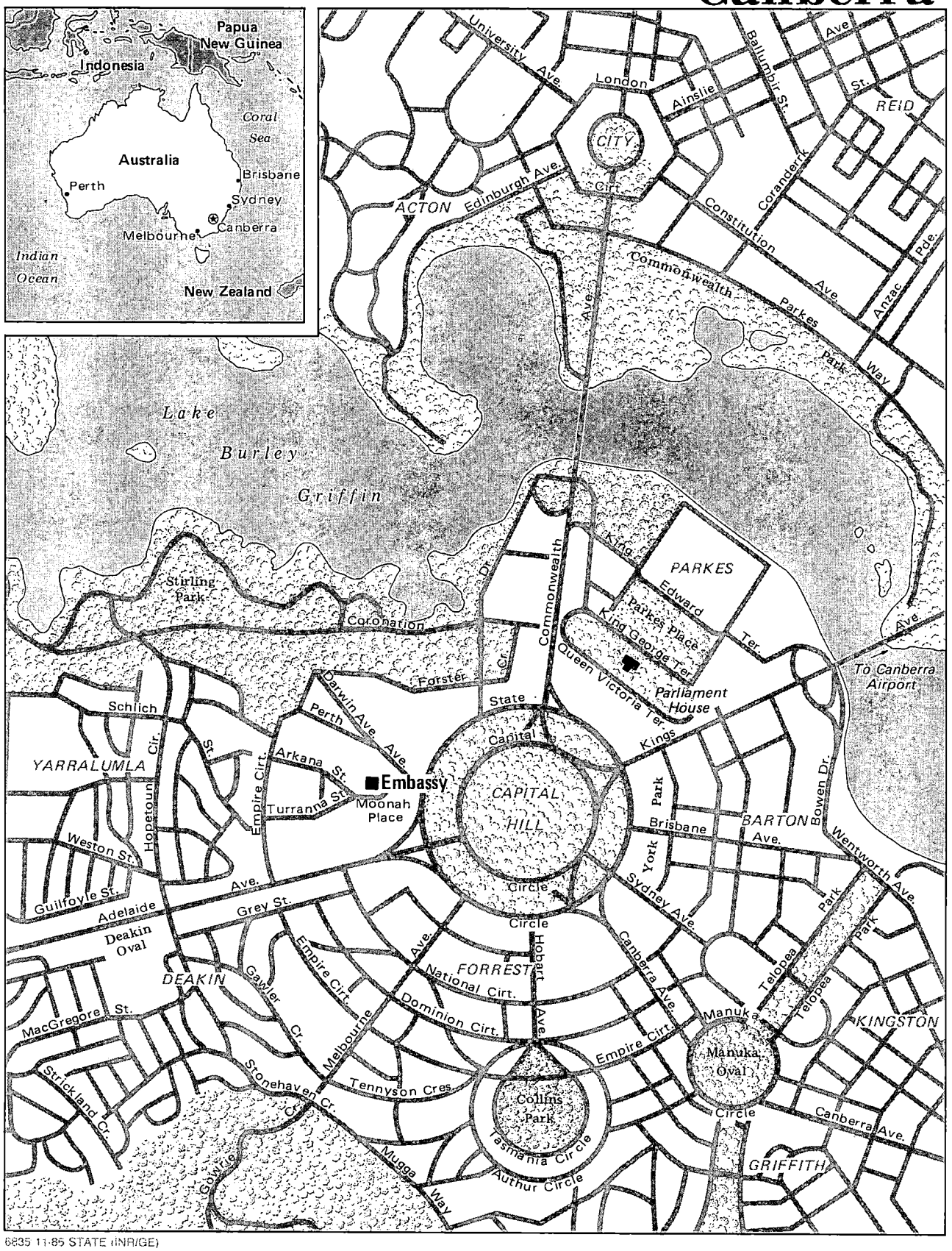
Lee has a lively sense of humor. He is well read and enjoys discussing current literature. He also likes flying. He speaks fluent English, Mandarin, and Malay. He and his present wife, Ho Ching, whom he married in 1985, have a son and a daughter. He also has a daughter and a son from a previous marriage.

8 May 1991



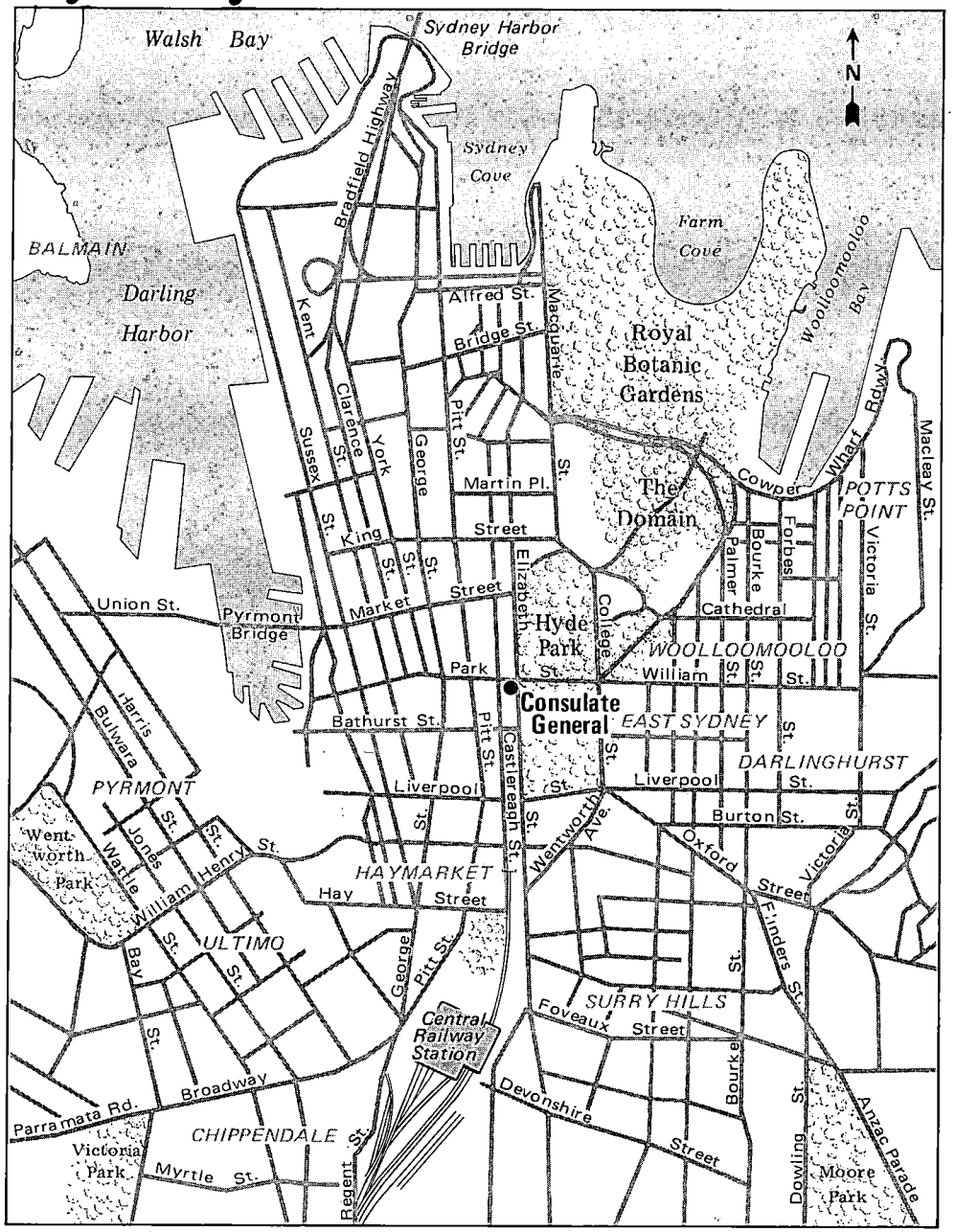
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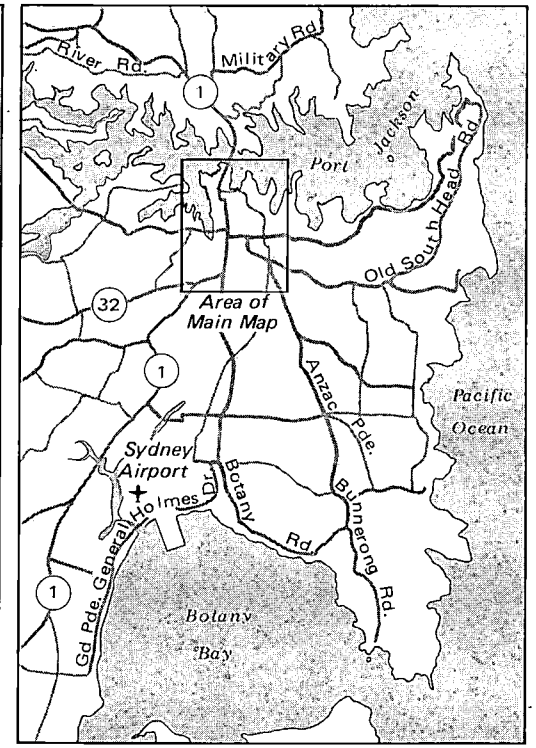
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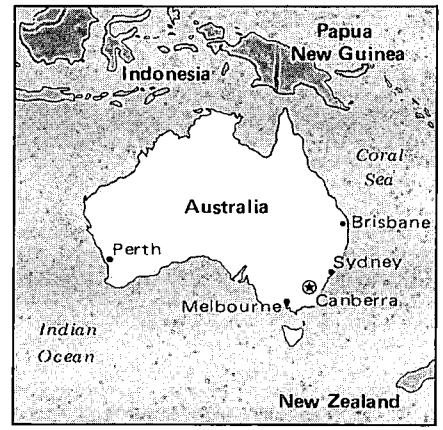


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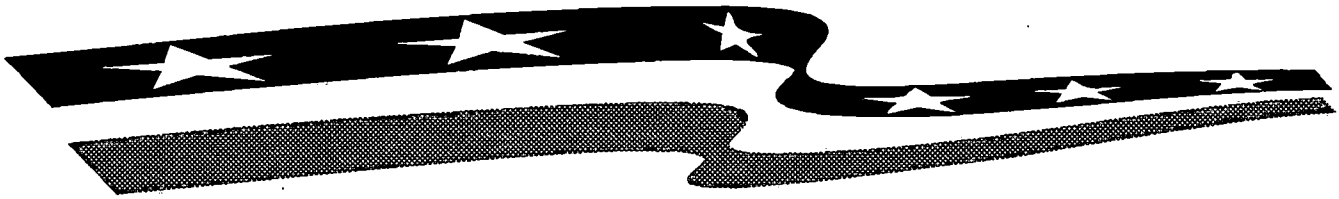
Sydney







6837 11-86 STATE (INR/GE)



Currency

Australian Dollar (A$) Conversion Table at A$1.25 = U.S.$

(Dollar = 100 cents)

Australian Dols to U.S. Dols		U.S.Dols to Australian Dols	
A$	**U.S.$**	**U.S.$**	**A$**
0.25	0.20	0.10	0.13
0.50	0.40	0.25	0.31
0.75	0.60	0.50	0.63
1.00	0.80	0.75	0.94
1.25	1.00	1.00	1.25
3.00	2.40	2.00	2.50
10.00	8.00	5.00	6.25
20.00	16.00	10.00	12.50
30.00	24.00	20.00	25.00
70.00	56.00	50.00	62.50
200.00	160.00	100.00	125.00
500.00	400.00	300.00	375.00
700.00	560.00	500.00	625.00

Note: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent. Value of Australian dollar fluctuates according to currency market conditions.

background notes

Australia

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

July 1991



Official Name: Commonwealth of Australia

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 7.7 million sq. km. (3 million sq. mi.); about the size of the 48 continental United States. **Cities:** (1991 est.) *Capital*—Canberra (pop. 285,000). *Other cities*—Sydney (3.6 million), Melbourne (3 million), Brisbane (1.2 million), Perth (1.2 million). **Terrain:** Varied, but generally low-lying. **Climate:** Relatively dry, ranging from temperate in the south to tropical in the north.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—Australian(s). **Population** (1991 est.): 17 million. **Annual growth rate:** 1.6%. **Ethnic groups:** European 94%, Asian 5%, aboriginal 1%. **Religions:** Anglican 24%, Roman Catholic 26%. **Languages:** English. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—to age 15 in all states except Tasmania, where it is 16. *Literacy*—89%. **Health:** *Infant mortality rate*—9/1,000. *Life expectancy*—males 73 yrs. females 79 yrs. **Work force** (end-1989, 8 million): *Agriculture*—5%. *Mining, manufacturing, and utilities*—19%. *Services*—72%. *Public administration and Defense*—4%.

Government

Type: Democratic, federal-state system recognizing British monarch as sovereign. **Constitution:** July 9, 1900. **Independence** (federation): January 1, 1901.

Branches: *Executive*—prime minister and cabinet responsible to Parliament. *Legislative*—bicameral Parliament (76-member Senate, 148-member House of Representatives). *Judicial*—independent judiciary.

Administrative subdivisions: Six states and two territories.

Political parties: Liberal, National, Australian Labor, Australian Democrats. **Suffrage:** Universal and compulsory over 18.

Central government budget (FY 1990-91): $93 billion.

Defense (FY 1990-91): 2.3% of GDP or 10% of government budget.

Flag: On a blue field, UK Union Jack in the top left corner, a large white star directly beneath symbolizing federation, and five smaller white stars on the right half representing the Southern Cross constellation.

Economy

GDP (1990): $311 billion. **Per capita income:** $18,054. **Inflation rate:** 6.5%.

Natural resources: Bauxite, coal, iron ore, copper, tin, silver, uranium, nickel, tungsten, mineral sands, lead, zinc, diamonds, natural gas, oil.

Agriculture (1988-89, 6% of GDP): *Products*—livestock, wheat, wool, sugar. *Arable land*—9%.

Industry (1988-89, 40% of GDP): *Types*—mining, manufacturing, and transportation.

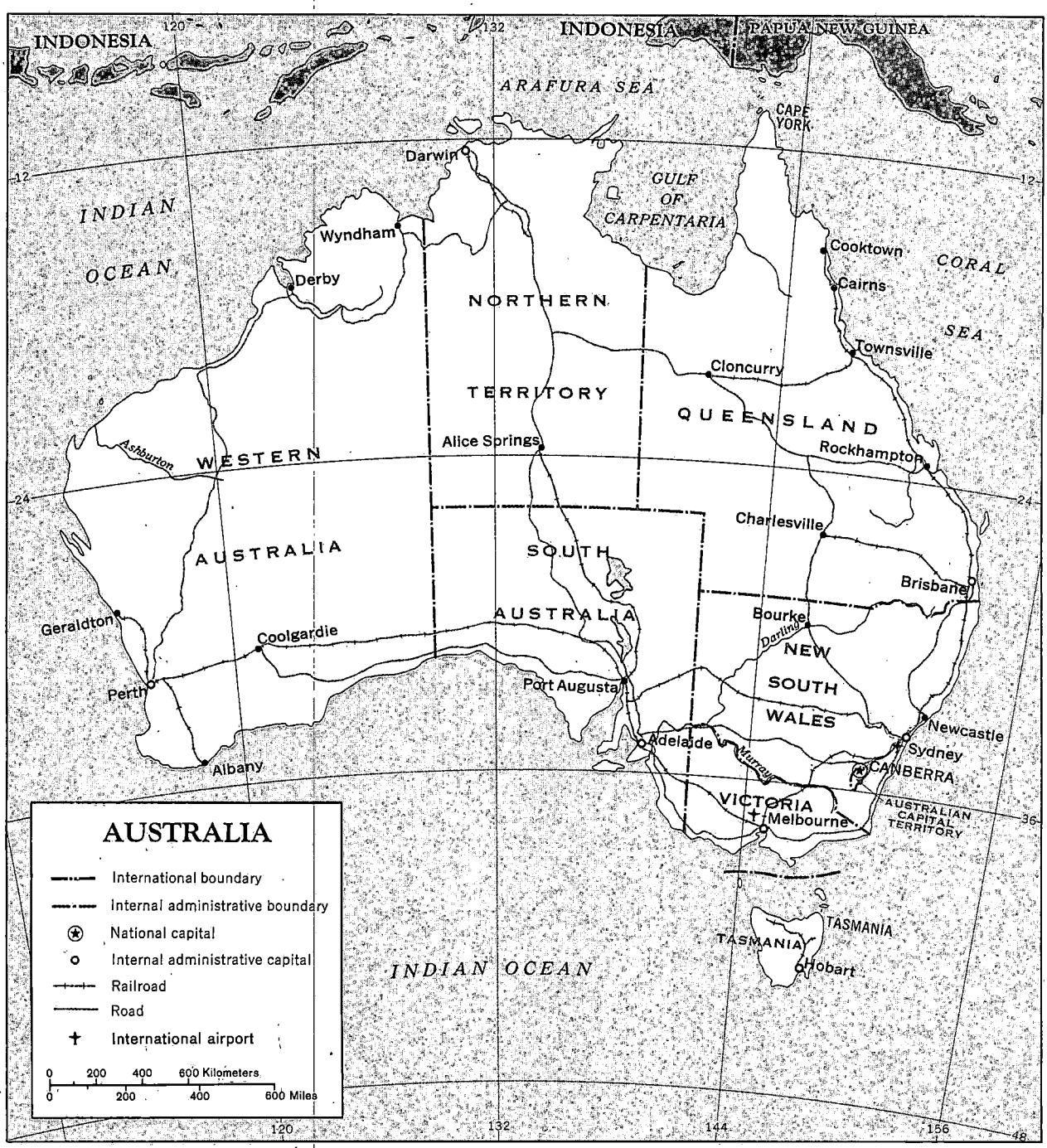
Trade (1990): *Exports*—$39 billion: coal, wool, wheat, meat, iron ore and concentrates, alumina, aluminum, petroleum oils, non-monetary gold. *Major markets*—Japan, US ($4 billion in CY 1990), UK, Korea, PRC, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Germany. *Imports*—$39 billion: transportation equipment, capital goods, industrial supplies, petroleum products. *Major suppliers*—US ($9 billion in CY 1990), Japan, Germany, UK, Taiwan, New Zealand, Italy, Korea.

Official exchange rate: The Australian dollar floats freely. The rate in February 1991 was US$0.78=Australian $1.

Fiscal year: July 1-June 30.

International Affiliations

UN and most of its specialized and related agencies, including the UN Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT); Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD); Asian-Pacific Economic Cooperation Group (APEC); Asian Development Bank (ADB); Economic and Social Council for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP); Australia-New Zealand-US pact (ANZUS); Commonwealth; Colombo Plan; International Energy Agency (IEA); the Antarctic Treaty Consultative Group.



PEOPLE

Australia's aboriginal inhabitants, a hunting-gatherering people generally referred to as Australoids, arrived about 40,000 years ago. Although their technical culture remained static—depending on wood, bone, and stone tools and weapons—their spiritual and social life was highly complex. Most spoke several languages, and confederacies sometimes linked widely scattered tribal groups. Aboriginal population density ranged from 1 person per square mile along the coasts to 1 person per 35 square miles in the arid interior. Food procurement was usually a matter for the nuclear family and was very demanding, since there was little large game and they had no agriculture.

Australia may have been sighted by Portuguese sailors in 1601, and Captain Cook claimed it for the United Kingdom in 1770. At that time, the native population may have numbered 300,000 in as many as 500 tribes speaking many different languages. The aboriginal population currently numbers about 230,000, representing about 1.4% of the population. Since the end of World War II, efforts have been made both by the government and by the public to be more responsive to aboriginal rights and needs.

Today, tribal aboriginals lead a settled but traditional life in remote areas of northern, central, and western Australia. In the southern states, where most aborigines are of mixed descent, movement to the cities is increasing.

Immigration has been essential to Australia's development since the beginning of European settlement in 1788. For generations most settlers came from the British Isles, and the people of Australia are still predominantly of British or Irish origin, with a culture and outlook similar to those of Americans. Since World War II, the population has more than doubled, the increase reflecting, in part, an influx of newcomers through an extensive, planned immigration program. From 1945 through 1990, nearly 5 million immigrants have settled in Australia, and about 80% have remained; one of every five Australians is foreign-born. Britain and Ireland have been the largest sources of post-war immigrants, followed by Italy, Greece, and Yugoslavia. Immigration from the Middle East, Asia, and Latin America has increased since the late 1960s.

The 1970s saw progressive reductions in the size of the annual immigration program due to economic and employment conditions; in 1969-70, 185,000 persons were permitted to settle, but by 1985-86 the number had dropped to 84,000. The numbers are now increasing, and, in the 1989-90 fiscal year, Australia accepted about 140,000 regular immigrants. In addition, during the last decade about 20,000 New Zealanders have settled in Australia each year.

Australia's refugee admissions of about 12,000 per year are in addition to the normal immigration program. Half are from Indochina and make up the largest single element in Australia's refugee program in recent years. Since 1975, the country has accepted more than 125,000 refugees from Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia; it now has, on a per capita basis, more Indochinese refugees as permanent residents than any other country.

Although Australia has scarcely more than two persons per square kilometer, it is one of the world's most urbanized countries. Fewer than 15% of the population live in rural areas.

Cultural Achievements

Much of Australia's culture is derived from European roots, but distinctive Australian features have evolved from the environment, aboriginal culture, and the influence of Australia's neighbors. The vigor and originality of the arts in Australia—films, opera, music, painting, theater, dance, and crafts—are achieving international recognition.

Australia has had a significant school of painting since the early days of European settlement, and Australians with international reputations include Sidney Nolan, Russell Drysdale, and Arthur Boyd. Writers who have achieved world recognition include Nobel Prize winner Patrick White, Thomas Keneally, Colleen McCullough, and Morris West. Australian movies have become well known in recent years.

HISTORY

Australia was uninhabited before stone culture peoples arrived, perhaps by boat across the waters separating the island from the Indonesia archipelago about 40,000 years ago. Portuguese, Spanish, Dutch, and English explorers observed the island before 1770, when Capt. James Cook explored the east coast and claimed it for Great Britain (three American colonists were crew members aboard Cook's ship, the *Endeavor).* On January 26, 1788 (now celebrated as Australia Day), the First Fleet under Captain Arthur Phillip landed at Sydney, and formal proclamation of the establishment of the Colony of New South Wales followed on February 7. Many, but by no means all, of the first settlers were convicts, condemned for offenses that today would be thought trivial. The mid-19th century saw the beginning of government policies to emancipate convicts and assist the immigration of free persons. The discovery of gold in 1851 led to increased population, wealth, and trade.

The six colonies that now constitute the states of the Australian Commonwealth were created in the following order: New South Wales, 1788; Tasmania, 1825; Western Australia, 1830; South Australia, 1836; Victoria, 1851; and Queensland, 1859.

Settlement had preceded these dates in most cases. Discussions between Australian and British representatives led to adoption by the British government of an act to constitute the Commonwealth of Australia in 1900.

The first federal Parliament was opened at Melbourne in May 1901 by the Duke of York (later King George V). In May 1927, the seat of government was transferred to Canberra, a planned city designed by an American, Walter Burley Griffin, and the first session of Parliament in that city was opened by another Duke of York (later King George VI). Australia passed the Statute of Westminster Adoption Act on October 9, 1942, which officially established Australia's complete autonomy in both internal and external affairs. Its passage formalized a situation that had existed for years. The Australia Act (1986) eliminated the last vestiges of British legal authority.

GOVERNMENT

The Commonwealth government was created with a constitution patterned partly on the US Constitution. The powers of the Commonwealth are specifically defined in the constitution, and the residual powers remain with the states.

Australia is an independent nation within the Commonwealth. Queen Elizabeth II is the sovereign and since 1973 has been officially styled "Queen of Australia." The Queen is represented throughout Australia by a governor general and in each state by a governor.

The federal Parliament is bicameral, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives. Twelve senators from each state and two from each territory are elected for 6-year terms, with half elected every 3 years. The 148 members of the House of Representatives are allocated among the states and territories roughly in proportion to population. In ordinary legislation, the two chambers have coordinate powers, but all proposals for appropriating revenue or imposing taxes must be introduced in the House of Representatives. Under the prevailing Westminster parliamentary system, the leader of the political party

or coalition of parties that wins a majority of the seats in the House of Representatives is named prime minister. The prime minister and the cabinet wield actual power and are responsible to the Parliament, of which they must be elected members. General elections are held at least once every 3 years; the last general election was in March 1990.

Each state is headed by a premier, who is the leader of the party with a majority in the lower house of the state legislature. Australia also has two self-governing territories, the Australian Capital Territory (where Canberra is located) and the Northern Territory, with political systems similar to those of the states.

At the apex of the court system is the High Court of Australia. It has general appellate jurisdiction over all other federal and state courts and possesses the power of constitutional review.

Principal Government Officials

Governor General—William G. Hayden
Prime Minister—Robert J. L. Hawke
Foreign Affairs and Trade Minister—Gareth Evans
Ambassador to the United States—Michael Cook
Ambassador to the United Nations—Peter Wilenski

Australia maintains an embassy in the United States at 1601 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20036 (tel. 202-797-3000), and consulates general in New York (212-245-4000), Chicago (312-645-9440), San Francisco (415-362-6160), Honolulu (808-524-5050), Los Angeles (213-469-4300), and Houston (713-629-9131).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Three political parties dominate the center of the Australian political spectrum: the Liberal Party (LP), nominally representing urban business-related groups; the National Party (NP), nominally representing rural interests; and the Australian Labor Party (ALP), nominally representing the trade unions and liberal and left-wing groups. Although embracing some extreme leftists, the ALP traditionally has been moderately socialist in its policies and approaches to social issues. The current ALP government, however, generally has pursued market-oriented, pro-competitive economic policies. All political groups are tied by tradition to turn-of-the-century domestic welfare policies, which have kept Australia in the forefront of societies offering extensive social welfare programs. There is strong bipartisan sentiment on many international issues, including Australia's commitment to its alliance with the United States.

The ALP came to power in a sweeping victory in March 1983, ending more than 7 years of rule by the Liberal/National coalition led by Malcolm Fraser. Bob Hawke, leader of the ALP and former head of the Australian Council of Trade Unions, became prime minister. The ALP, as of 1991, holds 78 seats in the House of Representatives against 55 for the Liberal Party, 14 for the National Party, and one independent. The ALP also controls five of the six state governments, the exception being New South Wales, which is governed by the Liberal Party.

In the Senate, the ALP holds 32 of the 76 seats, the Liberal Party has 29, and the National Party has 5. The Australian Democrats—a small party originally linked to the Liberal Party—has 8, and there are 2 independents. Thus, the ALP lacks a majority in the Senate. This could be important because budgetary legislation, while originating in the House, must be approved by the Senate. Repeated refusal by the Liberal/National opposition in the Senate to approve the budget in 1975 led to dissolution of the then-Labor government by the governor general.

ECONOMY

Throughout its modern history, the Australian economy has consisted of a diversified manufacturing/service sector dedicated to domestic requirements, coupled with export-oriented agricultural and mining sectors. In 1990, more than 67% of all Australian exports were primary agricultural or mineral products. Thus, the Australian economy and balance of payments are strongly influenced by world prices for primary products.

Australia has immense mineral and energy resources. It is one of the world's leading producers and exporters of aluminum, alumina, bauxite, cobalt, copper, industrial diamonds, gold, iron ore, lead, nickel, silver, and uranium. In addition, abundant supplies of coal, natural gas, liquid petroleum gas, and uranium make Australia a net exporter of energy products.

The manufacturing sector is limited by Australia's small domestic market and labor force and relatively high labor costs fostered by strong unions. A broad-based manufacturing sector has developed, nonetheless, partly due to an extensive range of tariffs and other protective measures. The trade barriers that insulated domestic industry from foreign competition are, today, seen as having restrained the growth of industrial modernization and productivity. Since 1984, the government has moved to reduce or eliminate tariffs and sectoral assistance measures.

When it floated the Australian dollar and allowed it to fall dramatically from 1984 to 1987, the government began the process of making the manufacturing sector more competitive with imports and more capable of exporting overseas. Corporate taxes were significantly reduced, and the unions agreed to gradual reductions in real wages. With industry thus strengthened, protective barriers began to be dismantled. The financial sector was liberalized and exposed to international competition. In 1988, the government embarked on a 5-year program to reduce tariffs to maximum levels of 10% and, in some cases, 15%, although tariffs on automobiles and textiles would remain above 15% after 1992. A statement of government industrial policy in March 1991 extended this tariff reduction program into the late 1990s.

With the government's macro-economic policy now largely in place, and management and labor adapting to the new business conditions, the government now focuses on micro-economic reform. Major micro-economic reforms are still needed in the

transport sector to complete the program of pro-competitive reforms. A system of national wage awards linking wage gains to productivity increases has been introduced.

The government maintained a tight rein on the economy in 1989-90, employing demand restraint measures which contributed to recessionary conditions in late 1990. Real annual gross domestic product growth averaged 3% in FY 1990, but sharply lower world prices for primary products, especially wool and wheat, reduced the growth rate in FY 1991. Unemployment currently is more than 9%. Over the long term, however, Australia's economic prospects generally are bright. Inflation, which topped 8% in 1990, is expected to decline during 1991.

For FY 1990, the government produced a third consecutive budget surplus, and a fourth, recession-reduced surplus is forecast in FY 1990-91. However, gross external debt, at $110 billion, is high for a country of 17 million people. Despite adjustments, inflation and average weekly earnings growth rates remain above the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) average, and the current account deficit, although diminishing, remains large.

Foreign investment has been vital in the development of Australian ranching, transport, and manufacturing. The Australian government welcomes foreign investment congenial to the Australian community, particularly if it is for export-oriented industries and creates employment opportunities. Within certain guidelines, the government seeks to facilitate foreign investment. Some restrictions on foreign ownership exist for banking, the media, civil aviation, mining, and certain kinds of real estate. In 1990, cumulative US investment in Australia totaled more than $40 billion.

Travel Notes

Climate and clothing: Most of southern Australia has warm summers and mild winters (seasons are the reverse of those in the Northern Hemisphere). Wear lightweight clothing year round except in the more temperate regions during winter; warmer clothes and an overcoat are then required.

Customs: In general, when visitors arrive in Australia they must present a (*gratis*) visitor's visa (usually valid for multiple entries within 5 years of issue or until passport expires. Stays of 6 months per entry may be permitted); and a return or onward-passage ticket.

Immunizations are not usually required for travelers when arriving directly from the United States, New Zealand, or Europe. Health requirements change; before departure, check with an airline ticket office, the Australian Embassy in Washington, DC, or the nearest Australian Consulate General.

No restrictions are placed on bringing US dollars into or out of Australia. No more than 5,000 Australian dollars in Australian currency notes may be taken out. Letters of credit, travelers checks, and US currency are freely negotiable. A tourist's personal property generally is exempt from customs duty. Pets are allowed entry only after long periods of quarantine outside Australia, if at all.

Health: Australia has no unusual health problems or serious endemic diseases, and no special health precautions are necessary for tourists. Hospitals are modern.

Telecommunications: Reliable international telephone, telegraph, telex, and postal services are available.

Tourist attractions: Australians are great sports enthusiasts. Horse racing, cricket, tennis, and (in Victoria) Australian football attract large crowds. The Sydney-Hobart Yacht Race commences December 26; the yachting armada streaming out the majestic Heads of Sydney Harbor is a magnificent sight. Surfing carnivals are staged by Surf Life Saving Associations on summer weekends in many parts of Australia. Melbourne is renowned for fine race and golf courses and for its Royal Botanical Garden. Sites of interest include the National Museum (natural history) and the Old Melbourne Gaol and Penal Museum—a prison built in 1841, with relics from the more colorful chapters of Australian history.

In Sydney, favorite attractions are of the breathtaking harbor; the Sydney Opera House, with its striking architecture; the Rocks area, often referred to as "the cradle of Sydney;" and the Taronga Park Zoo. The Great Barrier Reef, off the coast of Queensland, is renowned.

Time zones: Australia has three time zones. When the US east coast is on daylight saving time, the Australian east coast is 14 hours ahead, i.e., 6 pm eastern daylight time is 8 am the next day on the Australian east coast. When the US resumes standard time, the difference generally becomes 16 hours.

National holidays: New Year's Day, Australia Day (Jan. 26 or the first Monday after that date), Good Friday, Easter Monday, ANZAC Day (April 25), Queen's Birthday (second Monday in June), Christmas Day, Boxing Day (Dec. 26).

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Australia has been active in international affairs since World War II. Its first major independent foreign policy action was to conclude an agreement in 1944 with New Zealand dealing with the security, welfare, and advancement of the people of the independent territories of the Pacific (the ANZAC pact). After the war, Australia played a role in the Far Eastern Commission in Japan and supported Indonesian independence during that country's revolt against the Dutch (1945-49). Australia was one of the founders of the South Pacific Commission (1947), and in 1950, it proposed the Colombo Plan to assist developing countries in Asia. In addition to contributing to UN forces in Korea (it was the first country to announce it would do so after the United States), Australia sent troops to assist in putting down the communist revolt in Malaya in 1948-60 and later to combat the Indonesian-supported invasion of Sarawak in 1963-65. Australia also sent troops to assist South Vietnamese and US forces in Vietnam and joined coalition forces reversing Iraq aggression in 1991. Australia has been active in the Australia-New Zealand-UK agreement and the Five-Power Defense Arrange-

ment, successive arrangements with Britain and New Zealand to assist in the defense of Singapore and Malaysia.

One of the drafters of the UN Charter, Australia has given firm support to the United Nations and its specialized agencies. It was a member of the Security Council in 1986-87, a member of the Economic and Social Council for 1986-89, and currently is a member of the UN Human Rights Commission. Australia takes a prominent part in many other UN activities, including peacekeeping, disarmament negotiations, and narcotics control. Australia also is active in meetings of the Commonwealth Regional Heads of Government and the South Pacific Forum, and has been a leader in the Cairns Group (countries pressing for agricultural trade reform in the Uruguay Round of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) negotiations) and in the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) grouping.

Australia has devoted particular attention to relations between developed and developing nations, with emphasis on the countries of the Association of South East Asian Nations—Indonesia, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, the Philippines, and Brunei—and the island states of the South Pacific. Australia has a large bilateral aid program (about US $900 million for 1989-90, mostly in the form of grants) under which some 80 countries receive assistance. Papua New Guinea, a former Australian trust territory, is the largest recipient of Australian assistance.

ANZUS AND DEFENSE

The Australia, New Zealand, United States (ANZUS) security treaty was signed by representatives of Australia, New Zealand, and the United States at San Francisco, September 1, 1951, and entered into force April 29, 1952. The treaty bound the signatories to recognize that an armed attack in the Pacific area on any of them would endanger the peace and safety of the others. It committed them to consult in the event of threat and, in the event of attack, to meet the common danger in accordance with their respective constitutional processes. The three nations also pledged to maintain and develop individual and collective capabilities to resist attack.

In 1985, the nature of the ANZUS alliance changed after the government of New Zealand refused access to its ports by nuclear-weapons-capable and nuclear-powered ships of the US Navy. The United States suspended most forms of defense cooperation with New Zealand, and annual bilateral meetings between the US Secretary of State and the Australian Foreign Minister replaced annual meetings of the ANZUS Council of Foreign Ministers. The first bilateral meeting was held in Canberra in 1985. At the second, in San Francisco in 1986, the United States and Australia announced that the United States was suspending its treaty security obligations to New Zealand pending the restoration of port access. Subsequent US-Australia bilateral meetings have taken place in Sydney (1987 and 1989) and Washington (1988 and 1990).

The US-Australia alliance under the ANZUS treaty remains in full force. Defense ministers of one or both nations often have joined the annual ministerial meetings, which are supplemented by consultations between the US Commander in Chief Pacific and the Australian Chief of Defense Force. There also are regular civilian and military consultations between the two governments at lower levels.

Unlike NATO, ANZUS has no integrated defense structure or dedicated forces. However, in fulfillment of ANZUS obligations, Australia and the United States conduct a variety of joint activities. These include military exercises ranging from naval and landing exercises at the task-group level to battalion-level special forces training, assigning officers to each other's armed services, and standardizing, where possible, equipment and operational doctrine. The two countries also operate several joint defense facilities in Australia.

The Australian Defense Force numbers about 69,000 persons on active duty. Including civilians, personnel strength is 39,000 in the army, 20,000 in the navy, and 24,000 in the air force. Another 13,000 are involved in support, development, and command activities. The Royal Australian Navy's front-line fleet comprises three guided-missile destroyers, four guided-missile frigates, six destroyer escorts, and six Oberon-class submarines. The F/A-18 fighter, built in Australia under license from the manufacturer, is the principal combat aircraft of the Royal Australian Air Force.

US-AUSTRALIAN RELATIONS

The World War II experience, similarities in culture and historical background, and shared democratic values have made US relations with Australia exceptionally close and friendly.

Ties linking the two nations cover the entire spectrum of international relations, from commercial and cultural contacts to political and defense cooperation. Traditional friendship is reinforced by the wide range of common interests and similar views on most major international questions. For example, both countries called for the Soviet Union to withdraw its troops from Afghanistan; both sent military forces to the Persian Gulf in support of UN Security Council resolutions relating to Iraq's occupation of Kuwait; and both attach high priority to controlling and eventually eliminating chemical weapons. The Australian government and opposition share the view that Australia's security depends on firm ties with the United States, and the ANZUS treaty enjoys broad bipartisan support.

Frictions sometimes arise in trade relations. In recent years, the Australians have protested what they consider US protectionist barriers against their exports of wool, meat, dairy products, lead, zinc, and uranium. At various times, Australia has expressed concern about the spill-over effect on world trade of US inflation, government deficits, and agricultural policies. Multilaterally, Australia and the United States work together very closely in the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade for the elimination of subsidies and import barriers in world agricultural markets.

A number of US institutions conduct scientific activities in Australia because of its geographical position, large land mass, advanced technology, and, above all, the ready cooperation of its government and scientists. A significant amount of US-Australian scientific activity occurs within the framework of the 1968 scientific and technical cooperation agreement. Under a separate agreement concluded in the same year, and since renewed, the US National Aeronautics and Space Administration maintains in Australia its largest and most important program outside the United States, including a number of tracking facilities vital to the US space program.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—Melvin F. Sembler
Deputy Chief of Mission—Marilyn A. Meyers
Economic Counselor—Stuart Allan
Political Counselor—Mort Dworkin
Administrative Counselor—Herbert Schulz

Further Information

Available from the Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402:

American University. *Area Handbook for Australia.* 1974.

For information on foreign economic trends, commercial development, production, trade regulations, and tariff rates, contact the International Trade Administration, US Department of Commerce, Washington, DC 20230. This information also is available from any Commerce Department district office.

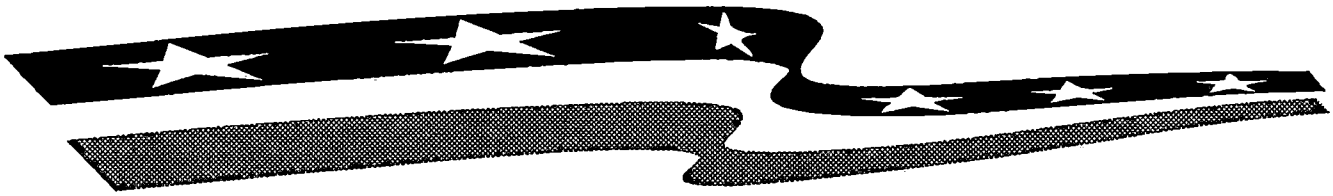
Public Affairs Officer—Lewis R. Luchs
Defense and Air Attache and Representative of theCommander in Chief Pacific—Col. Max Morosko, USAF
Agricultural Counselor—John Reisz
NASA Representative—Richard Colonna
Senior Commercial Officer—Michael Hand (resident in Sydney)

The US Embassy in Australia is located at Moonah Place, Yarralumla, Canberra, Australian Capital Territory 2600 (tel. 6-270-5000). Consulates general are in Sydney (2-261-9200), Melbourne (3-526-5900), and Perth (9-221-1177). There is a consulate in Brisbane (7-839-8955), and a consular agency at Adelaide (8-332-8886). ■

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Biography

U.S. Ambassador to Australia

Melvin F. Sembler was sworn in as Ambassador to Australia and Nauru on October 13, 1989. Prior to his appointment he served as Finance Co-Chairman of The American Bicentennial Presidential Inaugural.

During the 1988 Presidential campaign, Ambassador Sembler served on the National Steering Committee of the George Bush for President Campaign and, concurrently, on the campaign's National Finance Committee. He was Finance Co-Chairman for the State of Florida and was active in fundraising for the Fund for America's Future and the Republican National Committee's Team 100. He also served as adviser to Mr. Bush on drug policy. He cofounded STRAIGHT 14 years ago with his wife. This is now one of the country's largest and most successful adolescent drug rehabilitation programs. It has 23 centers nationwide with 1,000 adolescent participants, and over 10,000 have graduated from the program since its inception. In 1987 he was a conferee to the White House Conference for a Drug-Free America and served with the Bush Coalition for Drug-free America.

Ambassador Sembler was responsible for building The Sembler Company, headquartered in St. Petersburg, Florida, into one of America's best-known shopping center development firms. From 1986 to 1987, he served as president of the International Council of Shopping Centers (ICSC), and now sits on the Executive Committee of the ICSC's Board of Trustees.

Born in 1930 in St. Joseph, Missouri, Ambassador Sembler received a B.S. from Northwestern University in 1952.

Key U.S. Officials

E. Gibson Lanpher,
Deputy Chief of Mission, Canberra

John E. Kelley,
Political Affairs Officer, Canberra

Tain P. Tompkins,
Economic Affairs Officer, Canberra

Michael J. Hand,
Commercial Affairs Officer, Canberra (resident in Sydney)

Elizabeth A. Schoppe,
Consular Affairs Officer, Canberra

Herbert W. Schulz,
Administrative Affairs Officer, Canberra

Lewis R. Luchs
Public Affairs Officer, Canberra

David R. Haag,
Regional Security Officer, Canberra

Philip T. Lincoln, Jr.,
Consul General, Sydney

Charles M. Reese,
Commercial Affairs Officer, Sydney

Donald R. Tyson,
Consular Affairs Officer, Sydney

Edward M. Harkness
Administrative Affairs Officer, Sydney

Margaret Eubank,
Branch Public Affairs Officer, Sydney

Robert James Lee HAWKE **AUSTRALIA**

Prime Minister (since March 1983)

Addressed as: Mr. Prime Minister



Robert Hawke became the first Australian Labor Party (ALP) leader to win a fourth consecutive term as Prime Minister following a narrow ALP victory over the conservative opposition coalition in the March 1990 general election. He is a former president of the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU)—an organization equivalent to the AFL-CIO. He is widely recognized as a good friend of the United States.

Hawke was born on 9 December 1929. He holds B.A. and LL.B. degrees from the University of Western Australia and has studied the Australian arbitration system at Oxford as a Rhodes scholar. He then worked as an attorney in ACTU before becoming its president during the 1970s. Hawke joined the ALP at 17 and became its senior vice president in 1971. In 1973 he was elected federal president (titular head) of the ALP, a position he held for five years. He was elected to Parliament in 1980. He replaced William Hayden as Labor leader in 1983.

Hawke enjoys sailing, golf, cricket, and tennis. Married to the former Hazel Masterson, he has a son, two daughters, and two grandchildren.

26 April 1990

Gareth J. EVANS — AUSTRALIA

Minister for Foreign Affairs and Trade (since 1988)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister



Legal scholar Gareth Evans has maintained that Canberra's alliance with Washington is central to Australia's foreign policy, and he was a strong supporter of the US position during the Persian Gulf war. A vigorous promoter of human rights issues, Evans favors an enhanced UN role in world affairs, controls on chemical weapons and nuclear testing, a peaceful settlement to the war in Cambodia, economic and security cooperation among Asian-Pacific nations, trade liberalization measures, and environmental initiatives, including the preservation of Antarctica. Since his appointment Evans has given greater emphasis to the smaller nations of the South Pacific and has engineered a significant improvement in relations with Indonesia, Australia's most important neighbor.

Evans has risen rapidly in the ruling Australian Labor Party (ALP). He is acceptable to the left because of his experience with law reform and civil liberties (particularly as Attorney General during 1983-84) and to the right because of his strong defense of government positions. He is widely considered to be brilliant, sincere, and diligent.

Evans was born on 5 September 1944. He holds a B.A. and an LL.B. from the University of Melbourne and an M.A. in philosophy and economics from Oxford. During the late 1960s he became a lecturer in law at the University of Melbourne, a position he retained until 1976. He headed the Australian Law Reform Commission in 1975 and served for nine years as vice president of the Victorian Council of Civil Liberties. Evans was elected to the Senate in 1978 and served as shadow attorney general in the early 1980s. He has been ALP deputy leader since February 1987. He is a former Minister for Resources and Energy (1984-87) and for Transport and Communications (1987-88).

Evans is the son of a Melbourne tram driver and takes pride in his humble origins. He journeyed to the United States in 1979 on an International Visitor Program grant. The Minister has traveled widely since assuming his current portfolio. He enjoys reading and playing tennis. Evans and his wife, Merran, have a son and a daughter. Mrs. Evans has a Ph.D. in econometrics and lectures at Monash University.

17 July 1991

Neal BLEWETT **AUSTRALIA**
(Phonetic: BLOOit)



Minister for Trade and Overseas Development (since April 1990)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister

Onetime university professor Neal Blewett is a spokesman for the ruling Australian Labor Party's center faction. His workload dramatically increased in February 1991 when he assumed responsibility for Canberra's overseas development assistance program. A vocal supporter of the US-led coalition during the Persian Gulf war and of Canberra's military contribution to the allied effort, Blewett made a three-day visit to Saudi Arabia and Kuwait in March 1991 to promote Australian business in the reconstruction effort.

Blewett is Chairman of the 13-member Cairns Group of Agriculture Exporting Nations. He has played an active role in pushing for a successful Uruguay Round: he has sought progress on agricultural reform through reductions in border protection, export subsidies, and tariffs. He visited Washington twice in the spring of 1991 to discuss export subsidies with US officials.

Blewett served as Minister of Health from 1983 until he received his current position. The Ministry was accused of violating confidentiality laws on medicare information, but Blewett was cleared of any unlawful or improper actions.

Blewett was born on 24 October 1933. He has a bachelor's degree and a teaching diploma from the University of Tasmania. A Rhodes scholar, he received a doctorate from St. Anthony's College and remained at Oxford as a lecturer until 1954. During the 1960s Blewett passionately and publicly criticized the Vietnam war, claiming he distrusted the moral rhetoric used to justify it. In 1974 his distinguished academic career culminated in his appointment as full professor to the Department of Political Theory at Flinders University of South Australia. Blewett was first elected to Parliament in 1977 following two losing efforts. During his first three years, he served on the Foreign Affairs and Defense Committees and accompanied delegations to India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Rhodesia. He was named to the shadow cabinet as opposition spokesman for health in 1980. Five years later Prime Minister Robert Hawke chose Blewett to coordinate a national campaign to educate youth about drugs; he visited the United States to study drug abuse programs and to investigate ways to control AIDS. Blewett headed the delegation to the White House Conference on Science and Economics Research Related to Global Change in April 1990.

In September 1990 Blewett was the first Australian minister to officially visit China since the Tiananmen Square uprising in 1989. He has published several scholarly works, including *The Peers, the Parties, and the People: the General Elections of 1910*, which is an offshoot of his research at Oxford on Edwardian voting patterns. He has been a fellow of the Royal Historical Society and a president (1977-78) of the Australian Political Studies Association. His interests include walking, swimming, and reading; he is also a movie buff. Blewett is married to the former Jill Myford, a professor of European languages. The couple has a son and a daughter.

Kim Christian BEAZLEY — AUSTRALIA

Minister for Transport and Communications (since April 1990)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister



Kim Beazley is regularly touted as a future leader of the Australian Labor Party (ALP). He reportedly was given one of the most sensitive portfolios in the Robert Hawke administration in order to demonstrate his potential for greater leadership responsibility. The local press notes that he is thorough, strategically adept, and highly regarded by the Prime Minister. Known as a consensus-builder, Beazley was the driving force in overturning the ALP's longstanding opposition to privatization of industry, according to the press; he gained Cabinet and party approval for restructuring Australia's telecommunications system and selling Australian Airlines and Qantas.

The youngest Minister for Defense (1984-90) in Australian history, Beazley assumed that post after serving only four years in Parliament. During his tenure, he directed a thorough review of the Ministry's organization, its command structure, its operational capability, and its impact on Australian defense policy. He supports the ANZUS Alliance and visits by US nuclear warships to Australian ports.

Beazley was born on 14 December 1948. He holds M.A. degrees in political science from the University of Western Australia and philosophy from Oxford, which he attended in the mid-1970s as a Rhodes scholar. He taught political science at Murdoch University in Perth before being elected to Parliament in 1980. From mid-1983 to early 1984 he was Special Minister of State responsible for overseeing electoral reforms. He served as Aviation Minister and Minister Assisting the Minister for Defense from March 1983 until December 1984. In February 1988 Beazley assumed the additional responsibilities of government leader in the House of Representatives and vice president of the Federal Executive Council. He is a former member of the Foreign Affairs and Defense Committee in Parliament and of the ALP's National Executive Foreign Affairs and Defense Committee.

Beazley enjoys playing cricket. He has traveled to India, Syria, the United States, and several European countries. He has long been fascinated with military paraphernalia and has earned a reputation as an expert on Australia's role in the two world wars. He is also a self-professed scholar on the US Civil War. In 1979 he wrote the *Politics of Intrusion: The Superpowers in the Indian Ocean.* Married for a second time, his wife's name is Susie. He has two daughters from his first marriage.

7 May 1991