

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 56

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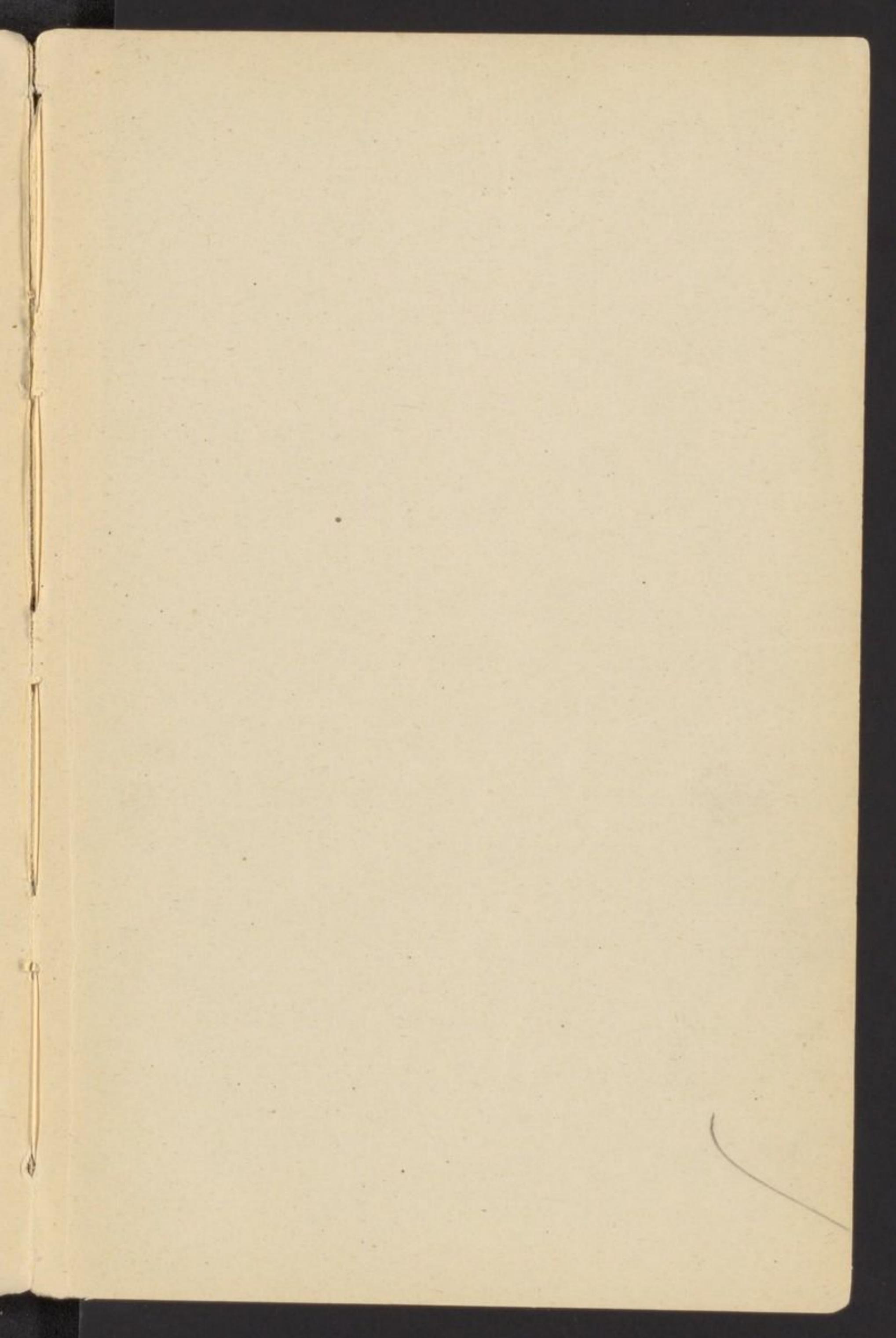
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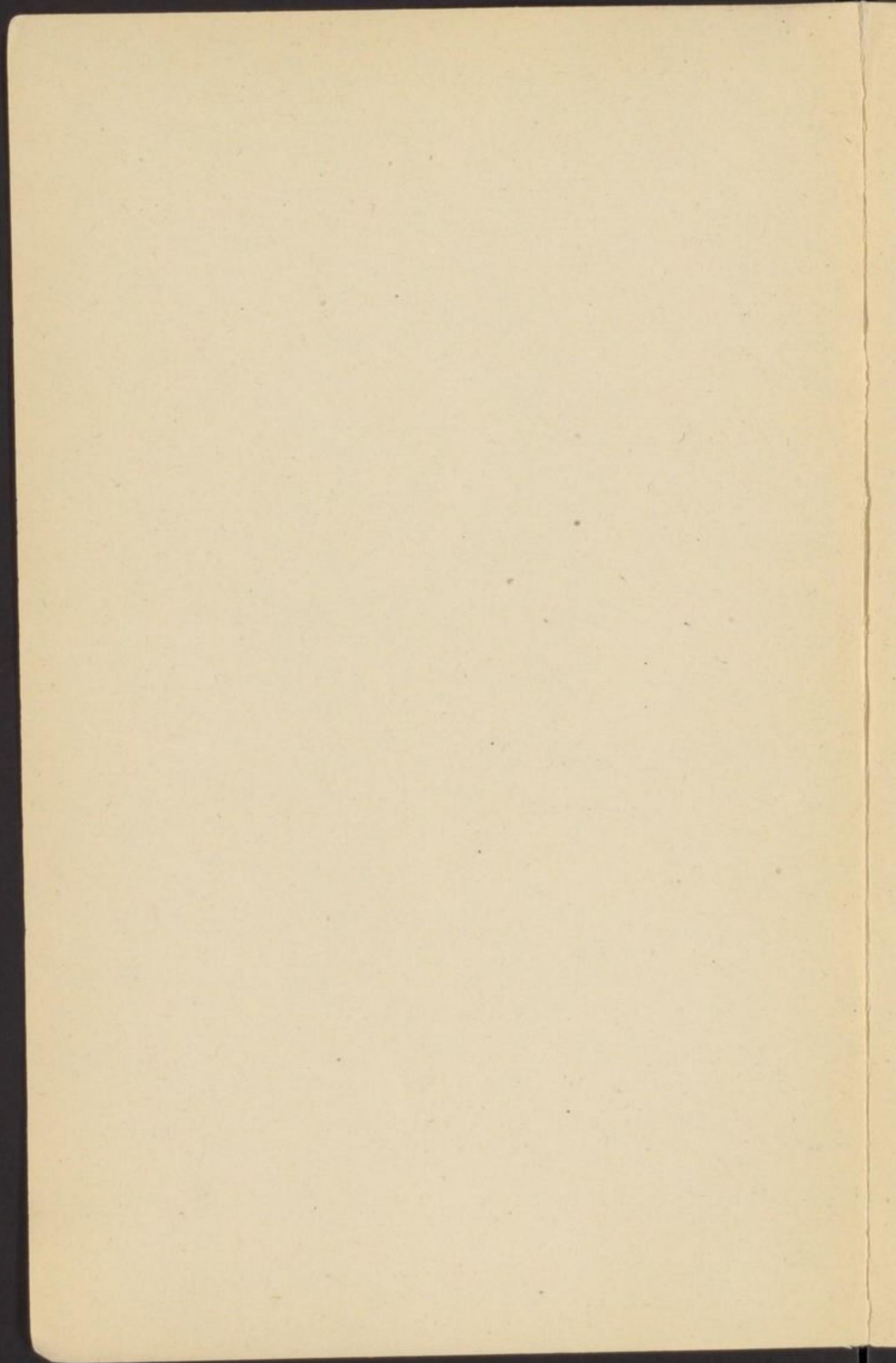


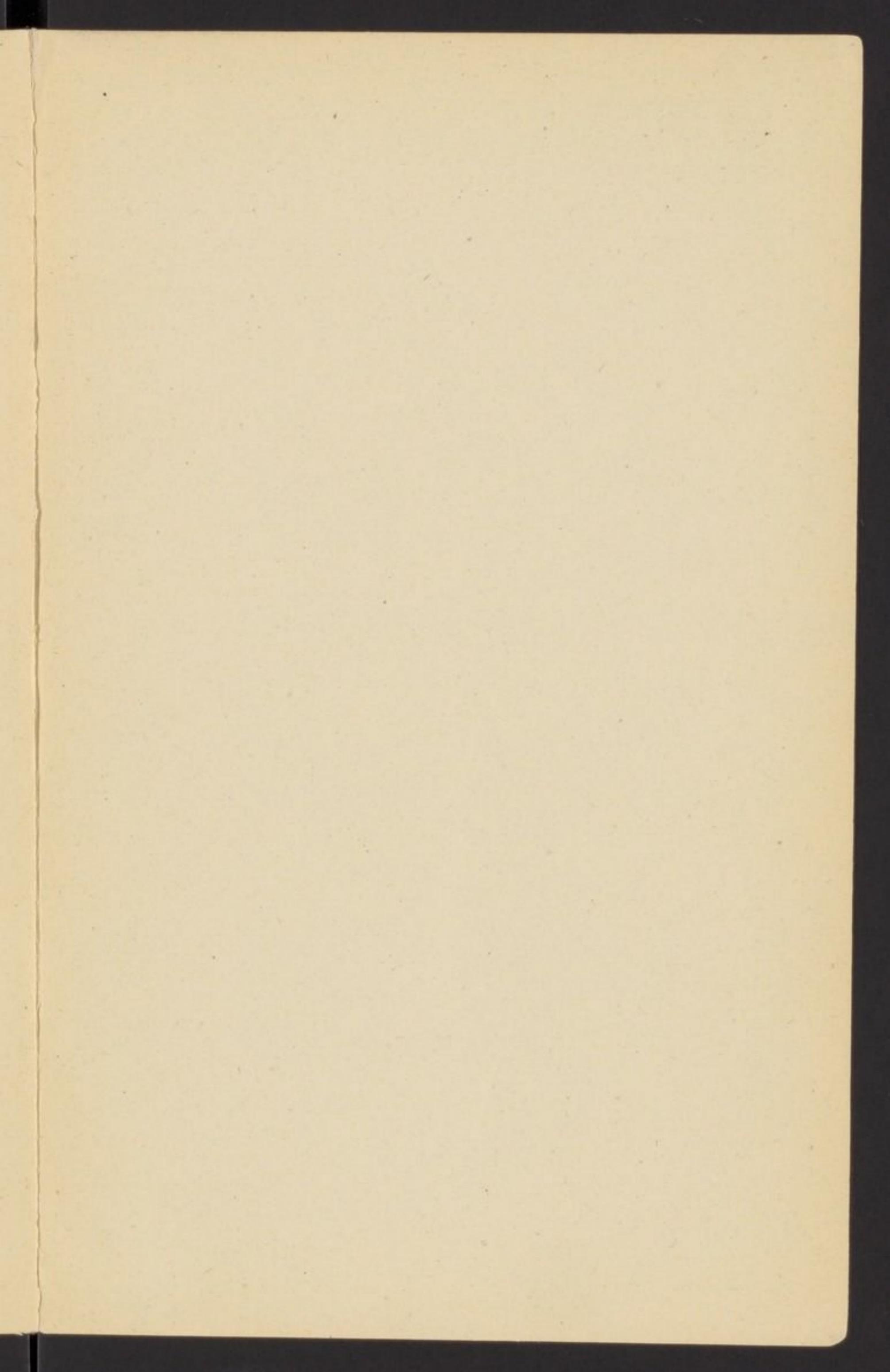


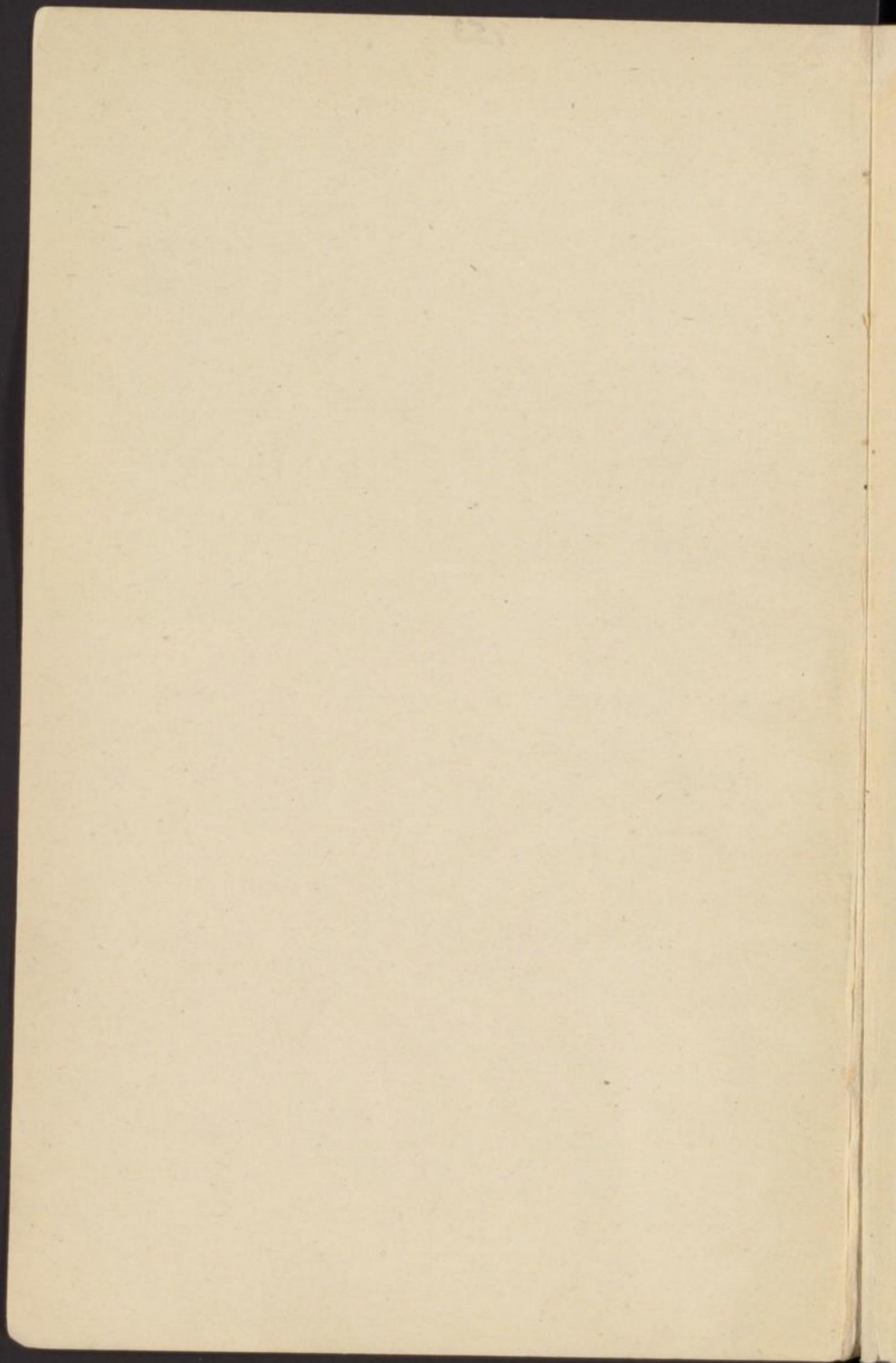
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EDITORIAL NOTE

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense ; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.*

January 1920.

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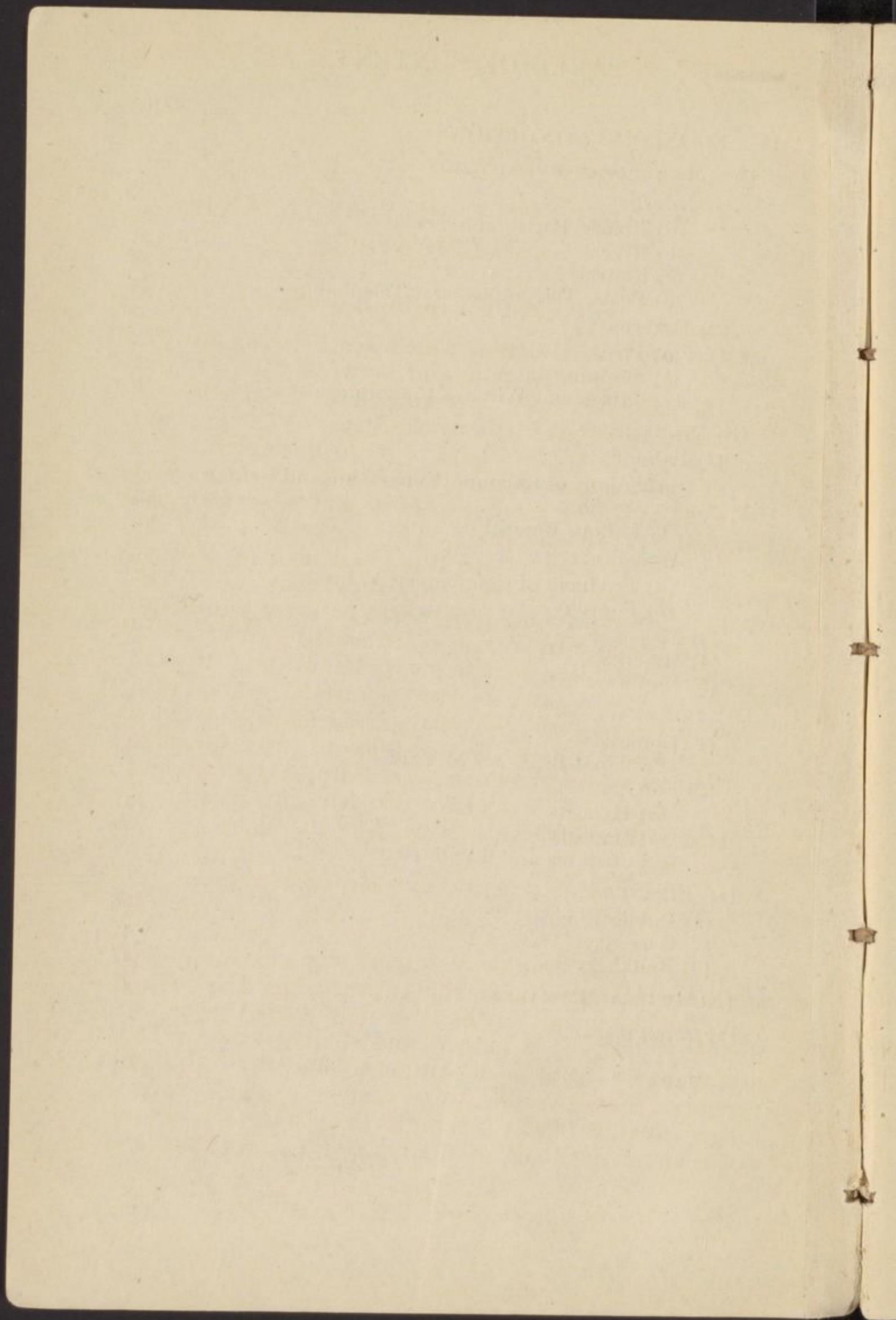
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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND BOUNDARIES

THE island of Sakhalin, which lies between $45^{\circ} 54'$ and $54^{\circ} 27'$ north latitude and between $141^{\circ} 49'$ and $144^{\circ} 45'$ east longitude, is separated on the north-west from the mainland of Asia by the Strait of Tartary, and on the south from the island of Yezo by the Strait of La Pérouse, which connects the Sea of Japan and the Gulf of Tartary on the south and west with the Okhotsk Sea on the east. The distance across the Strait of Tartary from Cape Pogobi on Sakhalin to Cape Lazarev on the mainland is only about four miles. The island is 586 miles long from north to south and varies in width from 12 to 95 miles; it has an area of about 29,000 square miles, including adjacent islands. By the Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905 the island was divided at 50° north latitude, the northern part being assigned to Russia and the southern to Japan. The Japanese portion, which is known as Karafuto, has an area of 13,148 square miles, while the Russian portion is supposed to be somewhat larger.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Sakhalin has been very imperfectly surveyed, but probably local tradition is right in regarding it as having once been a peninsula, as it is now parted from the mainland only by a narrow and shallow strait. The arrangement of the mountains generally adopted presumes that there are three ranges—a north-central range starting in the Schmidt Peninsula, a western range along the coast of the Gulf of Tartary, and an

eastern range along the Sea of Okhotsk. Geographers attribute the chief heights to the western range in Japanese territory, the principal being Lopatinski or Berzinet Peak (3,890 ft.) and Toman Dake (3,396 ft.); in the eastern range the highest point appears to be Mount Tiara (1,940 ft.).

The principal stretches of level land on the island are on the western side from about $51^{\circ} 20'$ to $53^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude and on the eastern side from about $51^{\circ} 40'$ to the same degree. Both these plains are covered in parts with scanty vegetation. Across the island stretches a long plain, which extends from the northern shore of the Gulf of Patience (Terpyeniya) up the valley of the Poronai and down the valley of the Tim; the watershed between these rivers is about 1,900 ft. in altitude.

Coast

The western coast of Sakhalin is wooded, and consists chiefly of high bluffs, partly of granite, partly of sand, rising in places to a height of 400 ft. North of the Strait of Mamia Rinzo, however, the coast is very low, being scarcely visible from a ship following the usual route.

The eastern coast from Manue to Cape Dalrymple is steep and rocky, and south of Cape Löwenstein becomes high and mountainous. From there to Cape Elizabeth the coast is iron-bound.

In the Japanese part of the island lie Aniva Bay in the southern extremity, and the wide Gulf of Patience (Terpyeniya), both of which are fishing centres. Characteristic features of this coast are the sea-lakes or bays which are formed along both shores. Bars are formed rapidly at the mouths of the rivers, but being of porous and friable material are quickly and easily intersected by the sea.

River System

The two chief rivers are the Tim and Poronai; each has a course of about 300 miles, and they flow respec-

tively north and south from about latitude $50^{\circ} 30'$ north, being separated by the Palrov pass. The chief tributaries of the Tim are the Pulruga on the right bank, and the Malo-Tim and the important River Nis on the left. This river flows into the Bay of Ni, which is protected from the sea by a spit of sand with a narrow aperture (the Anuchina opening). The Poronai is a very similar stream; it rises near the source of the Tim, makes a bend northward, and then turns south, in which direction it flows for the rest of its course.

At the extreme south of the island are the rivers Naibuchi and Susuzha, the former of which has a depth of 20 ft. for the last 10 miles of its course.

(3) CLIMATE

The whole island is much colder than might be anticipated from its latitude, and the climate is severe. In the northern part July is the warmest month, with an average temperature of 62.6° F. (17° C.), and January the coldest, with an average temperature of -0.4° F. (-18° C.). At Otomari, in the Japanese part, August is the warmest month, with a mean temperature of 62.6° F. (17° C.), January the coldest, with a mean temperature of 12° F. (-11° C.).

The rainfall is heavy, especially in summer, and destructive floods sometimes occur. At Otomari the total rainfall is 19.27 in. (48.95 cm.), the number of rainy days 106, and the maximum fall in 24 hours 2.25 in. (5.72 cm.). The wettest months on the average are September and October and the driest December and February. Snow falls on 99 days in the year; it begins in October and continues till May. Frost begins in September and lasts till June; the bays along the eastern shore freeze and drift-ice appears as late as July. Frequent thick fogs are the worst feature of the climate; they are especially dangerous in La Pérouse Strait during the summer months. The western shore

enjoys better conditions than the eastern, despite cold fogs and sharp sea winds, but for several months in the year the straits are frozen. The prevalent winds are north and north-west in winter and south, south-east or east in summer.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Malaria and scurvy are the most prevalent diseases upon the island, consumption and infectious diseases being comparatively rare. Neglect of hygienic rules is one of the principal causes of mortality, and a frequently fatal disease is 'leg-dropsy'.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The Japanese, who have been developing their new possession, and emigrating to it in great numbers, are by far the largest element in the population. The Russians have almost all withdrawn from Japanese Sakhalin. The aboriginal population is dwindling, and does not now amount to much more than 3,000 in all.

The chief tribe is that of the *Gilyaks*, who occupy the northern part of Sakhalin. Their affinities are puzzling, and it is probable that a large infusion of Mongol blood has profoundly modified the original type, which is supposed to be Palaeo-Siberian. The *Gilyaks* have been less corrupted by contact with civilized people than many other tribes of the Far East. Their language appears to be a quite distinct tongue.

The *Ainus* are found in the Japanese part of Sakhalin, and are a Palaeo-Siberian tribe very difficult to classify. The hairiness for which they are popularly known has been much exaggerated, and is not greater than that of many Europeans, though it differentiates them strongly from the Mongol tribes. Their tongue is also quite distinct; they are unacquainted with writing and have no literature.

The *Oroks* occupy settlements along the east coast

and in the interior of Sakhalin. They are a tribe of Tungusic stock. About 200 *Tungus* are found in the tundra country along the lower course of the Poronai.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

In 1911 the population of the Russian part of the island was 7,535, and of the Japanese part 36,725; but in the latter the numbers have greatly increased, the figures quoted for 1917 by the *Financial and Economic Annual of Japan* being 68,207, of whom 38,403 were males and 29,804 females. There are few Russians anywhere outside a radius of 30 miles from Alexandrovsk. The aboriginal population was in 1905 estimated at 2,000 Gilyaks, 1,300 Ainus, 750 Oroks, 200 Tungus, and 13 Yakuts, but these totals were almost certainly too high.

Towns and Villages

Russian Sakhalin.—The centre of government is *Alexandrovsk*, on the west coast opposite De Castries Bay; to-day it has probably a population of about 1,200.

Due lies on the west coast, a few miles south of Alexandrovsk. It is the centre of the coal industry, and under the Russian regime was the most frequented harbour in the island. The settlement consists of a few houses and barracks for troops. *Derbensk* and *Rikovsk* were built as convict settlements.

Japanese Sakhalin.—The capital is *Toyohara* (pop. 12,900), which is an agricultural centre 25 miles north of *Otomari*. *Otomari* (pop. 16,000) is a treaty port open to foreign trade, and is the principal port in Japanese Sakhalin. *Mauka*, or *Maoka* (pop. about 19,000) on the west coast, the second in importance of the Japanese ports, is a flourishing place and seems destined to become the chief port in the island, as it is free from ice all the year. It is the centre of the herring fishery. *Manue* and *Kusunai* are both on

a good road, which crosses the island. *Shikika* has an open roadstead near the mouth of the Poronai. *Sakaehama*, an important coast settlement, is at the mouth of the River Naibuchi.

Movement

The Russian population has greatly diminished ; in 1911 it is said to have fallen to 5,158 (but cf. p. 14). The aboriginal population is also dwindling. The Japanese population, on the other hand, has increased enormously since the annexation of Karafuto, and in December 1911 numbered 36,725, but this is less than three-fifths of the summer population. The average increase of the population in the five years ending 1917 was 104.69 per 1,000. The figures given in the *Financial and Economic Annual of Japan* are—1914, 57,206 ; 1915, 60,660 ; 1916, 64,323 ; 1917, 68,207. (For another estimate see p. 28.)

Emigration from Japan is the main reason for the increase. The numbers who crossed to the island from Japan were in 1910, 28,688 ; in 1911, 31,416. (But cf. p. 28.)

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1613. Reputed Japanese discovery of the south coast of Sakhalin.
1649. European discovery of Sakhalin by Martin Vries.
1700. Chinese dominion over the north of the island.
Japanese (Prince of Matsumai's) dominion over the south of the island.
1785. Manchus appoint overseers in the north.
Japanese Shogunate takes direct interest in the island.
- 1805-8. Mamia Rinzo's expedition through the island.
1807. Lieut. Koostov takes possession of the island for Russia.
1853. First official Russian settlements on the island.
1860. Treaty of Peking. Cession of Primorsk to Russia.
1867. Convention between Japan and Russia.
1875. Treaty between Japan and Russia.
1905. Conquest of Sakhalin by Japan.
1905. Treaty of Portsmouth (U.S.A.).
1907. Fisheries Agreement; Japan gains fishing privileges on the Russian Pacific coasts.

(1) *Discovery and Early Connexions with Japan, China, and Russia*

ALTHOUGH legends of the Gilyaks of northern Sakhalin tell of their arrival from the banks of the lower Amur less than three hundred years ago, it is certain that the earliest civilized visitors found people of that type in the north of the island and also Ainus in the south.

From time immemorial, invasions of the island appear to have followed two routes, the northern and the southern. Members of the Gilyak tribe must have filtered from their ancestral villages on the lower Amur into the northern half of the island centuries ago, while the arrival of the Ainus from Japan in the southern portion of the island probably dates from an

even more remote period. As it was with the early peopling of the island, so also has it been during the last three centuries. The Chinese arrived in northern Sakhalin by the River Amur, and were succeeded by the Russians; in the south of the island the Japanese followed in the footsteps of the Ainus.

The discovery of Sakhalin in 1649 is attributed to the Dutch Captain, Martin Vries; he named its easternmost point Cape Patience, and anchored in the Bay of Aniva, which faces south towards Yezo, the northern island of Japan; but in an eighteenth-century Japanese geographical account it is claimed that during the Shogunate of Fidia-toda (1605-22), the Prince of Matsumai, Kinfiro, ruler of Yezo, sent an expedition to survey Karafuto; it returned the following year to the island and wintered there. No settlement appears to have been made; and Vries, thirty years later, reported only Ainu natives on the south and east coasts. A later Prince of Matsumai (1688-1703) sent officials to the island, and claimed to have established his dominion over the southern half of Sakhalin by the year 1700. A map (or a copy made in 1782) is said to exist, which he presented to the Shogun as a sign of the offering of dominion. Eleven of the divisions of Sakhalin and several of the Kurile Islands have been identified on this map, which also shows 81 Japanese and 140 mixed native and Japanese villages. Such a Japanese settlement of the southern portion of the island in the early eighteenth century seems at least doubtful, but another source confirms the existence at this period of a lively trade between Matsumai and the Ainus of Karafuto.

The succeeding Princes of the Matsumai dynasty were unsupported by the Tokugawa dynasty, and their influence waned before the advance from the north of the Manchus, who in the last quarter of the eighteenth century had encroached seriously on their trade. It was not until after the accession of the Manchu dynasty to the throne of China (1644) that interest even in Manchuria was awakened

in the Empire. The first notable result, in part due to the influence of the Jesuit Fathers at the Court of the Emperor K'ang-hsi (1661-1722), was the Treaty of Nertchinsk (1689), which checked the Russian advance down the Amur river. Ten years later, according to a Japanese historian,¹ a Chinese General, Koklio, was dispatched with a large force down the River Amur and across the sea to a large island which (or at least its northern part) he seems to have annexed. The same authority adds that the Chinese were dominant in the north of the island about the year 1700. It seems improbable, if this military expedition occurred so early as 1699, that it would have been unknown to the Jesuit Fathers who were sent by K'ang-hsi in 1709 to map eastern Tartary; they reported that their first knowledge of the island was gained from natives on the Amur, and added that the Emperor later sent Manchus to Sakhalin, who brought back a careful geographical and topographical account of the northern half of the island. Perhaps it was this survey which appeared at Peking in 1776 in the twenty-fourth volume of a hydrographical work on China, collated from the earlier *Great Official Description of the Empire*.

From 1785 the Shogunate Government took a direct interest in the island, sending an expedition in that year to Yezo, whence Oisha Ippei was dispatched to Sakhalin to learn from the Manchus what area they claimed. About this time both the Manchus and the Japanese became alarmed at the activities of 'foreign ships'. The Manchus, according to Mamia Rinzo, appointed certain of the natives overseers of various districts, and tried to bind the natives by a solemn agreement to trade only with themselves; but from the beginning of the nineteenth century we hear nothing of Manchu claims, although their traders from the lower Amur continued to visit the island as they had probably done for the previous two hundred years. On the other hand, Japanese fears of Russian aggres-

¹ Togo Yoshida, *Karafuto under the Prince of Matsumai*.

sion led to the dispatch of several expeditions, the most notable of which—that of Mamia Rinzo in 1805–8—resulted in the discovery that Sakhalin was an island, and left us a map and description of it.

The Russian arrival overland in these regions was comparatively late; and, although Poyarkov had descended the Amur in 1644, Russian progress, except in the direction of Kamchatka, was checked for 160 years by the Chinese (Treaty of Nertchinsk, 1689).¹ Nevertheless, Russian ships were seen in the north Pacific from the year 1720; and in 1800 the Tokugawa librarian, Hondo Juzo, found and destroyed pillars of occupation set up by the Russians on the island of Iturup (Kuriles). In 1807 a Russian, Lieutenant Koostov, with the permission of Ambassador Riazonov, took possession of Sakhalin for Russia; but in 1813 Vice-Admiral Golovnin, who had been seized by the Japanese three years earlier as he was surveying one of the southern Kurile Islands, obtained his release by disavowing Koostov's act, and formally renouncing Russia's claims to Sakhalin.

This period witnessed the growing importance of the fisheries of southern Sakhalin in the hands of the Japanese. There existed many fishing-stations with storehouses, especially on the west coast; and a commissioner with under-officials and a Government depot was stationed at Kusunkotan (later Korsakovsk). Fur-trading continued with the Ainus and Gilyaks, and there were a few allotments under cultivation.

(2) *Russian Occupation and Negotiations with Japan, 1850–75*

Russia, dependent for a century and a half on mere forest tracks—impassable during most of the summer—for land communications with her posts in Kamchatka and along the Okhotsk coasts, had cast longing eyes on the Amur river as a convenient highway. Any attempt to use the river, however, would involve risk of a clash with China, and farther advance

¹ For text of this treaty, see *Eastern Siberia*, No. 55, p. 92.

might embroil her with Japan. In 1846 Lieutenant Govrilov had explored the mouth of the Amur, and had reported (inaccurately) against its navigability. Moreover, Count Nesselrode, the Russian Foreign Minister, was fearful of offending China. The Tsar, however, was interested in Far-Eastern Siberia, and appointed General (afterwards Count) Muraviev Governor-General of Eastern Siberia in 1847, with instructions to study the Amur region. Count Nevelskoy's activity on the East Siberian littoral under Count Muraviev led to the establishment in 1853-5 of small Russian posts in the south of Sakhalin, also at Due on the west coast opposite De Castries Bay, where on the mainland a Russian post had been established in 1849. Due was chosen as a fur-trading place; but in the same year the discovery of coal there and exaggerated reports of its value led to increased activity on the part of the Government. In 1853 Admiral Putiatin had advised Count Nevelskoy that the annexation of Sakhalin, following the Imperial Order of April 11, 1853, for its occupation, must involve trouble with Japan; and three years later it fell to him to sign a treaty with Japan, Article II of which provided that

the boundaries between Russia and Japan are in future between Iturup and Urup. The whole island of Iturup belongs to Japan, the island of Urup with the north Kuriles to Russia, while the island of Krafto (Sakhalin) is neutral ground between the two Empires.

Count Muraviev found in the Crimean War and the Anglo-French expedition to Peking his opportunity for expansion. During the former he largely increased his forces for the 'defence of the Pacific coast', and with this as a makeweight, in the hour of China's weakness, negotiated the Treaties of Aigun (1858) and Peking (1860), by which Russia obtained the Ussuri and the Primorsk (coast) regions. No mention of Sakhalin occurs in these treaties; and China's claim to the island can only be said to have lapsed incidentally to Russia, no such plea indeed having been

publicly preferred by the latter. Moreover, Russia had previously to these treaties begun fencing with Japan over the island.

During the next few years the weak Tokugawa dynasty—fearing Russian aggression—dispatched envoys at intervals to St. Petersburg; but they met with little success, since Russia coveted the reputedly rich coal-mines of Sakhalin and the Bay of Aniva, which for a large part of the year is ice-free. To Japan it appeared that the whole island was slipping from her grasp by diplomatic processes. When therefore, in 1862, Russia demanded that the boundary line should be the 48th parallel, an arrangement which would have given her more than four-fifths of the island, Japan expressed her willingness to compromise and to divide the island on the 50th parallel. This offer was not accepted; and in 1865 Russia offered to exchange the Kurile Islands, to which Japan had an equal claim, for the Japanese claims on Sakhalin. On March 18, 1867, these negotiations were suspended for a few years by a curious convention which gave to each Power 'the common right of joint occupation', and to members of both nations permission to 'occupy' unoccupied places all over the island. An immediate race for occupation was the result. Japan, populous and near at hand, readily furnished colonists, whereas Russia, being far away, could at best send ex-soldiers and convicts, but no women. The Russians, thus handicapped in the race, erected inscribed posts to denote that occupation had taken place. The Japanese followed suit. In 1869 800 convicts were dispatched from Trans-Baikalia to work the coal-mines at Due. Although there was no local collision, this anomalous state of things could not continue; and on April 25, 1875, Japan, alarmed at Russia's growing power in the Far East, gave way, accepting in lieu of her claim to Sakhalin the Kurile Islands and an annual payment for a fixed number of years. She also agreed to station a consul at Korsakovsk during the summer months to levy on account of Russia a *pro rata* tax on

the Japanese fishermen. It was a diplomatic defeat for Japan; but she had saved that for which Sakhalin was most valuable to her, namely, the right to fish on the southern coasts of the island.

(3) *Russian Possession, 1875-1905*

It is instructive to contrast the differing significance of the island to the Chinese, the Japanese, and the Russians. The Chinese and their Manchu subjects regarded it as a fur-trading centre; the Japanese valued it mainly for its rich fisheries; the Russians were first attracted by reports of rich coal-mines, but the poor results yielded by backward methods and convict labour disappointed them, and they came to look upon the island merely as a convenient dumping-ground for convicts.

Sakhalin, indeed, proved to be a gaol in itself. It was easy to escape from prison but not from the island. Russia's penal policy affected Sakhalin, and Sakhalin reacted on that policy. The Siberiaks of the seventies and eighties urged the familiar colonial objection to their country being overrun by escaped convicts and ex-convicts. Moreover, the Exchequer was interested, since security of life and property in Siberia spelled greater potential receipts. In 1888 M. Galkin Vrasskoy (afterwards head of the General Prison Administration) recommended that all 'vagabonds' should be sent in future to Sakhalin; and shortly before this female convicts were sent to the island, the simplest form of legal marriage being permitted, in order to bring about the settlement of ex-convicts on the island.

Sakhalin was divided into three administrative districts (*okrugi*), of which the chief places were Alexandrovsk on the west coast, Korsakovsk in the south, and Rikovsk in the centre. At the head of each district was a chief or *Nachalnik*, assisted by a doctor, an Inspector of Colonies, and a small garrison consisting of one company. Prisons were situated in each of the chief towns and in a few others; and for a short radius

around these, in clearings, there were 99 small settlements of ex-convicts and those convicts who were allowed to perform their hard-labour duty outside the prison. Over all was the Military Governor, having his official residence at Alexandrovsk, and responsible to the Governor-General of Eastern Siberia at Khabarovsk on the Amur.

Taking the Government statistics of January 1, 1898, as typical of the period, the population of the island comprised 31,964 Russians and 4,134 natives (but cf. p. 6). Of the Russians there were 19,770 men and 2,397 women who had been sent to Sakhalin as convicts. Only 7,080 (6,446 men and 634 women) of these convicts were at hard-labour duty; the rest, having done their term, had become 'exile-settlers'. Among the hard-labour convicts were 76 political exiles. The free population consisted of 1,308 women and 6 men who had followed their convict spouses, several thousand children of convict parents, and about 2,000 officials and soldiers.

The bulk of the convicts lived outside the six prisons, the unmarried men in barracks; and all, including many from the prisons, worked at logging, coal-mining, and various domestic jobs for the officials. Ex-convicts were allotted uncleared land, seed potatoes, and rations for a year, and after a residence of six years, subject to good conduct, could cross to the mainland if they were offered work there or had obtained sufficient money. The Government regulations were in general humane, but were largely nullified by the maladministration of officials. With convict and ex-convict labour it is not surprising that no industry flourished. The coal-mining produced from all the mines only about 36,000 tons a year; agriculture was of the poorest, and grazing little better. Fishing, except in the southern half of the island, was confined to the rivers, and scarcely counted even in local consumption.

In the south of the island, although many Japanese had left after 1875, the larger share of the fisheries was still in the hands of their countrymen. It is necessary

to explain the extreme importance attached to these by the Japanese. Japan is still largely an agricultural country, and depends upon intensive cultivation. Fish is therefore necessary to her, not merely as a food, but as manure. Until the Chino-Japanese War haricot pods from China and Korea had been used as a substitute for guano. When these supplies were cut off the Japanese came to realize the value of fish manure, which, although five times the price, is far superior in chemical properties. With the increase of shipping and particularly of steam shipping, the schools of fish, notably herring, have to a large extent been frightened from the coasts of Japan, so that Sakhalin is increasingly valuable to her.

The attitude of the Russian Government towards the natives, who are peaceable, was paternal, but rather passively so than actively. It interfered little with them; and, so long as no trouble arose, they were allowed to regulate their lives by the customs of the tribe, the chief man of each village being appointed its responsible head. Unfortunately the activity of the lower officials and ex-convict traders was in contrast to the Government's passivity; for in contravention of Government regulations they traded vodka for valuable skins. Further, by the march of civilization and competition on the part of ex-convicts, the natives lost river-fishing stations; their winter store of fish was thus reduced, and they became liable to starvation and epidemics in the late winter. Occasionally in such crises the Government distributed food.

(4) *Japanese Conquest, 1905*

The cession of the island to Russia in 1875 caused considerable excitement in Japan, and it was to be expected that the latter would seize the first opportunity in the Russo-Japanese War to retake it. This opportunity did not arise until after the defeat of the Baltic fleet in the Tsushima Straits on May 27 and 28, 1905. Two naval squadrons with transports were

forthwith dispatched from Japan to Sakhalin, the first disembarking in the Bay of Aniva on July 7, 1905. The Russian forces, inferior in number, were defeated and driven northwards into the forests of the interior. The second squadron landed troops on the west coast at Arkova, Alexandrovsk, and Due on July 24, and, quickly driving the enemy eastwards to Derbensk in the centre, overtook them in the forests to the south, and defeated them at Palevo. On July 31 the Military Governor of Sakhalin, with 70 officers and 3,200 rank and file, surrendered. The following day Lieutenant-General Haraguchi proclaimed military administration over the whole of the island; and on August 6 the civil administration staff left Tokyo for Karafuto.

The news of the result of the conference at Portsmouth, U.S.A., led to considerable agitation in Tokyo, and the press had to be muzzled. Great expectations of the advantageous terms to be exacted by their victorious arms had been cherished by the Japanese public; but the financial weakness of Japan and the clever manœuvring of M. de Witte doomed them to early disappointment. Apparently the negotiations between Russian and Japanese envoys reached a deadlock. At this point President Roosevelt is said to have suggested to the Tsar the cession of the southern part of Sakhalin to Japan and a payment for the other half. The latter provision savoured of an indemnity; and the Tsar refused; but, when the negotiators met again, M. de Witte proposed the cession of the southern half of the island to Japan, and Baron Komura accepted the offer.

Of the Portsmouth Treaty (Sept. 5, 1905), Articles IX, X, XI, and an Additional Article, concern Sakhalin:

Article IX reads :

The Imperial Government of Russia cedes to the Imperial Government of Japan in perpetuity and full Sovereignty the southern portion of the Island of Sakhaline, and all the Islands adjacent thereto, and the public works and properties thereon. The fiftieth degree of north Latitude is adopted as the limit of the ceded territory. The exact alignment of

this territory shall be determined in accordance with the provisions of the Additional Article II annexed to this Treaty. Japan and Russia mutually agree not to construct in their respective possessions on the Island of Sakhaline or the adjacent Islands any fortifications or other similar military works. They also respectively engage not to take any military measures which might impede the free navigation of the Strait of La Pérouse and the Strait of Tartary.

Article XI reads :

Russia engages to arrange with Japan for granting to Japanese subjects rights of fishing along the coasts of the Russian possessions in the Japanese, Okhotsk, and Bering Seas. It is agreed that the foregoing engagement shall not affect rights already belonging to Russian subjects or foreigners in those regions.

Article X provides for the safety and protection of Russian subjects in the area ceded to Japan; and Additional Article II, referred to in Article IX, provides for a Commission to delimit the boundary and to prepare a list and description of the adjacent islands comprised in the cession and maps showing the boundary.

This arrangement was completed by the Russo-Japanese Fisheries Agreement of 1907, by which Japanese fishing guilds and companies acquired leases of fishing rights in Russian territorial waters while Russian concerns operating both on the coast and on rivers were allowed to employ Japanese labour in certain cases. Altogether some 13,000 Japanese fishermen and labourers spend the summer at stations along the Asiatic Russian littoral. Thus one of the chief sources of income of the Hokkaido (Japan) is outside its boundaries, and its prosperity is largely dependent on the success of fisheries on a foreign shore.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

(A) *North Sakhalin*

(a) *Natives*.—The few hundred natives are Shamanists; for them Nature, animate and inanimate, possesses spirits; and the medicine man (in the Gilyak tongue, the *Cham*) exorcises the bad and attracts the good demons. The Bear Festival in January, at which the animal is sacrificed and his spirit speeded to the God of the Mountains, is the greatest religious and social event in their calendar. Although the Gilyaks are included by M. Patkanov¹ as Christians, there is not a sign of their conversion; it is otherwise with the Oroks, who have cut off their pigtails and added, at least in one or two of their huts, an ikon to their collection of charms. The Russian priest is not above the temptation to supply vodka in exchange for valuable sable skins. Once a year he makes a journey to the centre of the island during the hunting season to baptize Orok children and read the burial service for deceased members; but the natives do not respond with alacrity, since many sable skins have to be given for these privileges.

(b) *Russians*.—The Orthodox Catholic religion obtains among the majority of Russians. All officials have to receive the Communion once a year; but it is not difficult to arrange with the priest for evasion of this obligation. Exceptions to the law are made in favour of those of other acknowledged religions. There were, besides the Russian church at Alexandrovsk, a Lutheran church and a Mohammedan mosque. In 1898 there

¹ *Essai d'une statistique . . . des peuples palaeasiatiques de la Sibérie.*

were sixty-seven prisoners doing hard labour who were sentenced on account of their religious belief. The number of churches officially reported for the whole island before the Russo-Japanese War was twenty-six, but there are really about half a dozen only in the northern area, Alexandrovsk, Due, Derbensk, and Rikovsk each having one. The priest occasionally visits the forty or fifty out-lying settlements and reads a short service at a spot marked by a cross.

(B) *South Sakhalin*

(a) *Natives*.—Except for a very few Gilyaks the natives of South Sakhalin are Ainus. They are said to believe in a great Creator, but otherwise are animists, seeing spirits in most natural forms. A patriarch of the village performs their ceremonies and they have no Shamans. The Bear Festival is the great event of the year, and they have even been called on this account 'bear worshippers'. As the Japanese do not proselytize, the Buddhist and Shintoist priests do not carry on any missions among them.

(b) *Japanese*.—The recent growth of the national spirit among the Japanese, particularly during the Russo-Japanese War, led to the revival of Shintoism ; so that it is no longer true to say that Shintoism ushers the Japanese into life and Buddhism attends and buries him. Both these religions are represented in Sakhalin, the former by four sects with eleven shrines and the latter by six sects and seventy-three temples. There are also four Christian churches, two so-called Japanese Episcopalian and two Roman Catholic.

(2) POLITICAL

(A) *North Sakhalin*

The Military Governor of the island resides at Nikolaevsk on the Amur and visits his official residence at Alexandrovsk once or twice a year, a Deputy-General being in charge. A small garrison, nominally a battalion, is stationed in the island. Theoretically

the officials are interested in the development of the island; but the schemes put forward have not materialized after years of talk.

(B) *South Sakhalin*

Karafuto is divided into five administrative districts (*cho*) under prefects. The Governor has his seat at Toyohara, having moved his capital northwards (25 miles) from Otomari. A small garrison is posted at the latter place, one of the companies of a scattered battalion.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

(A) *North Sakhalin*

(a) *Natives*.—Among the natives of North Sakhalin, of whom the great majority are Gilyaks, there are no educational facilities. Two or three individuals have been known to learn Russian and to reside for a time in Russian towns; but the white man's life has not suited them.

(b) *Russians*.—Statistics show that the Russians, before the Japanese conquest of the island, had 32 schools with 800 pupils, of which perhaps one-half are in the existing Russian portion of the island. These were in most cases small village schools dependent for their existence on the presence of a political exile as teacher. The number has probably decreased with the diminution of the population. Under the present system Sakhalin falls in the fifteenth division of the general Amur educational district. In a division of an *oblast* such as is Sakhalin, primary education is provided by the local authority or by private persons. The schools are of the primary grade, and for higher education it is necessary to go to the mainland.

(B) *South Sakhalin*

(a) *Natives*.—Under the Japanese in 1917 there were among the natives twelve 'teaching places' with 202 pupils conducted at an expense of 4,838 yen.

(b) *Japanese*.—A complete national system of education was established in the Japanese Empire in 1873 and remodelled in 1886. Primary schools prepare for the middle—followed by the high schools, which in turn prepare for the universities. In South Sakhalin there were in 1916 three Government primary schools with 2,628 pupils, one Government middle school with 225 pupils, and a Government higher girls' school with 48 pupils. The cost of these was 67,159 yen. In addition to these there were 105 private primary schools with 5,420 pupils with a total expenditure of 74,009 yen. Commercial and technical schools in Japan are largely private; but there is no mention of such existing on the island.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

In considering the claims to the island we may dismiss the question usually raised by the presence of subject native races. The proposal to give back the island to them cannot be effectively urged. There are four different tribes, numbering all told about 3,000 individuals and gradually diminishing. They are still in the hunting stage.

The coal of the island is of good quality and the quantity of fair promise. Its future may be brighter when harbour facilities remove its handicap in competing with Japanese and North-China coal.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

THE greater part of the island of Sakhalin is covered with primeval forest, and the means of communication are therefore defective; the few roads that exist have been cut through the jungle by convict labour. There are also a few paths, made by widening bear-tracks. The natives travel chiefly by river.

The main road of the island during the period of Russian rule started from the coal-mines of Due on the west coast and ran to Alexandrovsk, the seat of government, a distance of about 8 miles. It then ran northward to Arkovo, a village near the coast, whence it turned inland, crossed the backbone of the island, and dropped down on the other side to Derbensk on the upper waters of the Tim, 35 miles from Alexandrovsk. At this point a corduroy road and cleared track descended the Tim to Slavo, but the main road turned southwards for 9 miles, to Rikovsk. The total length was 44 miles of well-made road. Beyond Rikovsk the road became merely a cleared track, following for 200 miles the swampy right bank of the Poronai, and thence proceeding along the east coast through Naibuchi and Vladimirovka to Korsakovsk, which under the Russians was the chief prison and administrative centre of the south.

For a few miles out of Rikovsk there was a road on the left bank of the Poronai, passing through the village of Longari. From Alexandrovsk there was also a short road inland to Novo Mikhailovsk, which may be termed a suburb, and thence a track to Rikovsk. In winter the natives with their dog-sledges used the

beach, or rather the frozen fringe of the sea, as a mail route to Cape Pogobi, whence they crossed the frozen sea to the mainland. It was also considered safer to make the journey from Alexandrovsk to Arkovo, and the latter half of that from Alexandrovsk to Due, by the beach at low tide, instead of by the road, as the traveller thus reduced the chances of attack to one side only.

Korsakovsk in the south was the centre of a few Russian roads which began bravely enough, but ended as mere tracks. One ran northwards to the village of Takoi, beyond Vladimirovka, and another linked up Korsakovsk with Muravievsk on the south-east and with Mauka on the west coast. At the narrowest part of the island a Russian track connected the villages of Manue on the east coast and Kusunai on the west.

After the acquisition by Japan of the southern part of the island, new towns were laid out at Toyohara (Russian, Vladimirovka), Otomari (Korsakovsk), and Mauka, and a highway was constructed across the backbone of the island from Toyohara, the capital, to Mauka on the west coast. Another was made later from Toyohara south-west to Cape Notoro. The Russian highways and tracks were converted into roads 15 ft. in width, and bridges were built. These roads and bridges, however, leave something to be desired, and better provision is necessary if the economic expansion of the colony is to continue. By 1911 the Government had established 53 ferries, carrying passengers at small fees, or without charge, and had granted subsidies to 73 road stages providing lodgings, horses, and porters. Notwithstanding their conservatism, the Japanese are using Russian carts on these roads. In winter, communication is maintained between Toyohara and Mauka by Ainu dog sledges and with the Russian part of the island by native reindeer sledges.

(b) Rivers

The chief rivers, the Tim and the Poronai, are shallow, and their mouths have to be approached

cautiously on account of sand-banks or dunes. The Poronai is navigable a few miles up—as far as Poroto—by vessels of $4\frac{1}{2}$ ft. draught. The Tim, from Derbensk to its mouth, a distance of about 200 miles, is said to have 11 rapids, 89 sand-banks, and many obstructions formed by fallen trees.

The rivers are the main highways for the natives, who use them for canoe traffic in the summer, and as roads for sledges when frozen in the winter.

(c) *Railways*

There is no railway in the Russian area. Rails are laid down from Alexandrovsk to the jetty, a distance of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

During the Russo-Japanese War the Japanese military administration built a light railway of 3 ft. 6 in. gauge from Otomari (Sakaemachi Station) to Toyohara; this was opened to the public in 1909. In 1911 it was extended to Sakaehama, a total length of about 56 miles, thus linking up Aniva Bay with the east coast. This railway is said to connect the four wood-pulp factories which the Japanese have established at Otomari, Tomariaru, Toyohara, and Ochiai.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

In the Russian portion of Sakhalin mails are delivered by the Russian Volunteer Fleet of steamers to Alexandrovsk. During about three months of mid-winter, mails are carried by native dog-sledges over the frozen sea between the island and Nikolaevsk, near the mouth of the Amur. The Russians had a telegraph system along the roads linking up the principal prisons, which were connected also by the weekly post from Alexandrovsk.

The Japanese have a mail service three times a month by steamer from Hakodate. They have maintained and extended the Russian telegraph system. Postal, telegraph, and telephone offices are established in the chief towns, Toyohara, Otomari, Mauka, Shikika,

Nayoshi, and Nishi-Notoro. There are sixteen subordinate post offices, two of which are also telephone exchanges.

(2) EXTERNAL

Under Russian rule Sakhalin suffered seriously from the want of regular communication with the mainland. In the winter there was no communication, except for the months during which sledges could be used ; and even in the summer, when the sea was open, there was no harbour available.

(a) Ports

Alexandrovsk and *Due* are mere open roadsteads. *Alexandrovsk* has a pier 350 yds. long ; and, in order to develop the coal-mining industry, it has been decided to construct a properly equipped port there. At *Due* ships have to lie two-thirds of a mile out.

Mauka on the west coast is another open roadstead, but it has the distinction of being almost free from ice in winter, and it seems destined to become, if it has not already become, the most flourishing port of Japanese Sakhalin. To-day it possesses a larger population (19,000) than any other town on the island.

Otomari, which includes *Sakaemachi*, 1 mile distant, is closed by ice for about three months in the year, but in the open season it affords safe anchorage, except with winds from the south and west. Four short piers and one longer one, with a depth of 6 fathoms at its end, have been built, but ships generally unload into lighters.

Minor ports are *Sakaehama* on the east coast and *Ushiyara* on the west coast, but at both the anchorage is most insecure. Ships must lie some distance off shore and load and unload by means of lighters.

From time immemorial Japanese junks have anchored in the Bay of Ni within shelter of the sand-dunes, to trade with the native Gilyaks, Oroks, and Tungus. Unfortunately on this coast fogs prevail from the end of April into July.

The only available records of shipping are for

Japanese vessels entering Otomari. In 1912 that port was visited by 31 steamships, with a total tonnage of 18,186, and two sailing-vessels of 205 tons. In 1914 36 Japanese steamships of 16,451 tons entered and 26 of 10,159 tons cleared; in the same year 1 sailing-vessel of 114 tons entered and 3 of 478 tons cleared.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

Between Russian Sakhalin and the mainland communications are maintained from the middle of April to the end of October by steamers of the Russian Volunteer Fleet; there are 16 sailings from Vladivostok to Nikolaevsk, and the ships call at Alexandrovsk on the outward and return journeys. An occasional tramp steamer calls at Due or Vladimirska for coal.

In Japanese Sakhalin, shipping communications are regular and frequent in the open season. There is a service during the summer to Otomari from Hakodate and Otaru, with nine sailings per month, provided partly by the steamers of the Nippon Yusen Kaisha and partly by the small steamships of the Osaka Shosen Kaisha; the latter call twice monthly from April to December at Sakaehama and minor ports on the east coast of the island. There is also said to be a coasting service of the Kita Nippon Kisen Kaisha's vessels.

(c) *Cables and Wireless Communication*

A Russian submarine cable is laid between Cape Pogobi on Sakhalin and Cape Lazarev on the mainland. There was an older cable connecting Alexandrovsk with the mainland at De Castries Bay; this was broken in 1901, but is reported to have been repaired.

The Japanese have a cable from Alexandrovsk to the island of Todoshima (Kaibato) off the south-west coast, and thence to the island of Yezo.

The nearest wireless stations are at Nikolaevsk on the Siberian mainland, and on the Japanese island of Yezo.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) *Supply of Labour; Emigration and Immigration*

Since the Russo-Japanese War, Sakhalin has ceased to be a penal settlement, and the prisons now house local offenders only. The difficulty in the old days was to provide lucrative work for the prisoner who had served his time. To-day the population of the Russian territory has dwindled to a sixth of what it was, and continues to decrease. In 1911 there were only 5,158 Russians in the northern half of the island, of whom 726 were officials and soldiers, 1,502 ex-convicts, and the rest mostly dependants of these. Rikovsk has only one-third of its houses occupied, and Alexandrovsk is said to have only one-fifth of its former population. In these circumstances there is no question of the supply of labour. With the exception of a few ex-convict traders, the bulk of the population is engaged in growing potatoes, garden produce, and cereals, and barely succeeds in raising enough for its own support. Little economic progress can be expected from the remnants of an ex-convict population, whose most energetic members took the opportunity of the Russo-Japanese War to make their escape to the mainland.

The coal-mines at Due and Vladimirska need labour, but this work does not appeal to the Russian population; hence up to 1914 some 600 Chinese and Koreans were employed in the mines.

The Russian part of the island is unattractive climatically, agriculturally, and socially, and the blight of the penal system is over it; hence it is not surprising that, notwithstanding the inducements offered by the Government, only 30 new families settled during the years 1907-10. The Government offers loans to

intending settlers, up to a sum of 400 roubles to each family, on condition that a *khodok* or selector chooses the land they are to occupy. Easy terms of repayment are granted, the sum being divided into ten annual instalments commencing at the end of five years. In certain cases half the loan may be remitted. To settlers above fifteen years of age a postponement of military service for six years is also granted.

No statistics of emigration are available, but the mainland, with its better climate and greater development, especially at Nikolaevsk and Khabarovsk, attracts a few hundred emigrants annually.

With regard to immigration in South Sakhalin, the number of Japanese who visit the island in the summer for the fisheries has increased by tens of thousands since the establishment of Japanese rule. Another stream of immigrants has settled down permanently to cultivate the soil. One record gives the number of families settled on the land up to the end of 1917 as 3,857, and this seems to be confirmed by another report which mentions a total of 17,000 settlers. The impending development of the wood-pulp and match-stick mills may help to steady the demand for labour, which has varied with fluctuating harvests.

The Japanese population, reckoned on June 30, was as follows: 43,456 in 1908, 57,051 in 1911, 73,568 in 1915, and 76,705 in 1916; these figures, however, include many thousands of migratory fishermen. The seasonal character of this immigration is shown by comparing the above totals with those given in the records for December 31, which were as follows: 26,393 in 1908, 36,725 in 1911, 60,660 in 1915, and 64,323 in 1916 (cf. p. 14). Of the total population, three-fifths is said to be engaged in the fisheries.

(b) *Labour Conditions*

In Russian Sakhalin the people are almost entirely engaged in cultivating their own plots of land, and therefore make their own labour conditions. In some cases they are the victims of careless or unscrupulous

officials, who have settled them or their parents before them on entirely unsuitable land. On the whole, the blight of the convict is perhaps the greatest hindrance to the development of a prosperous community.

In Japanese Sakhalin the immigrants have been selected and their prospective lands carefully chosen. Roads and communications have been made, and no stigma attaches to the population. They also have the distinct advantage of a less inclement climate.

The early arrangements were for settlers, who could afford to do so, to stay at Otomari; and for those who could not, to go to the immigrant 'town' near by, where they were to await instructions. Carefully selected before leaving their homes, they were allotted 22,500 *tsubos*¹ (nearly 18½ acres) of land and a Russian house. For this they were to pay 6s. per annum to the Government and to keep the house in repair. The land was to become the property of the settler if at the end of five years it had been cultivated to the satisfaction of the authorities.

No report is available of the conditions of those engaged in the fisheries and canneries. In 1908 the majority were migratory, but to-day the migratory element is less than half of the total. Similarly, there is no information as to those employed in the wood-product factories.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Russian official statistics, which err on the optimistic side, state that there are in the Russian part of the island 321,250 acres of good land suitable for cultivation. Of this area about one-half is already occupied by the inhabitants of 27 settlements. It is thus computed that there are still more than 160,000 acres of agricultural land available for immigrants.

The products of the land under cultivation in Russian Sakhalin are very meagre. The most favourable report

¹ 1 *tsubo* = 3.9 square yards.

shows that the yield of wheat, barley, and rye is about five and a half fold, and that of potatoes ninefold. These crops are all consumed on the island; the rye crop is not even sufficient for local needs. In 1911 there were 1,797 horses, 4,315 cattle, and 1,400 pigs. The Government agricultural school at Rikovsk possesses a small farm and a few head of cattle.

In South Sakhalin the cultivated areas are increasing. The total area cultivated by the 3,857 families stated to have been settled by the end of the year 1917 was 9,485 *chos*¹ (23,238 acres). It is further reported that there were more than 438,000 *chos* (1,073,100 acres) of land in the Japanese territory available for cultivation and pasturage. This figure is, however, probably much exaggerated.²

Barley, wheat, potatoes, beans, cabbages, flax, and hemp are grown successfully on the river margins and in the sheltered valleys. Stock-farming is expected to do better on the plains and the lake margins, especially since the large bears have been driven north. Foxes and similar animals are bred for the fur trade (cf. p. 38).

(b) Forestry

Forests cover the larger part of Russian Sakhalin. It is stated that their area is 14,766 sq. miles, but this is almost certainly exaggerated. The chief species of trees are larch, fir, spruce, and birch; the timber is suitable for export, but this has been hindered hitherto by the lack of facilities for transport. The Russians until recently used the forests for fuel and for building their log dwellings; and large areas have been burned through carelessness. Up to 1914 the saw-mills at Alexandrovsk provided for local needs; but new developments at Nikolaevsk on the mainland, due to the capture by the Russians of the export trade in fish, and its diversion towards Europe,

¹ 1 *cho* = 2.45 acres.

² This area, added to the total area given by the same authority for the forests, amounts to about 1,350 square miles in excess of the area given for the whole of Japanese Sakhalin.

together with the construction of the Amur railway, have led to a great boom in the timber trade. It is reported that the Association of Lumbermen of the Amur Region have been granted a concession in Sakhalin near the Russo-Japanese boundary, and that they intend to construct their own harbour.

In Japanese Sakhalin the forests belong to the Government, and surveys have been made. The area of the forests was given by the *Financial and Economic Annual of Japan* for 1918 as 3,352,712 *cho*, or 12,834 square miles, but, as in the case of the agricultural area, there is little doubt that this figure is too high. It would seem that probably three-quarters of the surface is forested, and that about five-eighths of the forest consists of conifers. The most important trees are the larch (*Larix dahurica*), the spruce (*Picea ayanensis*), the fir (*Abies sakhalinensis*), and the white birch. Larch logs have been sent to Japan in quantities for conversion into railway sleepers and telegraph poles, and the white birch has been found useful for the production of charcoal, calcium acetate, and wood-tar. Wood-pulp and match-sticks have now been added to these products.

(3) FISHERIES

The Russo-Japanese Fisheries Convention, concluded in 1907 for a period of twelve years, granted to Japanese subjects the right to fish along the coast of the whole of the Russian Far Eastern possessions on an equal basis with Russians, except in certain 'non-conventional' bays and gulfs, reserved for Russians only. The use of vessels under foreign flags is allowed. The stations are put up to auction annually at Vladivostok by the Priamur Department of Domains. Since 1910, when the Russian fishermen on the Amur river captured the trade from the Japanese, the Russians have competed in increasing numbers for the stations off the Pacific coast of Siberia, and have adopted modern equipment and methods of preparation. In 1913 there were 14 stations in Russian

Sakhalin, of which 4 were in 'non-conventional' waters, while of the 10 in 'conventional' waters, 5 were leased to Russian concerns and 5 to Japanese.

Fishing is also carried on in the rivers with snares, and in the winter along the sea edge, where breathing holes are made. By these simple methods, and some casual sea fishing in the summer, the natives and Russian peasants catch for their own use haddock, halibut, trout, ide, smelt, and various kinds of salmon.

The number of fish caught during the three years 1911, 1912, and 1913 off the coast of Russian Sakhalin was as follows :

	Chum Salmon (<i>Kita</i>).	Humpback Salmon (<i>Gorbusha</i>).	Herring.
1911	31,000	286,000	12,640,000
1912	16,000	126,000	14,036,000
1913	38,000	183,000	4,483,000

The herring fishery is declining off both parts of the island. Before the Russo-Japanese War the Sakhalin herring fishery district was the most important in the whole Russian Pacific, but now it has become of comparatively small importance.

In southern Sakhalin, even under the Russian regime, the Japanese had maintained the majority of the fishing stations, and a Japanese consul had been stationed at Korsakovsk to regulate the fisheries. For the year 1902 he reported that there were 35 Japanese and 20 Russian undertakings connected with the fisheries of southern Sakhalin. The total fish production for that year was 1,451,680 *puds*,¹ of which 1,131,600 *puds* represented fish fertilizer. The total value was 1,500,000 roubles (£158,125). In 1913 the value of the herring fishery alone is stated to have been £330,136, and of the total fishery £581,803.

During the first few years after the Russo-Japanese War there was a lack of control; not only were fish killed before spawning, but large numbers were left to die and rot. To-day there is strict Government

¹ 1 *pud* = 36.1 lb. avoirdupois.

control, licences are issued, and whereas there used to be as many as 870 fishing stations on the east coast and 423 on the west, the total number is now restricted to 375. An experimental fish farm has been established on the west coast, at which investigation and research are carried on. The chief fishing season is in August, when the herring, the *kita* or dog-salmon, and the *gorbusha* or humpback salmon arrive off the coast in schools to escape the cold north-eastern current. The salmon are cured or salted, but the herrings are mostly prepared for use in fertilizing the rice-fields and tea gardens of Japan. The herring fertilizer became of prime importance to Japan after the Chino-Japanese War had cut off the supplies of haricot pods.¹ If the decline of the herring fishery of the Pacific in the years 1916 and 1917 continues, Japan may have to find a substitute for fish guano in soya beans imported from Manchuria. Fishing for crabs has been developed recently, the catch being canned; fishing for cod and *karei* (flat fish) is also developing.

Bêche-de-mer or trepang, and sea-cabbage, valued as delicacies by the Chinese, are obtained off both Russian and Japanese Sakhalin.

(4) MINERALS

The chief mineral product of the island is *coal*, of which there are considerable deposits. The quality is better than the average Japanese coal and slightly inferior to the best, but is not equal to the coal from Fushun in Manchuria. The deposits are a commercial asset to be reckoned with in the future, though, owing to the backwardness and inaccessibility of Sakhalin, and to the presence of coal in north Japan, Primorsk, and northern China, the Sakhalin coal is not 'ready' for market.

In Russian Sakhalin coal is worked chiefly at Due and Vladimirska. It is lignite, with about 66 per cent.

¹See above, p. 15.

of the caloric value of Welsh coal, and contains 71 per cent. of coke. The chief obstacle to its use is the absence of facilities for loading it on shipboard; lighters have to be used for this purpose. Mr. C. H. Hawes¹ mentions that a steamer of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company intended to load 2,000 tons, but at the end of three weeks had succeeded in embarking only 150 tons. Other hindrances to development have been the inefficiency of the convict labour, and Russian carelessness, which resulted in considerable damage to the mines. After geological surveys had been made it was estimated that the reserve of coal was 16,000,000 tons; the actual production in 1913—an average year—was 36,000 tons.

The lease of the mine at Due (at a royalty to the Government of $\frac{1}{4}$ kopeck per *pud*) expired in 1914, and the lessee company then experimented with a new vein four or five miles to the north of Alexandrovsk, thereby hastening its own end. The Government was to put up the lease to public auction for thirty-six years at Petrograd in 1914, a condition being imposed that the lessee should construct a harbour at Alexandrovsk for general use. The scheme of construction involved the building of a mole from Jonquière Head to the rocks called the Three Brothers, and the cost, as estimated in various projects put forward within the last twenty years, ranged from 3,500,000 to 7,000,000 roubles. Apparently there were no bidders, for the last report (1914) states that the mines are being let on a yearly basis, and are still being worked by Chinese labour. For thirty years the rumour has persisted that one of the most valuable mines is on fire.

In Japanese Sakhalin coal has long been mined at Sertonai on the west coast near the Russian border, and veins have been located in the south-western area, particularly in the Notoro peninsula. Reports are published from time to time of newly located seams, but the results of investigation have proved disappointing. The most recent discovery tells of a seam

¹ *In the Uttermost East*. London, 1903.

60 miles long and 1-3 miles broad on the east coast, stretching north from the mouth of the Poronai. The coal obtained, however, is very inferior; it is soft and breaks readily. A Government coal-mining station has been established on the west coast. It must not be supposed, however, that the coal in the Japanese area is comparable in quality to that of the Russian half of the island. The following statistics of production, given in the *Japanese Year Book*,¹ should be regarded with some caution:

	<i>Tons.</i>
1914	14,653
1915	27,665
1916	37,640

Oil springs and *paraffin* lakes are found at intervals for a considerable distance along the north-east coast of Sakhalin, especially near Chaivo Bay, on the Boatassin creek and Nutovo river. The discovery was officially reported in 1894, and the first shallow boring was made in 1900. An English company just before the Russo-Japanese War sent out an expedition which made a careful geological and analytical examination. Since then other important expeditions from Europe and the Orient have inspected the area and spent considerable sums in tests, but it yet remains to be proved that oil exists in commercially paying quantities.

The rumours, from Japanese sources, of the existence of 'oil veins' in South Sakhalin have not been substantiated.

Iron-mines exist in the north of Russian Sakhalin, but, as they have been only fitfully worked by the Russian Government, it seems that they do not promise to be of much value. Iron pyrites is found in Japanese Sakhalin, particularly in the Notoro peninsula.

Alluvial *gold* has been discovered in both North and South Sakhalin in small quantities. There are Japanese reports, to which too much importance should not be

¹ Y. Takenobu, *Japanese Year Book*, 1918. Tokyo, 1918.

attached, of the presence of *silver* and *copper* in the Naiko district. *Amber* is found on the shore of the Bay of Patience.

(5) MANUFACTURES

In Russian Sakhalin the Gilyaks, Oroks, and Tungus hew out canoes, and manufacture clothing out of dog-skins. The Russian peasants are almost entirely engaged on the land, and there are no manufactures on any considerable scale. There is a small iron foundry at Alexandrovsk.

In Japanese Sakhalin there are four wood-pulp mills, each with an annual production valued at £10,000. There are several canning factories. A dry distillate factory was established at Toyohara in 1911 for utilizing the white birch, the elm, and other broad-leaved trees. In the production of charcoal, calcium acetate, and wood-tar, 43,200 *kokus*¹ of timber (432,000 cubic feet) are reported to be used annually.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

Principal Branches of Trade

In Russian Sakhalin there is some traffic between the native tribes and the Russians, the former supplying furs in exchange for gunpowder and shot, potatoes, vodka, and tobacco. Also, at the time of the annual Bear Festival bears are frequently purchased with Russian supplies. These tribes also barter furs with the Japanese, who come to the Bay of Ni on the north-east coast, for rice, cauldrons, kettles, and needles; and with the Manchu traders, who come from the mainland to some central spot on the Tim, for Chinese cotton cloth (*ta-pu*) and coins to adorn the skirts of Gilyak ladies.

Amongst the Russian inhabitants themselves there is little trade. The peasants are almost self-sufficing,

¹ 1 *koku* of timber = 10 cubic feet.

and such trade as exists consists merely of the sale of the small surplus of the products of their farms or gardens and the purchase from the few general stores at Alexandrovsk, Derbensk, Rikovsk, and Slavo of such articles as hardware, clothing, brick tea, rice, tobacco, and gunpowder and shot.

In Japanese Sakhalin the Ainus traffic in furs, although they are more and more engaged in transport with dog and reindeer-sledges and in the fisheries. The settlers in this part have better markets for their produce than those in the northern part of the island, since they can sell to the thousands of fishermen engaged along the coasts.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports

The chief articles of export from Russian Sakhalin are fish, coal, and furs.

Fish is exported in quantities nearly equalling the total amount caught off the coast, but no information as to value is available. The products prepared from fish amounted in 1911 to 1,212 tons, in 1912 to 1,068 tons, and in 1913 to 690 tons. The 1913 catch was made into the following products :

	<i>Tons.</i>
Fish, salted by the Russian method	79
Caviare, prepared by the Russian method	22
Fish, dry salted for the Japanese market	274
Herring fertilizer for the Japanese market	274
Fish oil for the Japanese market	38
Caviare for the Japanese market	3
Total	690

Coal was produced in 1913 to the extent of 36,000 tons, and nearly the whole of this was exported. It was taken partly by tramp steamers of various nationalities, and partly by the Russian Volunteer Fleet and steamers of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company.

Furs are taken by the richer Oroks and Gilyaks early in the year to Nikolaevsk on the Amur. Reindeer, sable, fox, and marten are among the furs thus exported. There used to be an export of sealskins, but the fur-seal is now rare.

The chief exports from Japanese Sakhalin are fish, timber, and coal.

Fish is the most valuable product. The quantities and values of the fish manure exported to Japan in the period 1897-1903 were as follows :

	<i>Tons.</i>	£
1897-1901 (average)	17,624	123,924
1902	19,979	140,864
1903	28,390	192,156

In 1903 the export of herrings amounted to 188,459 *kokus*¹ (934,756 bushels), and in 1907 reached its maximum with 234,316 *kokus*, the amount falling in 1914 to 205,644 *kokus*, of which 1,800 *kokus* were salted and sent to China for food. The export of salmon, which in 1903 amounted to 4,639 *kokus* only, rose in 1914 to 17,977 *kokus*. The export of trout, which amounted to 27,061 *kokus* in 1903, reached in 1912 a total of 127,815 *kokus*, which, after a decline in 1916, was succeeded in 1917 by a still larger export of 167,620 *kokus*. The export of crab has developed in recent years, and 5,760,000 cans were exported in 1917, chiefly to America. There is also an export of trepang and sea-cabbage to China.

Timber was exported to a value of £3,522 in 1912, and of £13,155 in 1913 ; these figures should, however, be increased by the value of the timber reaching Hakodate *via* Hokkaido ports.

Almost the whole of the *coal* produced is exported. In 1914 the production amounted to 14,653 tons, in 1915 to 27,665, and in 1916 to 37,640 (but cf. p. 35).

Besides these three chief exports, match-sticks, wood-pulp, and probably all the charcoal, calcium acetate, and wood-tar products, are exported.

¹ 1 *koku* = 4.9 bushels.

(b) Imports

No information is available as to the amount of the import trade of either part of the island. In Russian Sakhalin the local products are so scanty that many of the necessities as well as the luxuries of life have to be imported. These include some cereals, brick tea, rice, tobacco, clothing, hardware, and rifles. In Japanese Sakhalin, the Japanese craftsman can supply most of the native needs, but rice, tobacco, tea, and clothing have to be imported, and the fishermen need nets and gear, tins for canning, and other articles, besides salt, which is imported from Taiwan (Formosa).

(c) Customs and Tariffs

Information is wanting as to whether any customs dues are collected on imports to Sakhalin, or on goods passing from one part of the island to the other. No mention is made of them in the Japanese budget, nor in the scanty details of the Russian budget available.

(D) FINANCE*(1) Public Finance*

Until 1905 there were no taxes in Russian Sakhalin, and any taxation since imposed has been light. The Treasury receipts for 1911, mostly from shop licences, amounted to 57,426 roubles, while the expenditure for the island administration must have approached 1,000,000 roubles.

In Japanese Sakhalin, since the establishment of the special account in April 1907, a fixed grant has been made annually by the National Treasury to help towards defraying the expenses of colonization and administration; but apparently in the budget estimates for the year 1918-19 the need of this is for the first time not anticipated. The budget estimates for that year were as follows: ¹

¹ *Financial and Economic Annual of Japan*, 1918, p. 192.

REVENUE

<i>Ordinary :</i>	<i>Yen.</i>
Direct taxation	312,819
Revenue from public undertakings and State property	1,564,049
Licences and fees	228,221
Stamp receipts	88,393
Miscellaneous	17,996
Profits of tobacco monopoly	144,113
Total	<u>2,355,591</u>
 <i>Extraordinary :</i>	
Proceeds of sale of State property	283,432
Surplus of preceding year transferred	462,815
Proceeds of loans received	1,203,100
Miscellaneous receipts	2,934
Total	<u>1,952,281</u>
Total revenue	<u>4,307,872</u>

EXPENDITURE

<i>Ordinary :</i>	<i>Yen.</i>
General administration	1,428,967
Reserve fund	80,000
Transferred from general account	41,519
Expenses for shrines	8,000
Total	<u>1,558,486</u>
 <i>Extraordinary :</i>	
Expenses for management of business	110,297
Building and engineering	526,218
Colonization	562,550
Special undertakings expenses	1,403,100
Expenses for taking of census	4,262
Special allowance	142,959
Total	<u>2,749,386</u>
Total expenditure	<u>4,307,872</u>

With this may be compared the budget for 1913-14, the last pre-war year, when the ordinary revenue amounted to 1,983,934 yen, and the extraordinary revenue to 687,013 yen, making a total of 2,670,947 yen. For the same year the ordinary expenditure was

1,007,665 yen, and the extraordinary expenditure 1,270,381 yen, making a total of 2,278,046 yen ; there was thus a surplus of 392,901 yen.

(2) *Currency*

The currency in the Russian and Japanese parts of the island is the same as in the rest of the two Empires. In Russian Sakhalin, as in eastern Siberia, more silver and fewer notes were in circulation before the war, than in western Russia.

In accordance with the Imperial Ordinance of October 29, 1917, the Japanese have issued paper notes of small denomination—50, 20, and 10 sen¹—to supplement the usual Japanese coinage of gold, silver, nickel, and bronze pieces. The total issue of the notes to the end of August 1918 was 65,689,000 yen.

(3) *Banking*

The Hokkaido Colonial Bank, with an authorized capital of 10,000,000 yen (£1,020,833), of which 6,250,000 yen have been paid up, was established to supply capital for the colonization and exploitation of Hokkaido and Japanese Sakhalin. The bank is empowered to make long term loans at low interest on the security of real property, and short term loans on the security of the agricultural or marine products of Hokkaido and Japanese Sakhalin. It is authorized to make loans on pledge of the shares and debentures of joint-stock companies, which have for their object the colonization and exploitation of Hokkaido and Japanese Sakhalin, and to subscribe for and take up the debentures of such companies. It can also make loans without security, redeemable by annual instalments, or within fixed terms, to industrial, fishery, forestry, or stock-breeding guilds, or to associations of such guilds.

¹ 100 sen = 1 yen = 2s. 0½d. (approximate).

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The population of Russian Sakhalin has steadily decreased since the time of the Russo-Japanese War. The reasons are not hard to determine. The island, owing to its long use as a penal settlement, bears an ill name; and, except to the speculative miner, its natural resources offer none of the attractions of the mainland. Agriculture will never be a serious factor in its development; the possibilities of economic expansion are greatest for timber, coal, and petroleum. Timber, however, had been cut and burned over large areas before the settlement of 1905, and facilities for transport are lacking, so that, although the world scarcity of timber may temporarily foster the development of this industry, it can scarcely prove a permanent source of prosperity. The coal industry promises greater reward for development, but it is seriously handicapped by the want of facilities for loading, and by the damage caused by careless mining. These defects are especially important in view of the competition of the coal-mines of Manchuria, Primorsk, and Japan. A petroleum industry is often spoken of, but it does not exist at present. The presence of petroleum in quantities large enough to make exploitation remunerative has not yet been proved. The development of the Russian territory remains, therefore, uncertain, dependent on factors which have not yet been determined.

Japanese Sakhalin has the advantage of a less severe climate, with less fog. Agriculture, therefore, has a better chance, and is likely at least to provide the means of livelihood for a considerable number of peasants; and there are still better prospects for stock-breeding. The timber and wood-pulp industries promise considerable development, but a careful afforestation policy is necessary. Fishing has been the staple industry in the past and may continue to be so; the island fisheries have, however, been far outstripped by

those along the Siberian coast. Moreover the great schools of fish display nervousness; and it is possible that the effect of the increasing steamer traffic may be to frighten away the fish from the waters off the island, as they have already been frightened from the coasts of Japan. The coal industry continues to grow, but the inferior quality of the product is likely to make progress slow. The possibility of developing an oil industry is even more doubtful in the southern portion of the island than in the northern. The prospects of the southern part of the island are, on the whole, good; and this is due largely to the activity of the Japanese Government in encouraging settlement and investigation and in maintaining control of the exploitation of the natural resources.

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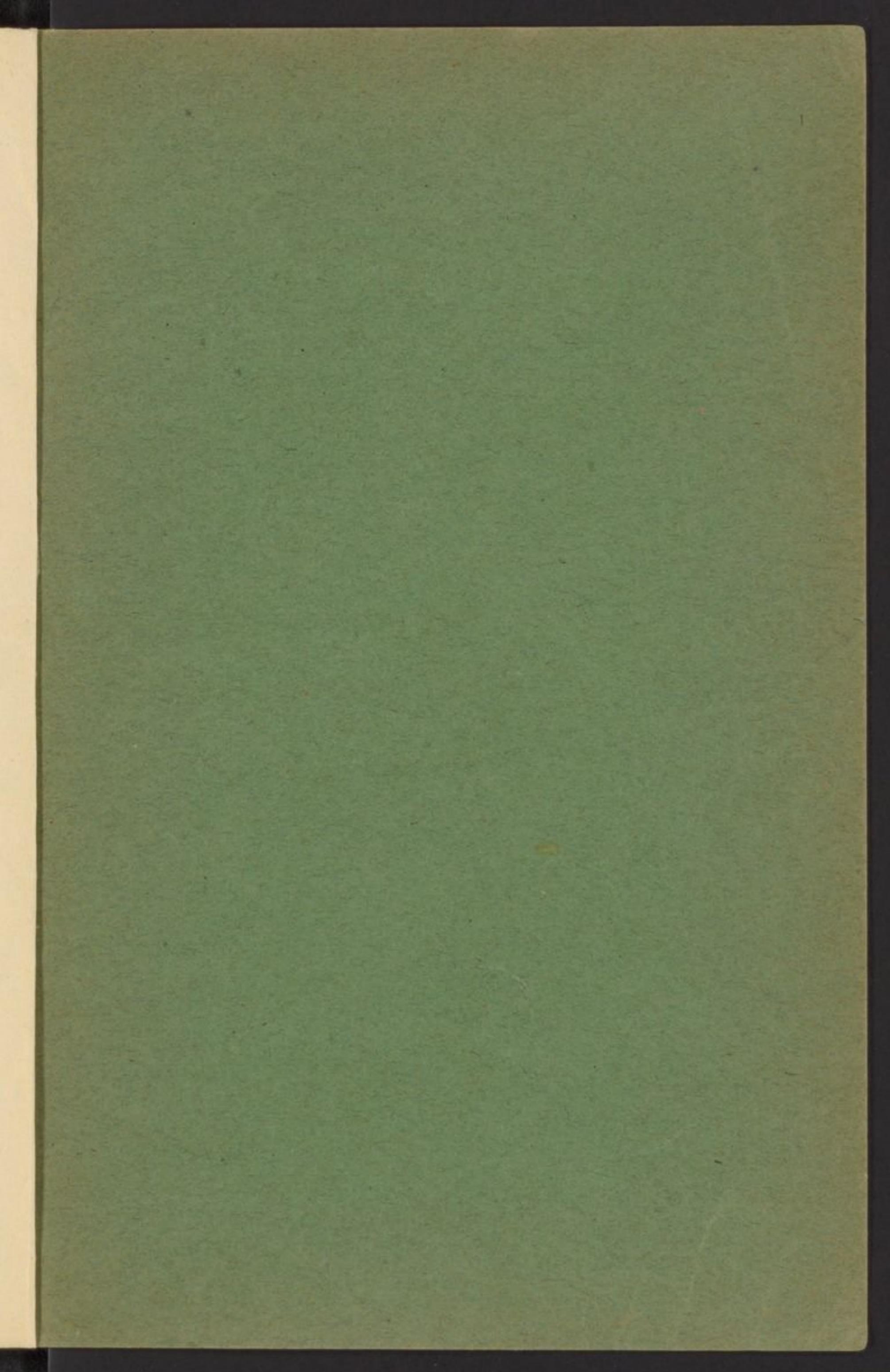
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MAPS

A special map of Sakhalin has been issued by the Intelligence Division of the Naval Staff, on the scale of 1 : 4,000,000, in connexion with this series (March, 1919).



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