

Distributors

JAPAN: KODANSHA LTD., Tokyo.

OVERSEAS: KODANSHA INTERNATIONAL LTD., Tokyo.

U.S.A., Mexico, Central America, and South America: KODANSHA INTERNATIONAL/USA LTD.
through HARPER & ROW, PUBLISHERS, INC., New York.

Canada: FITZHENRY & WHITESIDE LTD., Ontario.

U.K., Europe, the Middle East, and Africa: INTERNATIONAL BOOK DISTRIBUTORS LTD.,
Hemel Hempstead, Herts., England.

Australia and New Zealand: HARPER & ROW (AUSTRALASIA) PTY. LTD., Artarmon, N.S.W.

Asia: TOPPAN COMPANY (S) PTE. LTD., Singapore.

Published by Kodansha Ltd., 12-21, Otowa 2-chome, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 112 and Kodansha
International/USA Ltd., 10 East 53rd Street, New York, New York 10022.

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Printed in Japan.

First edition, 1983.

LCC 83-80778

ISBN 0-87011-624-x (Volume 4)

ISBN 0-87011-620-7 (Set)

ISBN 4-06-144534-0 (0) (in Japan)

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Main entry under title:

Kodansha encyclopedia of Japan.

Includes index.

1. Japan—Dictionaries and encyclopedias. I. Title:

Encyclopedia of Japan.

DS805.K633 1983 952'.003'21 83-80778

ISBN 0-87011-620-7 (U.S.)

**KODANSHA
ENCYCLOPEDIA OF
JAPAN**

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Jagatara-bumi

(letters from Jakarta). Letters sent to Japan in the 17th century by persons of Japanese descent who found themselves exiled in the Dutch colony on Java by the Tokugawa shogunate's policy of NATIONAL SECLUSION. Many of these people were the wives and offspring of Dutch traders, who in 1639 had been forbidden by the shogunate "to have children in Japan." The most famous of these letters, that of Oharu (Jeronima Simonsen; d 1694), with its poetic allusions and the phrase "How I miss Japan!" was a fabrication of the Nagasaki savant NISHIKAWA JOKEN; others are authentic.

George ELISON

Jahana Noboru (1865–1908)

Pioneer leader in the movement for popular rights in Okinawa. Born to a middle-class farming family, he went to Tōkyō as one of the first government scholarship students from Okinawa and graduated from the agriculture division of Tōkyō University in 1891. In the same year he returned home to become an agriculture specialist for the prefectural government and two years later became the first Okinawan to enter Japan's higher civil service. He soon came into conflict with the prefectural governor, Narahara Shigeru (1834–1918), over the latter's decision to sell forest land that had been used as commonage by local farmers. Dismissed from office in 1898, he assembled sympathizers to form the Okinawa Kurabu (Okinawa Club), which criticized prefectural policies. He was also active in the movement to secure Okinawan representation in the national government, but the movement collapsed under fierce opposition from Narahara. In 1901, while on his way to take up a new post in Yamaguchi Prefecture, he went insane and remained incapacitated until his death. See also OKINAWA.

TANAKA Akira

Jakkōin

Convent in Ōhara, Sakyō Ward, Kyōto, belonging to the TENDAI SECT of Buddhism. Although the temple records variously attribute the origins of the Jakkōin to Prince SHŌTOKU (574–622), the monk KŪKAI (744–835), or the monk RYŌNIN (1073–1132), there is little reliable information about Jakkōin until the famous Kenrei Mon'in (1155–1213) took up residence there.

Kenrei Mon'in was the daughter of TAIRA NO KIYOMORI, the head of the Taira family; she was adopted at the age of 16 by the retired emperor Go-Shirakawa (r 1155–58). In 1172 she was married to Emperor Takakura (r 1168–80) and two years later gave birth to his son, the boy emperor Antoku (r 1180–85). She accompanied the Taira (Heike) forces after their flight from Kyōto in 1183 and when, in 1185, they were utterly defeated in the naval engagement at Dan-no-ura, she threw herself into the sea, holding the boy emperor in her arms. Although the child was lost, Kenrei Mon'in was rescued and brought back to Kyōto. Grief-stricken, she became a nun at Jakkōin, where she spent the remainder of her life praying for the souls of her deceased father, husband, and son, as well as for the slain Taira people. The convent, which figures in the HEIKE MONOGATARI (13th century; tr *Tale of the Heike*, 1975) and the nō drama *Ōhara gokō* (The Imperial Visit to Ōhara), contains many relics of the Taira family. After a period of decline, the temple was refurbished by YODOGIMI (1567?–1615), concubine of Toyotomi Hideyoshi. The central image of worship is the bodhisattva Jizō (Skt: Kṣitigarbha).

Stanley WEINSTEIN

Jakuchū → Itō Jakuchū

Jakugon (1702–1771)

Monk, Sanskrit expert, and outstanding calligrapher of the Edo period (1600–1868). Born in Asaguchi, Bitchū Province (now part of

Okayama Prefecture), Jakugon became a monk at the age of eight. At first he studied Buddhism, but later concentrated on Sanskrit textual studies. After visiting the temple Tōji in Kyōto in 1736 for further study, he published several books on this subject. He served in Hōtōji in Bitchū until 1767, when he retired to Gyokusenji in Kurashiki. Jakugon wrote primarily in running script, but also occasionally used cursive, regular, clerical, *kana*, and even Sanskrit scripts. His calligraphy has an unusual, almost awkward combination of power and rhythmic fluctuation that marks him as one of the most original calligraphers of his period. He displays a penchant for rough, swirling brush strokes contrasted with occasional blunt, angular thrusts; his character structures are reshaped, almost distorted, and the ink tonality is often dry. Along with JIUN ONKŌ, RYŌKAN, and Meigetsu (1726–97), Jakugon is known as one of the Four Monk-Writers.

Stephen ADDISS

Jakuren (ca 1139–1202)

Classical (WAKA) poet, Buddhist priest, and one of the six compilers of the eighth imperial anthology, SHIN KOKINSHŪ (1205). Jakuren's lay name was Fujiwara no Sadanaga. His father Shunkai was a younger brother of the great poet FUJIWARA NO TOSHINARI (Shunzei). When Shunkai took holy orders in 1150, the young Sadanaga was adopted by his famous uncle, who for a time apparently intended him as his heir. However, Shunzei later sired two male children—the untalented Nariie and the gifted FUJIWARA NO SADAIE—and when the latter was nine years old Sadanaga resigned his position as Shunzei's adoptive son and took holy orders and the priestly name by which he is known to posterity. Throughout his life Jakuren was active in court poetry gatherings, contests, and the like, but especially during the five or six years before his death. After becoming a priest he also traveled rather extensively around the country as his older contemporary SAIGYŌ had done, composing poems on his travels. As one of the participants in the famous Poetry Contest in 600 Rounds (*Roppyakuban uta-awase*) of 1193, Jakuren is said to have vigorously defended the interests of the pupils and adherents of Shunzei against the conservative Rokujō poets, their archrivals; his sharp encounters with his priestly counterpart KENSHŌ (ca 1130–ca 1210) of the Rokujō side are famous in the annals of poetic lore.

In 1201 Jakuren was appointed fellow in the Bureau of Poetry (Wakadokoro) established by ex-Emperor Go-Toba, and with five others he was designated compiler of the *Shin kokinshū*. He died, however, in the summer of the following year. Jakuren's close association with the poetic school of Shunzei and Sadaie was fundamental in developing his individual style. Accepting Shunzei's neoclassical dictum of "old diction, new treatment," and aesthetic ideal of mystery and depth (YŪGEN), Jakuren composed some of the most memorable lines of the age. His best poems create the atmosphere of *SABI*, or loneliness, with a traditional diction rich in overtones and evocative power. Some 117 of Jakuren's poems are included in various imperial anthologies beginning with the SENZAI WAKASHŪ (ca 1188, Collection of a Thousand Years).

—Robert H. Brower and Earl Miner, *Japanese Court Poetry* (1961).

Robert H. BROWER

Jakushitsu Genkō (1290–1367)

Also known as Ennō Zenji and Shōtō Kokushi. Zen monk of the RINZAI SECT and founder of its Eigenji subsect. Born in Mimasaka (now Okayama Prefecture), he became a monk at the age of 13 under Mui Shōgen of the temple Sanshōji in Kyōto. Later he entered Zenkōji in Kamakura to study with Yakuō Tokken, an eminent disciple of RANKEI DŌRYŪ. Accompanying his master, he moved successively to KENNINJI, KENCHŌJI, and NANZENJI. In 1320, he traveled to Ming China with Kaō Sonen and others, where he visited

Jes, Leroy Lansing

Mingben (Chung-feng Ming-pen) at Mt. Tianmu (T'ien-ceived the name Jakushitsu. He also received instruc-Wujian Xiandu (Wu-chien Hsien-tu) and Duanai Liaoyi ao-i) and returned to Japan in 1326. Thereupon he took e in Eitokuji in Bingo (now Hiroshima Prefecture), and in Settsu (now Ōsaka Prefecture). In 1359 he became iunji in Kai (now Yamanashi Prefecture). In 1360, under ge of the warrior Sasaki family, based in Ōmi (now Shiga he founded Eigenji in that province and became heir to gs of Yakuo Tokken. Although he was invited to head id Kenchōji by the Muromachi shogunate, he refused, he seclusion of Eigenji. The records of his sayings, *Eigen wajō goroku* in two fascicles, as well as his last testament hand, are extant. *MURAKAMI Shigeyoshi*

Leroy Lansing (1838–1909)

educator who taught in Japan early in the Meiji period). A graduate of the United States Military Academy, d in the American Civil War. In 1871, on the recommen-uido VERBECK, a missionary in Japan, Janes accepted an o teach at the KUMAMOTO YŌGAKKŌ, the Kumamoto do-ool for Western studies. Although Janes knew no Japa-ad no intention of learning it, he was given full authority rogram of studies. His classes in mathematics, history, sciences were given in English; the first year of instruc-er, was confined to reading and writing. Janes also acted guide. For the first three years he refrained from discuss-unity, choosing to wait until he thought his students had ough English to understand the relation between Chris-Western learning. Under his influence 35 students were the so-called Kumamoto Band. Many of its members, m EBINA DANJŌ and UKITA KAZUTAMI, eventually be-tian leaders in education and politics. Persecution by e elements in Kumamoto forced the school to close in '6, and members of the Kumamoto Band moved to the hool in Kyōto. Janes taught briefly at the Ōsaka Eigakkō id to the United States in 1877. He was invited in 1893 to e Third Higher School in Kyōto, where he remained for He died in California.

Joosten, Lodenstijn (1556?–1623)

first Dutchmen in Japan. Born in Delft in the Nether-600 Jan Joosten was second mate on the Dutch trading DE, which was disabled while crossing the Pacific and Kyūshū. Jan Joosten, the English pilot William ADAMS, urvivors were received by the future shōgun TOKUGAWA Joosten and Adams later became his advisers and confi-joosten was given a residence in Edo (now Tōkyō) — the Yaesu near Tōkyō Station is thought to be a corruption e — and married a Japanese woman. He received official to engage in overseas trade and, after the establishment CH FACTORY at Hirado, became a middleman between ers and the shogunate. Later, hoping to return to the s, he sailed as far as Batavia (now Djakarta) in Java but l permission by the Dutch authorities to proceed. On his o Japan, Jan Joosten drowned when his ship foundered off Islands in the South China Sea.

→ ken

Brother Sewing Machine Co, Ltd

ishin Kōgyō). Sewing machine manufacturing company; BROTHER INDUSTRIES, LTD, in the production of home chines. It was founded in 1921 and succeeded in estab-domestic production of sewing machines. After World rew steadily by adopting a direct sales system. It pur-New Home Sewing Machine Co of the United States in xpanded overseas production by establishing the Dorina nen GmbH in West Germany in 1968. It has recently a sewing machine with a built-in microcomputer. Sales al year ending March 1982 totaled ¥71.8 billion (US ion), the export ratio was 18 percent, and capitalization 7.6 billion (US \$31.6 million). Corporate headquarters are Tōkyō.

Japan

territory and administrative divisions

natural features of Japan

geological structure

TERRITORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

Japan (Nippon or Nihon) consists of an archipelago extending approximately from northeast to southwest. It lies off the east coast of the Asian continent. The latitudes and longitudes of the four ex-tremities are as follows:

north	Bentenjima, an island, administratively a part of the city of Wakkanai, Hokkaidō 45° 31' north
east	Minami Torishima, one of the Ogasawara Islands, administratively a part of Tōkyō Prefecture 153° 58' east
south	Okinotorishima, one of the Ogasawara Islands, administratively a part of Tōkyō Prefecture 20° 25' north
west	Yonagunijima, an island, administratively a part of Okinawa Prefecture 122° 55' east

The total land area as of October 1980 was 377,708 square kilo-meters (145,800 sq mi), only slightly larger than that of Finland or Italy and approximately 1/25 that of the United States; it is about the same size as the state of Montana. It consists of the four major islands of HOKKAIDŌ, HONSHŪ, SHIKOKU (see SHIKOKU REGION), and Kyūshū (see KYŪSHŪ REGION). The northernmost islands of Kunashiri (Kunashir), Etorofu (Iturup), the Habomai Islands, and Shikotan, claimed by the Japanese, have been under occupation by the Soviet Union since the end of World War II (see TERRITORY OF JAPAN). The OGASAWARA ISLANDS and OKINAWA ISLANDS, under American rule since the end of World War II, were returned to Japan in 1968 and 1972, respectively. The areas of the main islands (including offshore islands under their administrative control) are as follows:

Hokkaidō	83,517 sq km
Honshū	231,012
Shikoku	18,800
Kyūshū	42,129
Okinawa Islands	2,250
Total	377,708 sq km

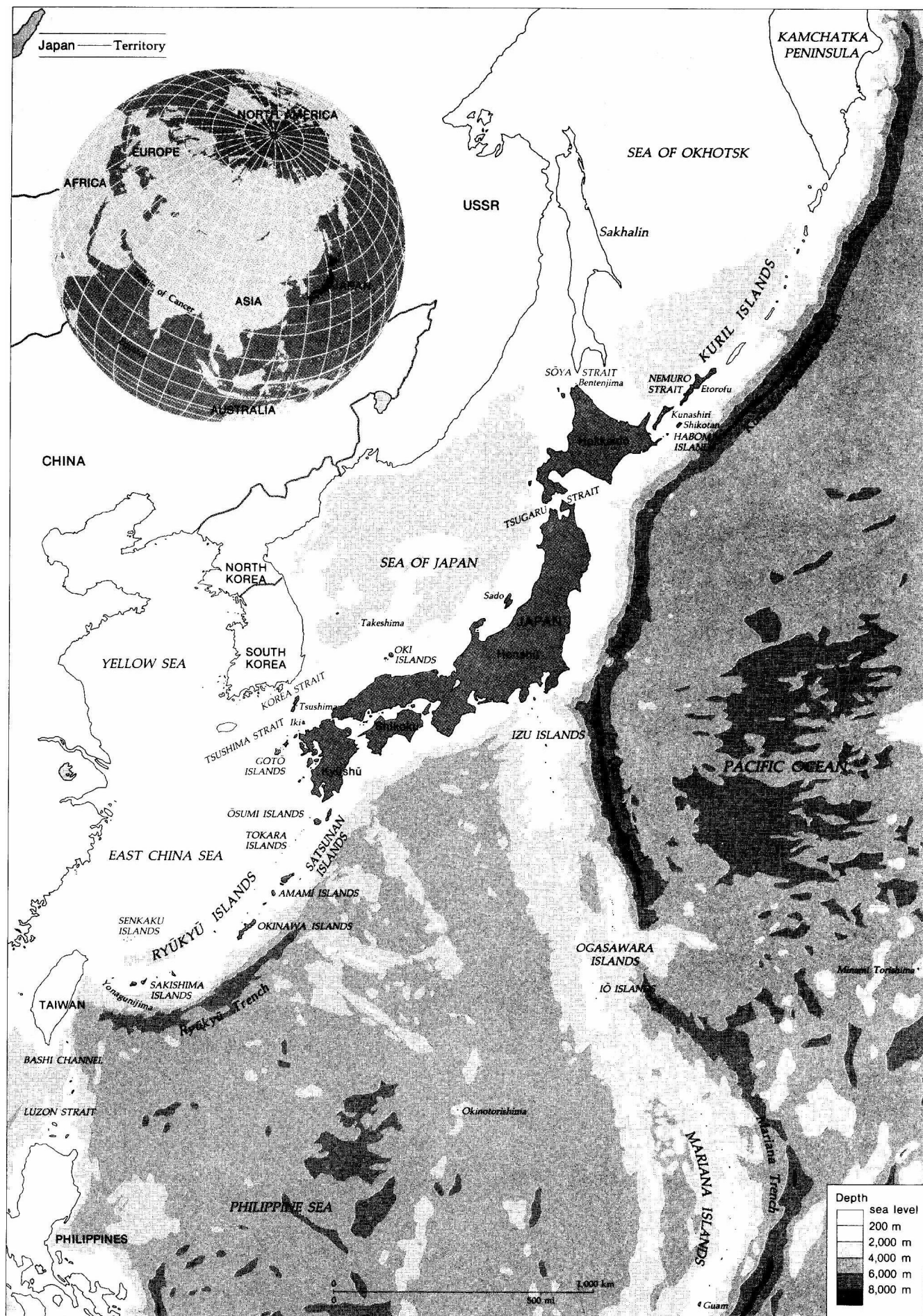
Honshū is larger than Great Britain, and Hokkaidō is a little smaller than Ireland. Kyūshū is a little larger than Taiwan, and Shikoku is a little smaller than Sardinia. Following the recent ten-dency among countries to enlarge TERRITORIAL WATERS, Japan also set the limit of 12 nautical miles from the coast in 1977.

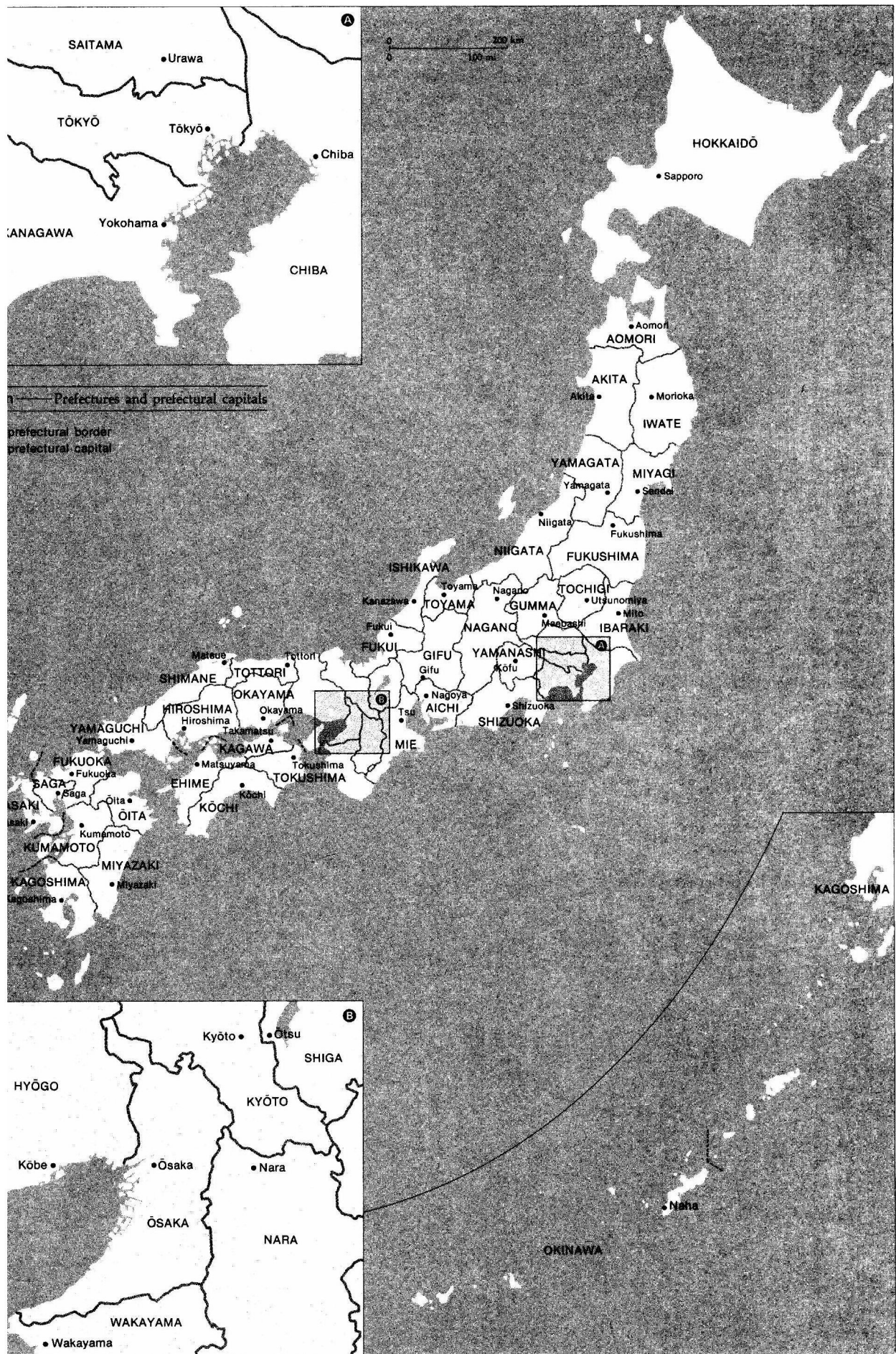
Population — At the time of the Meiji Restoration (1868) Japan's population was about 33 million. In 1980 it was 117 million. In terms of population Japan ranks seventh in the world, following China, India, the Soviet Union, the United States, Indonesia, and Brazil. The density per square kilometer (0.386 sq mi), which was an average of 147 persons according to the first precise census in 1920, was 314 persons in 1980. Though this figure is comparable to 346 persons in the Netherlands and 323 in Belgium, the density of the Japanese population per unit area under cultivation is the highest in the world because over two-thirds of Japan is occupied by moun-tainous terrain, and alluvial plains occupy only 13 percent. Among the main islands the density is highest in Honshū, followed by Kyū-shū and Shikoku.

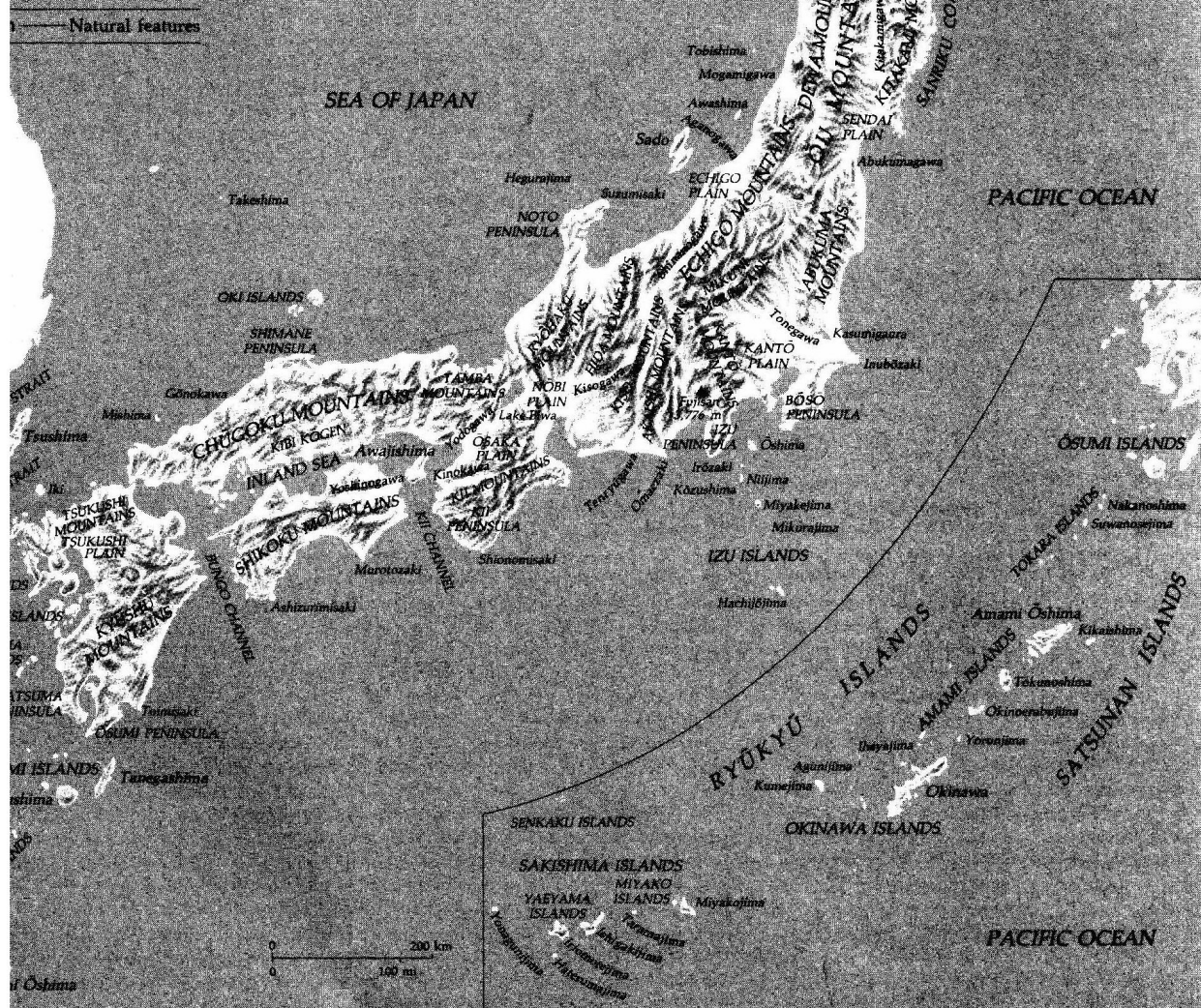
Density of population per square kilometer:

Honshū	404
Kyūshū	308
Shikoku	221
Hokkaidō	71
Okinawa Islands	492

The population was distributed comparatively equally all over the country about a century ago, when Japan was still predominantly agricultural. With industrialization, however, there was a strong







tendency toward regional concentration. This became even more pronounced in the postwar years, and as a result, 42.4 percent of Japanese live in the three major urban areas of Tōkyō, Ōsaka, and Nagoya. The Tōkyō Metropolitan Area in particular, though less than 2.0 percent in terms of area, has a concentration of 22.5 percent of the national population. The Ōsaka area has a concentration of 13.2 percent of the national population within an area of only 2.0 percent.

The phenomenon of urbanization is especially pronounced in the so-called Pacific-belt zone, composed of the southern coast of Honshū, the Inland Sea coast, and northern Kyūshū, where nine out of the ten cities with a population over one million (Tōkyō, Yokohama, Kawasaki, Nagoya, Kyōto, Ōsaka, Kōbe, Kita Kyūshū, and Fukuoka) are located. In contrast, Hokkaidō, northern Honshū, the mountainous area of central Honshū, and the southern parts of Shikoku and Kyūshū are relatively sparsely populated. See also POPULATION.

Formation of the Country—Among the various theories on the formation of Japan as a nation state, one school holds that because of its proximity to the continent, northern Kyūshū was the site of the first political center. The leaders are believed to have moved gradually to the east along the Inland Sea and to have finally settled in the Yamato region (now the Nara area) in central Japan. By the 4th century a sovereign court had emerged, which by conquest and alliance eventually unified the country. The YAMATO COURT repeatedly dispatched expeditionary forces to northeastern Honshū and succeeded in subduing it in the 7th century. From the end of the 4th century to the latter half of the 6th century, it is believed that Japan maintained a colony in the southern part of the Korean peninsula (see KAYA). Thus by around the 7th century the prototype of a unified Japan, consisting of Honshū, Shikoku, and Kyūshū, had been established. Under the TAIKA REFORM of 645, the KOKUGUN SYSTEM of administration was instituted, and the country was divided into 58 (later 66) provinces (*kuni*), with subunits called *gun*. This division remained in effect nominally until the Meiji Restoration of 1868. However, under the BAKUHAN SYSTEM of the Tokugawa shogunate (1603–1867), there was superimposed on it a system of feudal *daimyō* domains (*han*), whose boundaries did not necessarily coincide with those of the ancient provinces. It was also soon after the Taika Reform that the name Nippon was used in diplomatic documents. The name Japan is said to be a corruption of Marco Polo's "Jipang," which in turn was based on the southern Chinese pronunciation of the Chinese characters for Nippon. The present official name of the nation is Nippon Koku or Nihon Koku.

Changes in Territory—The territory of Japan remained essentially the same from the 7th century, but in 1609 the *daimyō* of the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture) established control over the Ryūkyū Kingdom (see OKINAWA). The Ogasawara Islands (also known as the Bonin Islands) were discovered by the Japanese in 1593 and were officially incorporated into Japan in 1876. Hokkaidō, once called EZO, was settled by the Japanese in the Edo period (1600–1868). As trade with the AINU in the interior developed, the Japanese gradually made their way into the southern part of SAKHALIN (J: Karafuto) and the Kuril Islands, where they came into conflict with the Russians. In 1875 Japan concluded the treaty of ST. PETERSBURG with Russia and gave up the southern part of Sakhalin in exchange for the Kuril Islands. Hokkaidō became a new frontier in the late 19th century, and many emigrants moved there from the main islands. After the SINO-JAPANESE WAR OF 1894–1895 Japan acquired TAIWAN, and after the RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (1904–05) it acquired the southern half of Sakhalin and leased the southern part of the Liaodong (Liaotung) Peninsula. It annexed Korea in 1910 (see KOREA, ANNEXATION OF) and secured the mandate over former German territories in the South Sea Islands after World War I (see VERSAILLES, TREATY OF). Thus at the time of the outbreak of World War II the total land area was 680,729 square kilometers (262,761 sq mi), but after defeat, Japan was stripped of all territories acquired during its period of COLONIALISM, and until the restoration of Okinawa in 1972 was left with essentially the four main islands.

Modern Administrative System—After the Meiji Restoration the country was administratively reorganized into the prefectural system (see PREFECTURAL SYSTEM, ESTABLISHMENT OF). Tōkyō, Ōsaka, and Kyōto were made *fu* (urban prefectures) in 1871, and the rest of the country was divided into 302 *ken* (prefectures). By 1888 this system had been integrated into a system of 3 *fu* and 43 *ken*. Hokkaidō was administered directly by the central government in the beginning but later came to be treated on an equal footing with other prefectures, though it was called a *dō* (circuit) rather than a *ken*. In 1943 Tōkyō Fu was designated as a special administrative

area and named Tōkyō To (Tōkyō Metropolitan Prefecture). At present Japan is administratively divided into 1 *to* (Tōkyō To), 1 *dō* (Hokkaidō), 2 *fu* (Ōsaka Fu and Kyōto Fu), and 43 *ken*.

Cities, towns, and villages were also reorganized: under the city-town-village system instituted in 1889, 39 towns were designated cities, and 70,000 villages (*mura*) were reorganized into some 13,300 towns and villages. Another large-scale reorganization was carried out under the 1953 Towns and Villages Annexation Promotion Law (Chōson Gappei Sokushin Hō). Towns and villages with a population under 8,000 were merged with larger cities in order to improve administrative efficiency. At the same time, towns and villages with a population over 50,000 and where 60 percent or more of the workers engaged in commerce, industry, and urban business were designated cities. As of 1980 there were 646 cities. As a part of regional development programs promoted by the government, merging of suburban areas with neighboring cities has further accelerated. See also LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

BEKKI Atsuhiko

NATURAL FEATURES OF JAPAN

Topography—The physical character of the Japanese archipelago was determined by its original formation as an arc-shaped mountain range in the circum-Pacific mountain belt at the eastern rim of the Asian continent. The chief feature of the Japanese archipelago is the instability of its ground, with a great amount of volcanic activity and many EARTHQUAKES. This cannot be understood to mean simply that earthquakes are numerous and that volcanic activity is severe; it also demonstrates that the rise and fall of the land and the amount of horizontal migration through minute leveling is also extensive. Another distinctive characteristic of the topography is the fact that the Japanese archipelago is made up almost entirely of steep mountain districts (over two-thirds of the total land surface) with very few plains. The swiftly flowing short rivers that traverse these regions of sharp mountains give variation to the topography by carving out deep valleys and creating small plains at the foot of the mountains.

High, precipitous mountains of about 1,500–3,000 meters (5,000–10,000 ft) run along the Pacific Ocean side of Southwest Japan (i.e., the western half of the country). Deep, V-shaped valleys are cut into these mountain districts. The mountain ranges and mountainous districts of Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku, Kyūshū are representative of this zone. In contrast, on the Sea of Japan side of southwestern Japan are groupings of plateaus and low mountain districts with a height of about 500–1,500 meters (1,600–5,000 feet) such as the Hida, Tamba, and Chūgoku mountain districts, the Kibi plateau, and the Tsukushi Mountains. Thus the mountain districts in the outer zone (the Pacific Ocean side) and the inner zone (the Sea of Japan side) differ, and this configuration dominates the overall structure of the Japanese archipelago; in northeastern Japan also, high steep mountains are found in the outer zone.

The representative mountain districts of Japan are steep and rugged, with high peaks, deep valleys, and spectacular gorges similar to those seen in the outer zone mountain districts. Mountain districts with rounded mountaintops and gentle slopes, such as those found in the Abukuma, Kitakami, Teshio, and Kitami mountain districts, are quite rare.

The large number and variety of VOLCANOES found throughout the Japanese archipelago constitute another remarkable feature. One hundred eighty-eight volcanoes have been active at some time or another since the Quaternary geological period and more than 40 of these remain active today. Among these are volcanoes which have had numerous violent eruptions like Asamayama and Bandaisan. Further, a special characteristic of Japan's volcano zone is the development of large craters or calderas such as those at Akan, Daisetsu, Tōya, Towada, Inawashiro, Hakone, Aso, and Aira. The caldera at Aso, which has remained in its original form, is on a scale unrivaled anywhere else in the world.

The area of the Japanese archipelago occupied by plains does not exceed 13 percent and the percentage of plateau land is only 12 percent. The plains are distributed in small bits at the edges of mountain districts and between mountains. Most of them are small, made by swift rivers—the alluvial fans. Only a small number of large rivers such as the Ishikarigawa, Shinanogawa, Tonegawa, Kiso-gawa, Yodogawa, and Chikugogawa have a fair-sized delta plain at their mouths. Diluvial uplands and river and marine terraces have developed in many coastal areas of Japan and these are utilized along with the plains for agriculture and for habitation.

Climate—The most notable features of the climate of the Japanese archipelago, located in the monsoon zone of the eastern coast of

continent, are the large yearly temperature change and the amount of rainfall. However, because of the complexity of the circulation, there are numerous regional differences throughout the seasons.

g. When low pressure areas pass over the Pacific coast of March, the temperature rises with each rainfall and the zone of cherry blossoms moves gradually from south to north. When pressure areas start to develop over the Sea of Japan, the wind from the south called *haru ichiban*, or the first tidings of winds over Japan. This wind is the cause of both flood winds suddenly melting mountain snow, and the foehn phenomenon sometimes results in great fires on the Sea of Japan side. When high pressure areas develop from the end of April to the middle of May and these sometimes cause frost damage. The rainy season (*baiu*) can already be felt in the middle of May. **ner.** The setting-in of the rainy season takes place around the 7th of a rainy season, a truly gloomy time of year, starts from the part of Japan and moves northward. The position of the front varies each year; when it leans to the south, northeasterners suffer damage from cold summers, and when it leans to the north, the southwestern Japan suffers drought. During the close of the year are frequent severe and localized downpours but the winds subside around 20 July. With its passing, the Ogasawara air blanket Japan and the weather takes on a summer pattern. The end of summer is at the end of July but the summer heat continues into mid-August. Temperatures begin to fall from the end of August.

September is the typhoon season. Weather resembling that of the rainy season also occurs because of the autumnal rainfronts. The clouds clear in mid-October, and the winter seasonal winds blow. Around this time migratory high pressure areas appear and the weather stabilizes. The atmospheric pressure configuration gradually changes to the winter pattern, and snow begins to fall in the northern part of the country.

er. In December, when the atmospheric pressure configuration has completely changed to the winter pattern, northwest winds blow toward the mountains and to the plains on the Sea of Japan side. A dry wind blows on the Pacific Ocean side. The peak of the cold comes around 25 January, and after that warm and cold spells alternate as the weather gradually turns toward spring. See also **CLIMATE**.

Nature — The land area of Japan is on a small scale but its variation is complex, so that the climate and the flora and fauna vary regionally, extending from the subarctic zone in the north to the subtropical zone in the south (see **PLANTS**), and there is also a seasonal change. There is an abundance of **HOT SPRINGS** because of the many volcanoes, and these are popular as health resorts. Since there is a large annual rainfall and plentiful ground water, favorable conditions exist for both agricultural and domestic use of water (see **ELECTRIC POWER**).

Beautiful natural setting with its many seasonal changes also includes any natural disasters. The heavy rains due to the *baiu* front and autumn typhoons bring about flood and wind damage. The winds of winter cause snow damage and also flooding and drought because of the unusually low temperature of the rivers. The heavy rains often lead to landslides. The *off* zone, the mountain districts of the Tertiary formation, shear zone of the Paleozoic strata, are areas particularly subject to frequent landslides. In addition, earthquakes on the scale of the **ŌKAYAMA EARTHQUAKE OF 1923** strike somewhere in Japan several times a decade. The tidal waves accompanying earthquakes also inflict damage on the heavily populated low-lying areas.

There are also disasters caused by advances in human technology, for example, the building up of river beds and the reclamation by draining or filling (see **LAND RECLAMATION**) has brought about flood damage, and excess pumping of the water from the low-lying coastal areas has caused land subsidence. Thus Japan suffers from the combined problem of a large population concentration on a land particularly vulnerable to natural disasters.

Masatoshi M. YOSHINO

GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

1. kōzō. The Japanese archipelago is a part of the island arcs along the eastern edge of the Asian continent and corresponds to the edge of the continental crust that forms the Asian continent. The eastern side of the Japanese islands touches the oceanic crust of the Pacific Ocean directly. The fact that the islands are located near

the border of the two crusts has much to do with their geological characteristics.

Topography — Topographically, the Kuril Arc; the Sakhalin-Hokkaidō Arc; the Honshū Arc, connecting Kyūshū, Shikoku, Honshū, and the western part of Hokkaidō; and the Ryūkyū and Izu-Ogasawara arcs make up the Japanese islands, with each arc assuming a form projecting toward the Pacific Ocean.

The Kuril Trench, the Japan Trench, and the Izu-Ogasawara Trench are one continuous trench, which assumes the form of an arc projecting toward the west. This continuous trench is a narrow submarine channel with a depth of 9,000 meters (about 30,000 ft) in some areas. The Japan Trench is not connected to the Nankai Trough in the offing of Shikoku and Kyūshū. The Nankai Trough is separate from the Ryūkyū Trench and is not as deep as the Japan Trench. The Philippine Basin is separated from the Pacific Ocean by the Izu-Ogasawara Arc, and the Nankai Trough and the Ryūkyū Trench together correspond to the northern edge of the Philippine Basin.

The Sea of Okhotsk, the Sea of Japan, and the East China Sea separate Japan topographically from the Asian continent. They are of the kind called marginal seas, which are generally shallow, though some basins are 3,000–4,000 meters deep (9,800–13,000 ft) in the Sea of Okhotsk and the Sea of Japan.

The geological structure of Japan is reflected in the fact that the Japan Trench is not connected to the Nankai Trough, and that the Kuril Arc, the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc, and the Izu-Ogasawara Arc are one continuous island arc. The southwestern part of the Honshū Arc and the Ryūkyū Islands are a separate arc formed in a comparatively older period. Geologically the former is called northeastern Japan and the latter southwestern Japan.

The border of northeastern Japan and southwestern Japan is a great fault called the Itoigawa-Shizuoka Tectonic Line. The beltlike area east of this fault and running from the western part of Niigata Prefecture to the central part of Nagano Prefecture and from Yamaguchi Prefecture to the eastern part of Shizuoka Prefecture, forms a single valley crossing Honshū that is called the **FOSSA MAGNA**. The mountain ranges and volcanic zones that form northeastern Japan turn south-southeast at the Fossa Magna and are connected to the Izu Islands; southwestern Japan is cut off diagonally at the Itoigawa-Shizuoka Tectonic Line. The Fossa Magna, now buried by sediments of the Neocene period and volcanoes of the Quaternary period, was originally formed as a depressed area in the shape of a trench.

Southwestern Japan is divided into an inner belt (the side facing the Sea of Japan) and an outer belt (the side facing the Pacific Ocean) by the great fault called the Median Tectonic Line, which runs lengthwise along the axis of southwestern Japan from the Ina Mountains to Ōita Prefecture. Both the inner and outer belts are also divided into lesser belts parallel to the Median Tectonic Line. Each belt has its own unique rocks, the stratum of a particular age, and a singular structure. These belts can be traced as far as the Ryūkyū Islands, and the entirety of southwestern Japan is characterized by a considerably regular beltlike structure. The greater part of these rocks and strata were formed either in the Paleozoic era or the Mesozoic era. In southwestern Japan there are fewer volcanoes than in northeastern Japan, and they are concentrated in the area facing the Sea of Japan and Kyūshū.

The stratum of the Neocene period extends over wide areas throughout northeastern Japan, and the rocks of the Paleozoic and Mesozoic eras that form the greater part of the rocks in southwestern Japan are revealed only here and there in the mountain ranges of Kitakami, Abukuma, Ashio, and in the mountains of the Kantō region. These fractures form a continuation from southwestern Japan, but they are broken into fragments by the deforming motions of the Cenozoic era. When the structures of the Mesozoic and Paleozoic groups are traced from southwestern Japan, they are found to be curved in the shape of a reverse S, which is also considered to be the result of deformation motions. Volcanic activity is vigorous in northeastern Japan, and two volcanic zones are present, one running along the Ōu Mountains and the other along the coast of the Sea of Japan. They change direction at the Fossa Magna and are connected to the Izu-Ogasawara Arc. Plains of the Quaternary period that have formed in these mountainous areas and on the seashore have step-like terraces.

Crustal Movement — The Japanese islands have severe crustal movements, which are still progressing. Crustal movements include movements of short duration, such as seismic activity (see **EARTHQUAKES**), and also slow movements of long duration. Volcanic ac-

tivity, gravity anomaly, and crustal heat flow are also directly caused by the crustal deformation. When the locations and scales of these various phenomena are classified and plotted on a map, it is clear that the mode of distribution agrees well with the shape of the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc, providing a basis for the theory that the topographical structure, geological structure, and crustal deformations are all caused by common crust motions.

The hypocenters of earthquakes in northeastern Japan tend to concentrate on a plane on the west side of the Japan Trench tilted 45° from the horizontal. When the pattern of distribution of hypocenters of equal depth is plotted, they form an arc which parallels the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc. In the southwestern part of the Honshū Arc, there is no such regularity, and the frequency of earthquakes is low. The energy released by the earthquakes occurring in and around Japan amounts to an average of 2×10^{23} ergs per year.

Volcanoes have been particularly active in northeastern Japan since the Quaternary period. The mode of distribution is in parallel with the topography. There is a narrow nonvolcanic zone along the Pacific coast, the rest of the region being volcanic. Further, the chemical components of the rocks forming a volcano vary gradually from the inside of the arc to the outside. There is no clear regularity observed in southwestern Japan as in northeastern Japan.

At the eastern edge of the volcanic zone in the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc, the crustal heat flow increases in volume suddenly to over 2.0 HFU from the average of 1.0 HFU (unit of heat flow = 10^{-6} cal/cm²·s) in the Pacific Ocean. A similar value is observed on the continental side, in the Sea of Japan and the Sea of Okhotsk. The isopleth of heat flow also runs in parallel with the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc and agrees with the volcanic zone. Heat flow is almost uniformly low in the southwestern part of the Honshū Arc.

There is a strong negative anomaly in the balance of gravity amounting to -100 milligals along the line from the Japan Trench to the Izu-Ogasawara Trench and there is a positive anomaly in the balance of gravity amounting to +100 milligals in the nonvolcanic zone of northeastern Japan. This pattern is also nearly in parallel with the northeastern part of the Honshū Arc. There is no conspicuous anomaly in the balance of gravity in southwestern Japan.

The crust is 7-10 kilometers (23,000-33,000 ft) thick in the bottom of the Pacific Ocean and the Japan Trench. Granitic crust begins to appear from the western side of the Japan Trench, and the crust suddenly becomes approximately 30 kilometers (98,000 ft) thick. It is about 36 kilometers (118,000 ft) thick in the mountains of the Chūbu district. In northeastern Japan variations in the thickness of the crust correspond to the island arc, but in southwestern Japan the geological structure is not directly related to the thickness of the crust.

History of the Japanese Islands — The Japanese islands were formed as the result of several orogenic movements and are not the product of a single crustal movement. Their history goes back at least to the Silurian period in the Paleozoic era (about 400 million years ago), and the crustal movement still continues.

There is evidence of metamorphism in the Precambrian age (about 1.6 billion years ago) in the gneiss of the Hida Mountains, and gravels of the Precambrian age are contained in the conglomerate of the Mesozoic and Paleozoic groups in the Mino district. There is granite of the Ordovician period (430 million years ago) in the eastern part of Shikoku, which implies that there existed a granite crust forming the basement when the principal part of the Japanese islands became geosynclinal after the Silurian period.

The oldest stratum, as shown by fossil evidence, is that of the mid-Silurian period. The principal part of the Japanese islands had been under the surface of the sea from this period through the end of the Paleozoic era or through the beginning of the Mesozoic era. Although they continued to be filled with sediments such as sandstone, mudstone, limestone, and chert, the islands were in the so-called geosynclinal condition, in which ejecta from volcanoes, including submarine volcanoes, accumulated. The geosyncline in question was not a simple hollow; there occurred an upheaval along the central axis after the late Carboniferous period, and it was divided into three belts. The belt nearest the Asian continent is known as the Sangun-Yamaguchi Terrain, the middle belt as the Sambagawa Terrain, and the belt on the Pacific Ocean side as the Chichibu Terrain. This geosyncline is called the Chichibu Geosyncline (Honshū Geosyncline). The outer shape is considered to have been a simple arc with no geological flexions. In the volcanic activities in the geosyncline, an active period and an inactive period seem to have occurred at each location, as is known from mainly acidic rocks

belonging to the Silurian period and Devonian period and basic rocks belonging to the Carboniferous and Permian periods.

With the arrival of the Triassic period, the condition of the geosyncline approached the last stage, and in the late Triassic period the geosyncline began to form land by means of the folding movement, starting at the innermost part, as thick postorogenic sediments accumulated in the hollow of the new land. At this time regional metamorphism took place in the zone deep under the ground, creating the metamorphic rocks of the Hida and Sangun metamorphosed zones. The folding moved to the outer side, and the whole area of the Chichibu Geosyncline was subjected to folding and fault movement until the end of the Cretaceous period, and thus land was formed. By the end of the Cretaceous period, the Ryōke metamorphic rocks and Sambagawa metamorphic rocks had been created, and a large granite basement (the Hiroshima Granite) had been created inside the Ryōke Metamorphosed Zone.

The Hidaka Mountains in Hokkaidō have been in a geosynclinal condition since the Permian period, and sediments of the Mesozoic era and volcanic ejecta have been deposited. Although the Chichibu Geosyncline was subjected to orogenic movements, the Shimanto Geosyncline was produced outside it. Sediments of the Cretaceous through the Paleocene periods (flysch type) and volcanic products were deposited in the Shimanto Geosyncline. These two geosynclines began orogenic movements in the late Cretaceous period through the early Cenozoic era and formed mountain ranges.

The greater part of the Japanese islands became land in the Paleocene period. It was only after the Neocene period that the sea again began to invade the land. The present northeastern part of the Honshū Arc originated after the Cretaceous period. As the newly produced orogenic zone intersected obliquely with the island arc that had already existed, the northeastern extension of southwestern Japan was curved like a reverse S, forming a block. The sea moved into the hollow created behind it, and volcanic activities began. This is the Green Tuff zone.

Sedimentation took place gradually from east to west in the Green Tuff zone, and foldings occurred. This crustal movement still continues, and volcanic and seismic activities are regarded as representing this movement. Thus the shape of the present Japanese islands had nearly been formed by the Quaternary period, and the sedimentation of the Quaternary period took place in the lowlands scattered all over the Japanese islands and created plains.

SATŌ Tadashi

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Japan Academy

(Nihon Gakushijin). The preeminent learned society of Japan, established in 1879 to honor scholars who have made outstanding contributions to their fields of study. Election to the academy is considered the highest distinction a Japanese scholar can receive. Of the 150 members, 70 represent the humanities and social sciences and 80 the natural sciences. Academicians enjoy life tenure and a yearly stipend. The academy awards two annual prizes—the Academy Prize (Gakushiin Shō) and the Imperial Prize (Gakushiin Onshi Shō)—for important scholarly work and publishes the *Proceedings of the Japan Academy* or *Gakushiin kiyō*. WATANABE Tadashi

Japan Advertisers Association

(Nihon Kōkokunushi Kyōkai). An organization of approximately 180 major advertisers in such media as newspapers, magazines, radio, and television. It was organized in 1956 to take effective countermeasures against the rising costs of advertising. Afterward the organization came to promote a wide range of activities such as education for member advertisers, research and publication of improved advertising techniques, studies in overseas marketing and advertising business, and information gathering.

KAWAKAMI Hiroshi

Japan Advertising Review Organization

(Nihon Kōkoku Shinsa Kikō). An organization established in 1974 for the self-regulation of the advertising industry. Its members include all major advertisers, the media, advertising agencies, and producers of television commercials. It accepts complaints about

Japan Air Lines Co, Ltd

nents from consumers and reviews them in a seven-man e comprised of specialists in various fields such as economy, medicine, and law. When the committee determines an ment to be improper, it notifies all affiliated members and he suspension of publication or broadcast of the advertise- he media. In addition to screening operations, it carries on nge of undertakings in order to ensure social responsibility ising. See also ADVERTISING; ADVERTISING AGENCIES.

KAWAKAMI Hiroshi

Air Lines Co, Ltd

ōkū; often called JAL). Air transport company. With 49 cities in 29 countries of the world, in 1982 this airline nird in the volume of transport among International Air t Association (IATA) members. It also operated domestic ites. The company was founded in 1951 as a joint-stock and reorganized in 1953 as a semigovernmental enterprise e provisions of the Japan Air Lines Law, with exclusive operate international routes. It first crossed the Pacific in l in 1967 it became the third airline to establish a round- l flight. In 1970 it was the first non-Soviet airline to estab- ular route over Siberia.

32 the JAL fleet comprised a total of 82 aircraft, including g 747s, 17 McDonnell-Douglas DC-10s, 22 DC-8s, and 2 27s. The airline has an excellent safety record: as of Sep- 979 JAL pilots had logged a total of 480,000 flight hours an accident. The company also operates hotels and other s through affiliated firms. The Japan Air Lines Develop- operates hotels in Paris and at the NEW TŌKYŌ INTERNA- AIRPORT at Narita and also has chain contracts with a total els around the world, forming JAL Hotel System Interna- he Japan Creative Tours Co sells package tours under the mes JALPAK and ZERO. A terminal at Narita equipped automatic freight handling system is operated for freight under the name of JALTOS. The company is planning to his system in the future. Over 110 flights are operated ev- n JAL's domestic trunk lines, accounting for about 60 per- e total passenger volume on these routes. Annual revenue ¥723.6 billion (US \$30 billion) in the fiscal year ending 982, of which passenger fares accounted for 74 percent, percent, mail freight 2 percent, and others 6 percent. In the r the company's capitalization stood at ¥63.8 billion (US lion), of which 37.7 percent was held by the Ministry of t. Corporate headquarters are located in Tōkyō.

Amateur Sports Association

'aiiku Kyōkai). National organization for the regulation as he promotion of amateur sports and recreation in Japan. y founded in 1911 by representatives from several Tōkyō ies in order to prepare Japan for participation in its first s, the association quickly broadened its role in amateur id became the governing body for such sports as track and mming, karate, and jūdō. It sponsors national competitions he National Sports Festival and supervises participation in onal events such as the Olympics, the Asian Games, and the ade Games. It also promotes physical education in schools es funds for sports facilities and competitions. Present ship includes 39 amateur athletic organizations and 47 pre- sports associations. The first chairman was KANŌ JIGORŌ. SPORTS. TAKEDA Fumio

-American Student Conference

i Gakusei Kaigi). A conference planned and administered nts from Japan and the United States to promote Japanese- n understanding and cooperation. The conference, roughly th long, is held each year alternately in Japan or the United

onference was first proposed by Japanese students after the RIAN INCIDENT of 1931, when relations between the two s began to worsen. The first meeting was held at Aoyama niversity in 1934; the second was held the following year at llege in Portland, Oregon. The conference was held several es until its suspension at the outbreak of World War II. It with the 8th conference in 1947. It is still in operation at ent time; the 33rd conference was held in Tōkyō in 1981 participants.

The conference is chiefly conducted in English, with discussions covering a broad range of topics, such as politics, economics, social problems, education, and culture. Lecturers are also invited to take part.

Japan Art Academy

(Nihon Geijutsuin). Established in its present form in 1947 and placed under the control of the Ministry of Education in 1949, it deliberates on important issues related to art, promotes art, and advises the minister of education on issues concerning art. It is composed of no more than 120 members who belong to one of the three departments: fine arts; literature; and music, drama, and dance. The history of the academy can be traced back to the Bijutsu Shinsa linkai (Fine Art Screening Committee) of 1907, which in 1919 became the Teikoku Bijutsuin (Imperial Fine Arts Academy), headed by MORI ŌGAI. The name was changed to Teikoku Geijutsuin (Imperial Art Academy) in 1937, and at that time the scope was expanded to include literature and music. The academy annually gives Japan Art Academy Awards to people who have made important contributions in the fields of fine arts, literature, music, drama, and dance. See also BUNTEN. JAMES R. MORITA

Japan Association of National Universities

(Kokuritsu Daigaku Kyōkai). An association established in 1950 to promote cooperation among four-year national universities. General meetings and committee meetings of the association are pre- sided over by the presidents of the member universities; executives of the association are presidents and professors of universities that have doctoral degree programs. The association influences the formation of government policies on higher education. Among its opinion papers, "Positions on Standards for Establishment of Graduate Schools" (1967), "Survey and Research on University Reforms" (1971), and "Survey and Research on the Improvement of Entrance Examinations to National Universities" (1974-78) have exerted considerable influence. NAKAJIMA Naotada

Japan Atomic Power Company

(Nihon Genshiryoku Hatsuden). Manufacturer and operator of nuclear power plants and supplier of electrical power. Capitalized by nine major electric power companies and related firms, it was founded in 1957 with the aim of commercializing the nuclear generation of power. In 1966 Japan's first commercial nuclear power plant began operations in Tōkai Mura, Ibaraki Prefecture. Subsequently two more nuclear power plants were constructed by Japan Atomic Power, one in Tsuruga, Fukui Prefecture, and an additional plant in Tōkai Mura. The company continues to play a pioneering role in the introduction and improvement of technology and equipment for the nuclear generation of power and in the training of technicians. In 1978 electric power generation capacity was 16,230,000 kilowatts. In the same year total sales were ¥22.3 billion (US \$106 million) and capitalization stood at ¥62 billion (US \$29 million). The corporate headquarters are located in Tōkyō.

Japan Book Publishers Association

(Nihon Shoseki Shuppan Kyōkai). Organization of leading publishing companies formed in 1957. As of January 1982 it had 418 member companies. It was founded to ensure the continuing growth of the publishing industry and to raise the general cultural level of the reading public. The Publishers Association and the JAPAN MAGAZINE PUBLISHERS ASSOCIATION (Nihon Zasshi Kyōkai) cooperate to formulate ethical guidelines for publishers. In 1968 it published the *Nihon shuppan hyakunen shi nempyō*, a detailed chronology of Japanese publications of the last 100 years, and since 1977 it has published the *Nihon shoseki sōmoku-roku*, a general catalog of books in print in Japan. SHIMIZU Hideo

Japan Braille Library

(Nihon Tenji Toshokan). A social welfare institution for the visually handicapped, located in Shinjuku Ward, Tōkyō. It opened in 1940 with a small collection of braille books owned by Homma Kazuo (b 1915), who is himself blind, and it was established as a social welfare corporation in 1952. The library publishes braille books, tape-recorded books, and newsletters; its holdings of some 91,000 books and 105,000 reels of tape are available to borrowers. The library

provides braille instruction and also designs and distributes games, tape recorders, small household appliances, and other items for the use of the blind.
TAKAKUWA Yasuo

Japan Broadcasting Corporation → NHK

Japan Buddhist Federation → Zen Nihon Bukkyō Kai

Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry

(Nihon Shōkō Kaigisho; commonly abbreviated Nisshō). Central organ of regional chambers of commerce situated in 478 Japanese cities. In 1878 the first chambers of commerce and industry were established in Tōkyō, Ōsaka, and several other cities. Nisshō was created in 1922 to represent the views of member organizations in various domestic and overseas commercial activities. It is especially concerned with international commerce, and business offices of such economic organizations as the Pacific Economic Committee, the Japan–Australia–New Zealand Economic Committee, and the Federation of Asian Chambers of Commerce and Industry have been set up within Nisshō (see KEIDANREN).
HIRATA Masami

Japan Committee for Economic Development

(Keizai Dōyū Kai). Organization made up of business managers and executives of various corporations. The committee's purpose is to promote progress and stability in the Japanese economy by making proposals aimed at benefiting the national economy as a whole and it avoids taking stands on political issues.

At the time of its establishment in 1946, the committee was composed of progressive business leaders and industrialists concerned with the problem of reconstructing and democratizing the Japanese economy. It was intended to provide an informal forum for developing and advancing new ideas. Membership has grown to some 1,000 businessmen. Various subcommittees exist, which conduct research and issue recommendations under the guidance of a board of 200 trustees. The committee has stressed the social responsibility of business and promoted the cooperation of business and academia, resulting in the formation of organizations such as the Japan Center for Area Research and Development which works on problems of urban areas and of regional development, the Japan Research Council on Economics Education which tries to improve education about economics in the secondary schools, and the Japan Greening Center which works to increase green areas in cities. It also cooperates with similar organizations in other countries and is particularly concerned with promoting the economic development of Southeast Asia.

Japan Communist Party

(JCP; Nihon Kyōsantō). Political party. A leading opposition party of the post–World War II era. Founded on 15 July 1922 as a branch of the Comintern by a group of socialist activists including YAMAKAWA HITOSHI, ARAHATA KANSON, SAKAI TOSHIHIKO, and TOKUDA KYŪICHI. The party initially attracted socialists such as NOSAKA SANZŌ, younger intellectuals such as SANO MANABU, ICHIKAWA SHŌICHI, and SHIGA YOSHIO, and workers such as WATANABE MASANOSUKE.

History through 1945 — Until it was legalized after World War II, the party remained a small secretive organization subject to frequent suppression by government authorities opposed to its aim of creating a workers' state free of monarchy. In the 1920s and 1930s the party, usually in vain, sought to extend its influence through publications like its newspaper *Sekki* (Red Flag; see AKAHATA) and through various political activities. In the early years it won a following in the SHINJINKAI and other student associations. It tried to infiltrate the SŌDŌMEI (Japan Federation of Labor), but right-wing members of the federation forced a split that led to the creation of the left-wing Hyōgikai (Council of Japanese Labor Unions). It attempted to enter politics legally through the ranks of the RŌDŌ NŌMINTŌ (Labor–Farmer Party), a left-wing party formed in 1926, and succeeded in getting two communist-backed candidates of this party elected to the Diet in 1928. The government responded by arresting

many of the JCP leaders in the MARCH 15TH INCIDENT of 1928 and the APRIL 16TH INCIDENT of 1929 and by dissolving the Rōdō Nōmintō, the Hyōgikai, and other supporting organizations. A public trial of top JCP leaders ended in 1932 with convictions for all. The following year saw recantations (TENKŌ) by Sano and some other eminent party leaders, and with the arrest of party chairman Hakamada Satomi (b 1904) in early 1935, party activity in effect ceased. Marxism, nonetheless, gained increasing support from academics, drawing such personages as KAWAKAMI HAJIME. A major intellectual event of this era was the heated debate over the development of modern Japanese capitalism. See NIHON SHIHON SHUGI RONSŌ.

Prewar basic party programs reflected leadership changes and world events. In the beginning, the party was dominated intellectually by Yamakawa Hitoshi, who emphasized the need to “go to the masses.” Ironically, his logic led him to call for the dissolution of the JCP to lead the way for the formation of a legal united-front mass party. The JCP was dissolved in effect in 1923 and formally in 1924. In 1924 a young communist, FUKUMOTO KAZUO, returned from two years of intensive study of Marxism in Germany and France and strongly criticized Yamakawa's ideas. Fukumoto argued in favor of the theoretical need for a vanguard party on the basis of “division before unity.” He took part in the reestablishment of the party at the end of 1926.

In July 1927 the Comintern issued a thesis to direct the activities and ideology of the burgeoning Japanese communist movement (see COMINTERN 1927 THESIS). It attacked the ideas of Yamakawa as “opportunist” and those of Fukumoto as “sectarian” and called for a two-stage revolution: bourgeois-democratic and socialist. As a result of greater domestic oppression by Japanese government authorities and the Great Depression, which began in 1929, the party drafted a new thesis in 1931 that urged moving directly into a socialist revolution. The radical approach embodied by this thesis led to factionalism and blistering attacks against social democrats, but it did not receive Comintern approval. However, the 1932 COMINTERN THESIS also called for a two-stage revolution and claimed that the emperor system fostered “military feudal imperialism.”

Postwar History — The JCP was legally constituted on 4 October 1945 by veteran communists released from prison the preceding month. They were later joined by members who returned from China, notably Nosaka Sanzō. Portraying themselves as peace-loving moderates free of any outside influence, they captured 5 seats in the House of Representatives and 2.1 million votes in the 1946 election. In a whirl of feverish activity, party membership and influence on organized labor grew rapidly until General Douglas MacArthur banned the GENERAL STRIKE OF 1947. This event signaled the displeasure of the OCCUPATION authorities (SCAP) with the JCP and caused a split within the ranks of labor. Nonetheless, the communists at first increased their influence, winning 35 seats and almost 3 million votes in the 1949 election as voters critical of the Occupation's “reverse course” shifted their support from the socialists to the communists after the fall of the socialist-led cabinet of KATAYAMA TETSU (1947–48).

However, this success evaporated quickly in the heightened cold war atmosphere of the early 1950s. In January 1950 the Cominform criticized the JCP for not opposing the Occupation sufficiently, and Nosaka accepted the criticism. SCAP responded on 6–7 June 1950 by ordering the purge from politics of the top JCP leadership, which, it said, was endangering the Occupation. After the outbreak of the Korean War on 25 June 1950, the RED PURGE was extended to suspected communist sympathizers in government and private industry. This move hastened the development of anticommunist “democratization leagues” in labor, resulting in the creation of the General Council of Trade Unions of Japan (SŌHYŌ) and the collapse of JCP influence in organized labor.

The JCP leaders reacted by adopting a policy of violent revolution to achieve its aims. Some of them went underground, leaving the party to contend with great internal dissension. The terrorist acts committed by JCP members at the time of the Korean War resulted in the loss of whatever public support the party had enjoyed, and the government listed it as a subversive group under the SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITIES PREVENTION LAW. In the 1952 election the party lost all of its 35 seats in the House of Representatives.

In the mid-1950s the party gradually moderated its policies and activities, and party leaders began to reappear. This trend was reflected in a new basic program that was drafted in 1957, approved in 1961, and remained in force in 1982. The new program stresses the possibility of a peaceful transition to socialism after the achievement of a “bourgeois-democratic revolution.” It bears the stamp of MIYA-

Japan Current

ENJI, the party's leader throughout most of the postwar pe-

76 the JCP added a "Manifesto of Freedom and Democracy" 61 party program. It advocates parliamentary democracy ies the need for "dictatorship" as practiced in the Soviet Although the JCP has opposed the United States-Japan Se- eaty (see UNITED STATES-JAPAN SECURITY TREATIES), and t in the two biggest campaigns against its renewal, in 1960), it was criticized by leftist student groups for not being enough. In the early 1980s it had modified its opposition to ence of the SELF DEFENSE FORCES and, with the end of the War, has become less critical of the United States. It was or the nationalization of certain big businesses only, the pro- of voluntary cooperatives, and comprehensive social welfare. **length**—After its debacle in the 1952 elections, the JCP y recovered and consistently held a handful of seats in the use of the Diet. Its most dramatic gains came in the 1969 , when it won over three million votes for the first time and 1 its membership in the lower house from 5 to 14. It won 10 percent of the vote in the 1972, 1976, and 1979 elections yed only slightly, to 9.8 percent in 1980, but the number of members varied tremendously. It won 40 seats in the 1972 use election, 19 in 1976, 41 in 1979, and 29 in 1980.

the LIBERAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY's (LDP) whirlwind mem- registration campaign in 1977-78, the JCP had the largest ship of any postwar Japanese party. In 1978 its membership 370,000, one-third of which was female. Its newspaper, , has attained a circulation of over three million. This and blications provide over 70 percent of the party's finances. does not rely on labor federations for funds and election n workers as do the two socialist parties. Its auxiliary or- ns have also attracted wide support. Among student move- s main support comes from the MINSEI (Democratic Youth f Japan), which has about 200,000 members, 70 percent of e working youths rather than students. It is considered the derate of the leftist STUDENT MOVEMENTS. Some JCP mem- active in organizations such as the Zen Nihon Minshu Iryō ngōkai (Min'iren; All Japan Leagues of Democratic Medical s), which consists of clinical and volunteer doctors and ho help people unlikely to receive medical assistance else- and in associations of merchants and small manufacturers ise small businessmen on tax problems. urnover in party membership has apparently been high, but rship has so far been stable and not suffered major splits, ie JAPAN SOCIALIST PARTY. After the party's break with the Communist Party in 1963-64, one of the earliest and most nt JCP leaders, Shiga Yoshio, was expelled in 1964 because pport of the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty. Other leaders left or elled when the JCP broke ranks with the Chinese Commu- y in 1966-67.

JCP has adopted an independent and nationalist stance that ased its popularity and respectability at home. Its national- pressed in various ways; it emphasizes traditional Japanese ure and has been outspoken in its demands for the return to the Soviet-occupied islands north of Hokkaidō. Because of antipathy toward it, the JCP was the only party that played n the normalization of relations (1972) and the signing of the APAN PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP TREATY (1978). The party ears to have the closest relations with the communist parties France, and other Western states.

ite recent electoral reverses, it seems unlikely that popular for the JCP has reached a permanent plateau. However, its s of becoming part of a ruling party coalition seem dim. In

of many voters the JCP appears not to have completely ated itself from the unpopular policies and acts of the So- on. Others, however, feel that the party has become so able" that a more radical party might develop in its place. Hans H. Baerwald, "The Japanese Communist Party: Yo- l Its Rivals," in Robert A. Scalapino, ed, *The Communist on in Asia* (1965). George M. Beckman and Genji Ōkubo, *anese Communist Party, 1922-1945* (1969). Allan B. Cole, J. Totten, and Cecil H. Uyehara, *Socialist Parties in Postwar 966*. Paul F. Langer, *Communism in Japan: A Case Study of Naturalization* (1972). Robert A. Scalapino, *The Japanese nist Movement, 1920-1966* (1967). George Oakley Totten *Social Democratic Movement in Prewar Japan* (1966).

George Oakley TOTTEN III



Japanese Alps

Yarigatake, the fourth highest mountain in Japan, with other peaks of the Hida Mountains (the Northern Alps) in the distance.

Japan Current → Kuroshio

Japan Development Bank

(Nihon Kaihatsu Ginkō). Government financial institution. Estab- lished 20 April 1951 pursuant to the Japan Development Bank Law "to supplement and encourage the credit operation of ordinary fi- nancial institutions by supplying long-term funds in order to pro- mote industrial development and economic and social progress." The bank is capitalized solely by the Japanese government, and its operations are controlled and supervised by the government. Lend- ing activities are carried out in accordance with an annual policy determined by the cabinet. Operations are divided into seven cate- gories: urban development, regional development, improvement of the quality of life, resources and energy, ocean shipping, develop- ment of technology, and miscellaneous. Domestic sources of funds for lending operations come from the government, loan repayments, and reserves. Outstanding borrowings from the government amounted to ¥5.1 trillion (US \$21.2 billion) at the end of March 1982. The bank's sources of international funds are external loan bonds and note issues, all of which are guaranteed by the govern- ment. New loans extended in fiscal 1981 amounted to ¥1.1 trillion (US \$4.6 billion), and outstanding loans totaled ¥5.9 trillion (US \$24.5 billion) at the end of the same year. The bank's headquarters are in Tōkyō.

Japanese Alps

(Nihon Arupusu). Three mountain ranges extending north to south in central Honshū, consisting of the HIDA MOUNTAINS (also called the Northern Alps), the KISO MOUNTAINS (Central Alps), and the AKAISHI MOUNTAINS (Southern Alps). The highest peak is KITA- DAKE (3,192 m; 10,470 ft). The term Japanese Alps was used by various English visitors to Japan in the late 19th century and was made popular by Walter WESTON in *Mountaineering and Explora- tion in the Japanese Alps* (1896). The Chūbu Sangaku and Southern Alps national parks are situated in the Japanese Alps.

Japanese American Citizens League

(JACL). Political and civil rights organization of the Japanese Ameri- can community, corresponding roughly to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People for American blacks or the Anti-Defamation League of the B'nai Br'ith for American Jews. At its founding in 1930 it was an organization exclusively for *nisei* (sec- ond generation JAPANESE AMERICANS). Limiting its membership to citizens only, it in effect barred *issei* (first generation Japanese Americans). Although JACL attempted to influence US government policy from its very inception—the first convention called for the granting of the rights of citizenship to Asian aliens who had served in the US armed forces during World War I—its major influence was felt after Pearl Harbor, when, almost by default, it became the sole organized voice of the Japanese American community.

The JACL not only supported, unambiguously, the US war effort against Japan, but it also chose an accommodationist stance when in early 1942 the US government decided to relocate and incarcerate the Japanese American population of the West Coast, citizens as well as aliens (see JAPANESE AMERICANS, WARTIME RELOCATION OF). Although this stance was unpopular with many—JACL leaders inside the concentration camps were often denounced as *inu* (dogs) and in some instances physically assaulted—it ensured that the organization's views were listened to by at least some key federal officials. The JACL's major objectives during the war were to have *nisei* reaccepted fully into American military service and to allow *nisei* whose loyalty had been proven beyond doubt to return to their homes.

In the postwar era the JACL campaigned with a great deal of success for a Japanese American Claims Act, for a revision of the naturalization laws so that Asians could be naturalized under the same terms as Europeans and Africans, and for an equitable immigration system that no longer discriminated against Asians (see UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION ACTS OF 1924, 1952, AND 1965). In the early 1980s it was engaged in a campaign for some kind of redress for Japanese Americans who were incarcerated during World War II.

Although many now see it as a functionless organization, since the overt statutory discrimination against Japanese Americans is a thing of the past, the JACL has never enjoyed more influence or prestige outside of the ethnic community than at present. Like the organizations of other ethnic groups on which it modeled itself, it has never attracted more than a tiny fraction of the Japanese American population into formal membership. At the end of the 1970s, however, it had some 32,000 members.

■ —Bill Hosokawa, *Nisei: The Quiet Americans* (1969). Roger Daniels, "The Japanese," in John Higham, ed, *Ethnic Leadership in America* (1978). Roger DANIELS

Japanese Americans

A racial minority group in the United States consisting of immigrants from Japan and their descendants. According to the 1980 US census, there were 700,747 Japanese Americans, with the largest concentrations in California (261,817), Hawaii (239,618), Washington (26,369), New York (24,524), and Illinois (18,550). Japanese Americans have been victims of extreme racial prejudice and discrimination, the most tragic episode being their incarceration during World War II. They have nonetheless made important contributions to American society in agriculture, the arts, military service, science, business, and other fields. Their significance in the annals of American race relations stems from their real or presumed affiliations with Japan as their homeland.

In recent years, a somewhat heroic mythology has developed about Japanese Americans in the popular press and to a certain extent in race relations research. Japanese Americans have been depicted as a "model minority" group, which, having faced seemingly insurmountable racial and economic barriers, has finally risen to prominent socioeconomic status. Although this view can be buttressed with demographic data on educational and income levels, it also disguises a wide range of unresolved social issues and problems facing Japanese Americans, as well as the extreme diversity of the group.

The Japanese American experience in the United States, which spans more than a century, can be analyzed as follows: (1) 1868–1924, the major period of Japanese immigration to Hawaii and the United States, as well as the first major phase of organized anti-Japanese agitation, culminating with the Immigration Act of 1924, which in effect barred further immigration from Japan (see UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION ACTS OF 1924, 1952, AND 1965). During this period, approximately 270,000 Japanese migrated to the United States, of which over 125,000 came during the peak years 1901–08. (2) 1924–41, the major period of Japanese settlement and community development in the United States and the emergence of American-born Japanese Americans. (3) 1941–45, the years of wartime incarceration, when 120,000 Japanese Americans from the Pacific Coast were placed in American concentration camps called relocation centers. (4) 1945 to the present, the postwar recovery period, when Japanese Americans rebuilt their lives and communities. It also was during this period that the third generation emerged.

Some scholars have analyzed Japanese American history according to successive generations of Japanese Americans: *issei*, *nisei*, *san-*

sei, and *yonsei*, Japanese terms referring to first, second, third, and fourth generations of Japanese Americans. These terms are often used to categorize Japanese Americans in terms of age cohorts, which exhibit somewhat different American and Japanese behavioral, cultural, and attitudinal traits. For instance, the *issei* usually read, write, and speak Japanese with greater fluency than their *nisei* offspring or *sansei* grandchildren. Social groupings by generation tend to share and be affected by common historical experiences and circumstances. Thus, one can speak of the *issei* experience and the *nisei* experience, as well as other generational experiences that correspond to particular times and specific episodes in Japanese American history. The *nisei* experience, for example, begins in the 1920s and 1930s and encompasses events such as the American Depression, Japan's invasion of China, their own relocation during World War II, and the postwar era. Although the *nisei* experience overlaps with that of the *issei* and *sansei* generations, many special concerns arose from the unique sociohistorical position of the *nisei*. For instance, many *nisei* reached adulthood in the 1930s and found that severe economic conditions and continued racial discrimination prevented them from getting jobs commensurate with their education. The "vocational problem," as the *nisei* labeled it, usually meant that college graduates had to accept low-paying jobs. During this period many college-educated *nisei*, including some who became prominent during the postwar era, went to Japan to seek greater economic and social opportunities.

Immigration Background—Japanese immigration to the United States began in the late 1860s. In 1868 a shipload of 148 contract laborers arrived in Honolulu to work on Hawaii's flourishing sugar plantations. These laborers, known as *gannen-mono* or "first-year men," because they came in the first year of Emperor Meiji's reign, were recruited from the Tōkyō and Yokohama areas by Eugene Van Reed. Reed was an American citizen commissioned by King Kamehameha IV as Hawaii's consul general in Kanagawa. Within a month after their arrival, there were numerous complaints from laborers and from plantation owners. Japanese government officials were aware of the harsh treatment accorded to Chinese laborers in America and the demeaning perception of China as a storehouse for cheap labor and did not want the same fate for Japan and its people. They subsequently stopped immigration to Hawaii until 1885.

In an unrelated and unsanctioned venture, Japanese immigration to the mainland had its symbolic beginning in 1869 with the arrival of the so-called Wakamatsu colony, whose twenty-odd members came from the Aizu Wakamatsu area of Japan. The group was led by John Henry Schnell, a European military adviser to Matsudaira Katamori, the feudal lord of the Aizu Wakamatsu domain, who had supported the Tokugawa shogunate at the time of the Meiji Restoration (1868). The Wakamatsu colony was an advance party of farmers and *samurai*, sent to determine whether the United States could serve as a place of political refuge. The group arrived in San Francisco and made its way to Gold Hill near Sacramento. They planted mulberries, tangerines, Kōshū grapes, and tea. However, the group soon disbanded after a severe drought destroyed its crops. A grave marker near Gold Hill remains as evidence of their presence.

The origins of Japanese immigration can be traced to these and other isolated travelers, but large-scale immigration to Hawaii and the United States mainland did not begin until 1885–86, when the Japanese government relaxed restrictions against emigration. It also signed a treaty with Hawaii, the Irwin Convention, named after Robert Walker IRWIN, an American businessman and the Hawaiian Board of Immigration representative in Japan, who subsequently played a major role in recruiting Japanese laborers. The treaty required that each laborer sign a three-year contract with the Hawaiian government, which guaranteed free travel, employment, housing, food, and other services. Although there were many abuses of these conditions, vigorous promotional campaigns, coupled with glamorized accounts of individual successes, motivated large numbers of Japanese to migrate to Hawaii, the United States, Canada, and various Latin American countries, especially Brazil (see JAPANESE AMERICANS IN HAWAII; CANADA, JAPANESE IMMIGRANTS IN; BRAZIL, JAPANESE IMMIGRANTS IN).

Japanese immigrants to the United States were far from homogeneous, but they shared some common features. In early years, they tended to be young, single men with the equivalent of an eighth-grade education, who came from farming backgrounds in the southern and western prefectures of Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Wakayama, Kumamoto, and Fukuoka. Most viewed themselves as sojourners,

to make enough money abroad to live comfortably in Japan if they returned. Those who went to Hawaii usually worked on plantations, and those who came to the mainland (directly or through Hawaii) served as laborers in agricultural, mining, and lumber industries. Before 1908, when the GENTEN AGREEMENT between the United States and Japan took effect and placed restrictions on the types of individual immigrants, the ratio of men to women was 7 to 1. However, in the remaining years of large-scale immigration to the United States, more women than men migrated, and most came as picture brides of immigrant men. The picture-bride system, which was consistent with the prevailing Japanese custom of go-between and viewing marriage as a collective decision for families rather than individuals, was promoted by immigrants who believed that a viable and prosperous immigrant society could not be developed until the immigrants viewed themselves as permanent settlers. Permanent residency in the United States replaced the dream of returning to Japan for many immigrants who saved enough money to start small businesses in the United States. Marriage and the creation of families further reinforced permanent settlement in America.

The picture-bride system was instrumental in immigration, but the immigration was due to major economic and political pressures in the United States and Japan. In the United States, the organized anti-Chinese agitation and violence culminated in the enactment of the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, the first federal immigration law based solely on race. As a result, it developed a severe shortage of cheap and reliable labor, which led to the further development of agricultural, mining, and other industries in California and other western states. Likewise, plantations were confronted with a diminishing labor pool as Chinese laborers fulfilled their contractual obligations and returned to China or began their own businesses.

The Meiji government's ambitious drive for industrialization and national parity generated internal political conflicts and severe social dislocations, which had an unusually adverse impact on the cultural sector. Emigration was viewed as a safety valve by the Meiji government and as one means of coping with difficult economic conditions by those who went abroad. A major distinctive feature of Japanese immigration was the active role of the government in monitoring and controlling the immigration. Government officials took numerous measures, which included the creation of a special government bureau and government-directed emigration companies to ensure that immigrants would depart fairly and that they would not undermine Japan's rising national status or its relations with the United States. The close cooperation between Japanese government officials and the immigration promoted with the American government's view of Japan as an emerging major power, elevated many regionally based controversies, such as the San Francisco school board's 1906 decision to segregate Japanese schoolchildren, to major areas of contention between the two countries (see SEGREGATION OF JAPANESE SCHOOLCHILDREN IN THE UNITED STATES).

Evacuation during World War II — The World War II internment of 120,000 Japanese Americans from the Pacific Coast to 10 concentration camps (see JAPANESE AMERICANS, WAR-RELATED) is the most tragic event in Japanese American history. The roots of what has been called "America's worst wartime atrocity" reach back to decades of anti-Japanese hatred and in the western states and most profoundly to the bombing of Pearl Harbor. Numerous works have been written about its chronological sequence, and broader societal consequences, but there has been less research on its immediate and enduring impact on Japanese Americans. It is evident that the evacuation had profound effects on Japanese Americans as a group and as individuals.

Recent research, for example, indicates that the evacuation had a devastating economic impact on Japanese Americans in that it not only resulted in personal loss of property, income, and savings, but also in the destruction of a viable ethnically based economy. In recent years, scholars have challenged the US Federal Reserve Bank's estimate of \$400 million in property losses as being a misleading figure and have argued that total economic losses were at least 4 times greater. Other studies have shown that the evacuation led to the dispersal of a sizable proportion of the Japanese American population to cities in the Midwest and East Coast, where few Japanese Americans had resided before the war; destroy a number

of previously existing Japanese American communities such as the fishing village on Terminal Island in Southern California; and cause various forms of social disorganization for the Japanese American family unit in adapting to the abnormal situation of life in concentration camps. Other writers have argued that the wartime incarceration permanently altered the structure and goals of Japanese American organizational life and leadership by hastening the generational transition of community leadership from the *issei* to the *nisei*. And finally, many scholars have argued that the incarceration had immediate and enduring psychological consequences for Japanese Americans, which parallel those observed among survivors of other major tragedies and disasters.

In 1980 a US presidential fact-finding commission finally was established to investigate the causes and consequences of the wartime incarceration on Japanese Americans and to recommend appropriate remedies and compensation.

Japanese American Organizations — Japanese Americans have had many and diverse organizations during their history in the United States. Beginning with the founding in 1877 of the Japanese Gospel Society of San Francisco, an *issei* Christian and English-language study group, Japanese Americans have formed an extensive network of organizations to advance their economic, social, religious, cultural, and political goals. These organizations have varied in terms of their exclusiveness of membership and specificity of goals to particular generations and social classes of the Japanese American community and in terms of their importance at specific times. *Kenjinkai*, for instance, were founded by *issei* from a particular *ken* or prefecture in Japan and provided many social services for the early immigrants. Although *kenjinkai* still exist, their members are largely elder *issei*, *kibei* (*nisei* who have returned to the United States after a period of residence and sometimes education in Japan), and recent immigrants. Japanese American religious institutions, Protestant, Buddhist, Shintō, or Catholic, have members from all generations and social classes and have been the most long-standing organized units in the community.

Most Japanese American organizations are rarely visible to outside observers because their activities and memberships are largely confined to the ethnic community. It is only on rare occasions, such as during Los Angeles' annual Nisei Week festival, that some groups engage in outside promotion. Other organizations, such as the JAPANESE AMERICAN CITIZENS LEAGUE (JACL) and the Japanese American Bar Association, actively participate in issues external to the community. Like other American immigrant groups, Japanese American organizations reflect an ever-changing diversity of orientations and relationships with institutions of American society as well as of Japanese society. Although greatly misunderstood and under attack during periods of intense anti-Japanese activity, there have been and continue to be many groups like the prewar Japanese Associations, Buddhist Churches of America, as well as cultural, martial arts, and fine arts organizations which have had ties with affiliates in Japan. There have been numerous chapters of major American organizations such as the American Legion, Democratic and Republican parties, and Optimists which are predominantly Japanese American and participate in the affairs of their parent groups. Finally, since the late 1960s, a number of organizations with many Japanese American members have been founded on the concept of Asian American, reflecting the commonality of experiences, concerns, and goals of all Asian ethnic minorities in America and the desire to seek collective remedies. The Asian American concept has its roots in the Asian American student movement of the late 1960s and 1970s, which featured substantial participation by college-age *sansai* and is now embraced by other sectors of the Japanese American community.

Although diversity characterizes Japanese American organizational life, there are two groups which deserve special attention because of their significance during crucial periods in Japanese American history. During the pre-World War II era, the JAPANESE ASSOCIATIONS OF AMERICA were clearly the most important and multifunctional group in the Japanese American community. Founded beginning at the end of the 19th century, they "assisted new arrivals through immigration stations, fought the exclusion movement, promoted social and educational programs, and depending on the locale, even promoted economic functions" (Ichioka, see Bibliography). Local associations were established at all major Japanese immigrant settlements, and these locals were formally linked to larger coordinating bodies like the Japanese Association of America, which encompassed chapters in California, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, and Arizona. Attacked as a "government within a government," the