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THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN



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The Emperor and Empress of Japan on a quiet stroll in the gardens of the Imperial Palace in Tokyo.

天皇 THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN

**A Profile
On the Occasion of The Visit
by The Emperor and Empress
to the United States**

September 30th to October 13th, 1975

by Edwin O. Reischauer

Few events in the long history of international relations carry the significance of the first visit to the United States of the Emperor and Empress of Japan. Only once before has the reigning Emperor of Japan ventured forth from his beautiful island realm to travel abroad. On that occasion, his visit to a number of European countries resulted in an immediate strengthening of the bonds linking Japan and Europe. Thus, we may anticipate a similar beneficial effect upon the already close relations of Japan and the United States.

It is with feelings of great honor and warm respect that the Japan Society welcomes the Emperor and Empress to the United States. We have long awaited their visit, and we are confident that the gracious dignity and personal warmth that their presence lends to this auspicious event will inaugurate a new era of friendship and harmony between our two great nations.

In preparing this small booklet about the present Imperial family and the history of the Imperial dynasty, we are deeply indebted to Professor Edwin O. Reischauer, former United States Ambassador to Japan, for preparing the text, and to the Embassy of Japan for providing illustrative material.

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Swans float on the calm surface of the Imperial Palace moat. In the background is the Nijubashi (Double Bridge) which leads to the main entrance to the Palace grounds.

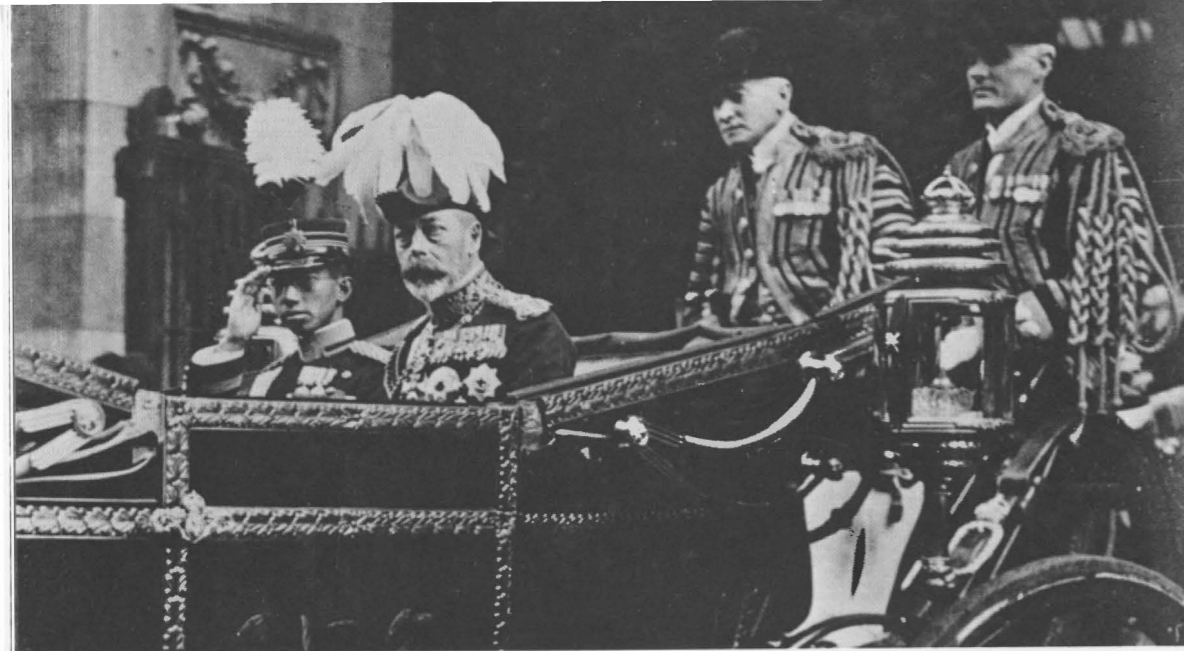
THE EMPEROR OF JAPAN

by Edwin O. Reischauer

In this age of easy travel by jet, heads of state seem to whiz all over the globe. American presidents make repeated visits abroad, and a veritable stream of foreign rulers and presidents flows through Washington. But the visit of the Emperor and Empress of Japan stands out as a significant first — the first official visit to the United States of any Japanese Emperor in the long line of 124 rulers that goes all the way back to shadowy prehistory. It parallels the visit last November of President Ford to Japan, making with it a pair of significant firsts in the relations between the United States and Japan, two great nations with unusually close and intimate contacts.

In a way it is surprising that this memorable first should be coming at this late date. Visits have repeatedly been exchanged with virtually all of the other close allies of the United States, with many countries of much smaller concern to the United States than Japan, and even with nations that have been more frequently regarded as rivals or enemies than friends. It is odd that Japan should have been missing from this list until now. The United States and Japan are close allies; they are two of the three largest economic units in the world, with the world's greatest trans-oceanic trade between them; and they face the problems of the world together from the shared basis of a common devotion to an open, free society and democratic institutions of government.

No foreign country is more important to Japan than is the United States. Japan does around a quarter of its foreign trade with us, shares a common defense through the Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security, and has far more cultural and intellectual contacts with America than with any other country. Conversely, Japan may well prove to be the most important country in the world for the United States. It is our second largest trading partner, following only Canada; in population, it is the largest of our close allies; and in economic terms, it is our largest intimate associate in facing the increasingly complex economic problems of the world. And yet, at the same time, Japan stands in a special position as our



The present Emperor is the first member of the Imperial line to travel abroad. In 1921, while still Crown Prince, he paid an official visit to the heads of state of many European countries. Here he is shown with King George V of Great Britain.

only close partner with a totally different cultural background from our own — a point that may be of growing significance in a world in which inter-racial and inter-cultural relations become ever more important.

In a way, the lateness of these two visits is a sign, not of disinterest or distance between Japan and the United States, but rather of the closeness as well as the delicacy of the relationship. The American military occupation of Japan following World War II ended only in 1952, less than a quarter-century ago. It left America looming very large in Japanese eyes and Japanese-American relations enmeshed in domestic Japanese political dispute. When in 1960 President Eisenhower planned a trip to Japan, the proposed visit became entangled in political controversy there and had to be cancelled. The tragic assassination of President Kennedy intervened before he could make the visit to Japan which he had firmly in mind. As the years went on with presidential visits to countries all over the world but not to Japan, some people came to the conclusion that the Japanese suffered a permanent "presidential allergy." But last November President Ford finally did go to Japan for what was to prove a gloriously successful visit. The weather was superb, the Japanese people as well as the government welcomed him wholeheartedly, and his straightforward candor and obvious good will made a most favorable impression on them. This happy occasion together with the present visit of the Emperor and Empress show that Japanese-American relations, which have all along been extensive and vitally important to both sides, have now become relaxed as well, in a way that they were not in the earlier postwar period. Thus, these two visits symbolize a new and happier stage in Japanese-American relations.

The Emperor is the first member of the Japanese Imperial line ever to have gone abroad. As a young man in 1921, he spent seven months of travel in Europe. He and the Empress also visited six European countries in the autumn of 1971 and touched down briefly on the way there at Anchorage, Alaska, where they were greeted by President and Mrs. Nixon.



The present Emperor at the age of five. His dynasty is the oldest reigning family in the world, and his reign of more than fifty years is the longest in recorded Japanese history.

Another unique fact about the Emperor is that this is the fiftieth year he has been on the throne — the longest reign in Japanese history, unless one goes back to the semi-mythological rulers of the third century and earlier times. The Emperor was born in 1901, and in 1921, after his return from Europe, he became Prince Regent, or acting monarch, for his ailing father, Emperor Taisho. In late December 1926 he succeeded his father on the throne, and the remaining week of that year became the first year of his reign, known as the first year of the Showa year period. The year 1975 is the 50th year of Showa, a name meaning "Enlightened Peace."

The Emperor's name is Hirohito, which is what he signs on official documents, as he also did on a photographic portrait of him which I treasure in my home. But no one in Japan refers to the Emperor as Hirohito. Instead people use such terms as "His Majesty" or "the Present Emperor." Curiously, the Imperial family is the only family in all Japan which lacks a family name. Probably it was already so well established as the ruling family at the time that the Japanese first began to take family names, roughly a millennium and a half ago, that no family name seemed necessary.

Mythology places the beginning of the Imperial line in 660 B.C., when a descendant of the supreme Sun Goddess is said to have become the first Japanese Emperor. More sober history traces the line clearly back to the early sixth century A.D. and perhaps somewhat earlier. Even this reduced heritage makes it incomparably the oldest reigning family in the world, and the genealogy is precise, detailed, and indisputable the whole way back.

The early Japanese Emperors were semi-religious figures, being in a sense the high priests of the cults of the Shinto religion. The symbols of their authority were the Three Imperial Regalia — a bronze mirror representing the Imperial ancestress, the Sun Goddess; a sword; and a curved, comma-shaped jewel of uncertain significance. The shrine to the Sun Goddess at Ise has always been a particularly holy place in Japan. The feminine character of the mythological



In the first state visit by an American President, Gerald Ford traveled to Japan in November 1974. His meetings with the Emperor and with officials of the Japanese government served to underline and strengthen the friendly relations between Japan and the United States.



Official portrait of the Emperor in his coronation robes in 1928. He became Prince Regent in 1921, and succeeded his father, Emperor Taisho, to the throne in 1926.

progenitress of the Imperial line as well as the existence of several ruling Emperesses in early years suggest an original matriarchal social organization in Japan.

In the course of the seventh and eighth centuries, the Japanese reorganized their governmental institutions on the model of the contemporary Chinese empire, where the Emperor was an all-powerful secular monarch ruling through an elaborate bureaucracy. Ever since, the Japanese Emperors have had a sort of dual character as both secular rulers of the Chinese type, at least in theory, and also semi-religious cult leaders derived from Japan's own early history. Even today, the Emperor performs a number of annual ceremonies, such as the symbolic first planting of the rice each spring, which faithfully reflect ancient rituals, though they are no longer considered to have religious significance.

Even in early times the authority of the Japanese Emperor was perhaps more symbolic than actual. Throughout Japanese history the Imperial line has always been recognized as the undisputed source of all legitimate authority, but individual Emperors have usually reigned rather than ruled, somewhat in the manner of the modern crowned heads of northern Europe. Already in the sixth century, when Japan first emerged into the light of history, Emperors, rather than dominating their courts, were more commonly manipulated by the great families that surrounded them. By the early eighth century, it had become almost the rule for Emperors to abdicate as soon as they had an heir old enough to perform the onerous ceremonial duties of the position. Occasional strong men on the throne did exercise some power, and for a while in the eleventh and twelfth centuries retired Emperors were the chief political force at the capital, but otherwise leadership at the Imperial court was in the hands of the Fujiwara family and its various offshoots from the ninth century until the nineteenth.

The spread of feudalism over Japan from the twelfth century onward pushed the Imperial family even further away from actual political power. It remained



Official portrait of Empress Nagako at her coronation. She is two years younger than the Emperor and is a descendant of a collateral branch of the Imperial family.

as the theoretical source of all authority but was increasingly removed from the levers of power, which fell into the hands of military men in the provinces. The last Japanese Emperor who actually attempted to rule was Go-Daigo (or Daigo II) in the fourteenth century, and his efforts resulted in a dangerous split of the Imperial line into the Northern and Southern Courts between the years 1336 and 1392.

The tradition that the Japanese Emperors did not rule but reigned as the symbol of national unity and the theoretical source of legitimate authority is probably the chief reason why the Japanese Imperial line has survived through all history and still performs its symbolic role today as it did in antiquity. Actual power might change hands, as it did a number of times in Japanese history, but the symbolic source of legitimacy continued unaffected.

One such change of power occurred in the middle of the nineteenth century. Japan had managed to isolate itself from the rest of the world for two centuries, but finally in 1854 an American naval expedition under Commodore Matthew C. Perry forced it to open its doors. Japan's pre-industrial economy and its feudal structure of government, under the Tokugawa shoguns, or military dictators, and some 265 semi-autonomous feudal lords, clearly could not meet the challenge of the industrial production and the more modernized military power of the countries of the West. Japan needed a more centralized as well as modernized form of government.

A group of revolutionaries managed to seize power in 1868, justifying their overthrow of the Tokugawa feudal system as a return to direct Imperial rule, based in part on the memories of a more central Imperial role in ancient times but also on the model of nineteenth century European monarchies, such as Germany, Austria, and Britain. Because the concept of direct Imperial rule was both an inspiration and rationale for the whole great change that swept Japan after 1868, this change has usually been called the Meiji Restoration. The name Meiji



His Majesty the Emperor of Japan



Her Majesty the Empress of Japan



The Emperor Meiji, grandfather of the present Emperor, pictured shortly after his coronation in 1868. Coming to the throne when the Restoration overthrew the Tokugawa feudal system and returned direct rule to the Imperial family, Meiji's long reign fostered the modernization of Japanese society and government.

was that of the year period, given in 1868 to the reign of the new boy Emperor, who, 45 years later after his death in 1912, came to be known as Emperor Meiji.

The Meiji Restoration seemed to bring the Emperor back as the actual ruler of Japan, but this was more theory than actual practice. Everything was done in his name, and the Japanese leaders, even when they differed with one another, all claimed to be carrying out the "Imperial will." The Constitution adopted in 1889 as the final embodiment of the new system declared the Emperor to be "sacred and inviolable," assigned to him the "rights of sovereignty," and at least on the surface seemed to give him all powers of government, including "the supreme command of the Army and Navy." But a closer reading of the document shows that the Emperor was expected to take no action except on the advice of his ministers and on the basis of the acts of the Japanese parliament, called the Diet. And this is the way the system actually operated. Emperor Meiji may have exercised some influence on government decisions, but his son, Emperor Taisho, obviously did not, and by the time the present Emperor came to the throne he was clearly expected to validate the decisions of his government but not actually to participate in making them.

Since the present Emperor has always been a conscientious Constitutional monarch, it really is not proper to inquire what his own particular views may have been, even under the old system. But the few hints one can get about his attitudes at the time suggest a consistent opposition to the trends that were leading Japan into war abroad and toward military supremacy at home. The only political decision the Emperor is known to have made was at the time of the surrender at the end of World War II. The high command for the first time in history presented him with an evenly split vote on surrender and asked him to decide. This he did at once in favor of surrender, and he obtained the acquiescence of the Japanese people for this course by the unprecedented gesture of himself broadcasting the announcement of surrender to the whole Japanese nation.



The Shishinden or Ceremonial Hall of the Old Imperial Palace in Kyoto. For nearly eleven centuries prior to the Meiji Restoration in 1868, Kyoto served as the seat of the Imperial Court and also as the cultural and intellectual capital of Japan.

Following the war, Japan adopted a new Constitution in 1947, and in this document theory and practice were perfectly unified for the first time. This document clearly states that "the Emperor shall be the symbol of the state and of the unity of the people, deriving his position from the will of the people with whom resides sovereign power." The Emperor's duties are then described to be simply symbolic in character. Since the mythology regarding the divinity of the Imperial line had been used in pre-war days to build up the mystique of the "Imperial will," the Emperor also issued on January 1, 1946, a statement denying his own supposed divinity. Again it is not really appropriate to speculate on the Emperor's own personal views regarding these postwar changes, because he is specifically denied a right to have or at least to express political opinions, but everything about his demeanor since the war gives the impression that he is thoroughly and happily in accord with the newly defined functions of the throne.

While the Emperor's duties are purely symbolic, they are nonetheless arduous, and he performs them with great conscientiousness and with noteworthy good will. He promulgates laws, convokes the Diet, proclaims general elections, attests the appointment or dismissal of officials, awards honors, receives foreign ambassadors, and performs a number of other formal duties, all with the advice and approval of the Cabinet. In addition, he and the members of his family are tireless in their attendance at events of national significance—reading greetings at opening sessions of great conferences, attending dedication ceremonies and sports festivals, and inspecting exhibits.

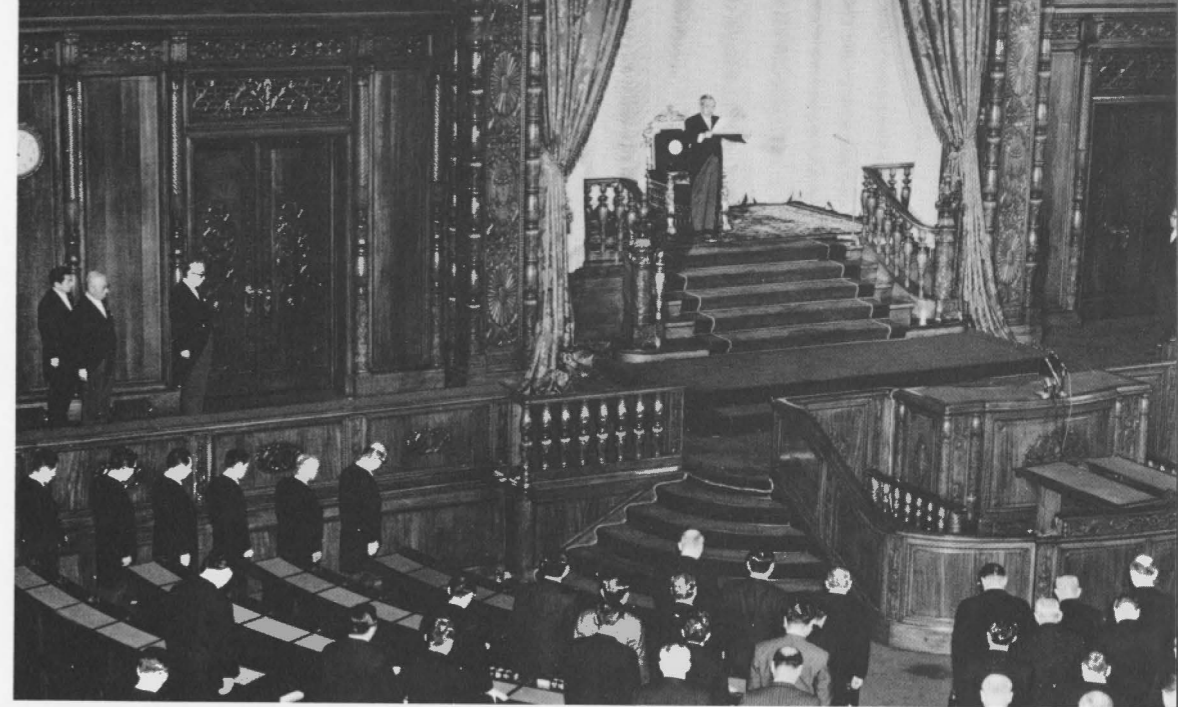
In the years immediately after the end of World War II, the Emperor was particularly energetic in seeking to change the popular concept of the throne and the people's relationship to it. Before the war the militarized leadership had had him appear in public in military uniform astride a white charger—a remote, forbidding, and "sacred and inviolable" figure. The common people were not even supposed to look at him directly. Now in mufti and a fedora hat he met his fellow Japanese face to face in the streets, in factories, and in coal mines.



The Emperor is a quiet, scholarly person who leads a very private life when he is not performing his formal duties.



Traditionally, the Emperor of Japan, as guardian of the nation's well-being, encourages agriculture. Each spring, in a special ritual held on the Palace grounds, he plants rice seedlings. In autumn, the rice is harvested by the Emperor himself.



Among the Emperor's formal duties, one of the most important is his annual address to the opening session of the national Diet or parliament.

Not a facile conversationalist because in his austere upbringing he had never had the chance for verbal give and take, he usually fell back on "Ah! Is that so," in rejoinder to the replies to his inquiries. It was a limited sort of conversation, but for the first time it gave a sense of common human feeling between the Japanese people and their Emperor.

The Emperor has a private life aside from his public one. He and the Empress reside in the spacious Imperial Palace grounds in the heart of Tokyo. These grounds were the central core of what was once the great fortress headquarters of the Tokugawa shoguns, originally built by Dokan Ota in 1457 and restored by the Tokugawa shoguns after they moved there in 1590 and during the early years of their rule, which started officially in 1603. The broad moats and high embankments and walls of that early period are still impressive and beautiful sights, in no way dwarfed by the modern city.

The main buildings of the prewar palace were destroyed by wartime bombing, but a small and very private new residence for the Imperial couple was completed in 1961 and an impressive new Palace for public occasions in 1969. The latter was under construction for five years, an indication both of the care with which it was built and the modesty of the funds the Japanese government now assigns to the support of the Imperial family. The upkeep of the extensive Imperial Palace grounds is maintained largely by volunteer work by groups from all over Japan—a sign of the popular respect and affection in which the Imperial couple are held.

The Emperor's private life is a very private one indeed. There is none of the informal social mixing with others, practiced by some of the royal families of Europe. Traditional Japanese feelings about the uniqueness of the Imperial family preclude such easy sociability. The Emperor and Empress are surrounded by chamberlains and ladies-in-waiting, with whom their contacts remain rather formal by American standards. Beyond these court circles, their contacts are



The new buildings of the Imperial Palace in Tokyo were completed in 1969. Here the South Garden is viewed from the Chidori-no-ma (Hall of Birds). The buildings and gardens of the Palace grounds are maintained largely by volunteer groups from all over Japan.



The Emperor's chief personal interest is marine biology, and his published research in this field has been well received in academic circles. Much of his free time is spent in a well-equipped laboratory within the Palace.

almost entirely formal. It is in a sense a rather isolated life. But it is much less isolated than it was before the war. Television in particular has made a great difference. Through it the Imperial couple has found a very enjoyable window on the life of their people and even a sense of participation in it.

The Emperor's chief personal interest has always been marine biology, and each Monday and Thursday afternoon, if he is not officially engaged, and every Saturday, he spends at his laboratory in another part of the palace grounds. He has written and published four books on his specialty, which happens to be hydrozoans, and these have been well received in academic circles. In addition, eleven other publications have centered around his studies. These have been directed particularly toward the marine life and the flora in the neighborhood of his two Imperial summer homes, one on the seashore south of Tokyo at Hayama on Sagami Bay, the other in the volcanic area of Nasu north of Tokyo. These eleven publications include works on the opisthobranchia, ascidians, crabs, corals, sea shells, and sea stars of Sagami Bay and the myxomycetes and flora of Nasu.

The Emperor, as one would guess, is a quiet, scholarly person, but at the same time he is a man of great personal warmth and extraordinarily wide interests. As the American Ambassador to Japan between 1961 and 1966, I had the opportunity to take many high government officials and other dignitaries from the United States for audiences with the Emperor, and I also met him on various state occasions each year. As the only foreign ambassador at that time who could converse with him in Japanese, I also had the chance for many personal conversations. I may in fact have had more opportunities to meet and talk with the Emperor than any other foreigner of any nationality.

Throughout my contact with the Emperor I have always been struck by his very genuine friendliness, sincerity, directness, and broad and informed interests. As mentioned before, he cannot be regarded as an easy conversationalist,



The Emperor enjoys a particularly close family life. Here, in a 1939 photograph, he and the Empress are pictured with all their children. From left to right are Princess Kazuko, the Empress holding Princess Takako, the Emperor, Princess Shigeiko, Crown Prince Akihito, Princess Atsuko, and Prince Hitachi.

but his qualities of personal warmth and concern nonetheless shine through even the court formalities that surround him and the necessities for translation in almost all of his contacts with foreigners. I have reason to believe that the Emperor does understand quite a bit of English, but for the sake of protocol all dealings with foreigners on formal occasions are carefully translated both ways. I remember that at my first meeting with him, which was for the formal presentation of my ambassadorial credentials, I replied directly to one of his comments but then had to wait while the interpreter formally translated his remark to which I had already replied, before being allowed to continue with the conversation.

The normal format for an audience with the Emperor was for me to introduce each American in turn and for the Emperor then to engage each person individually in conversation, asking him a series of questions about his activities. The formality of the procedure is a bit inhibiting to easy personal contact, and it is made all the more formidable by the need for translation both ways. But I never took a fellow American to an Imperial audience without my countryman emerging from it impressed by the warmth, friendliness, and wide knowledge of the Emperor.

The Emperor is known to have a particularly close family life. When the first four children the Empress bore him were girls, some persons at the court advocated that the Emperor take a secondary consort to insure a male heir, as his grandfather had done, but it is understood that he steadfastly refused. The Imperial couple and their seven children have always been a veritable model of conjugal affection and warm family bonds.

The Empress almost always accompanies the Emperor on all occasions, except for certain Constitutional duties such as convoking the Diet. Two years his junior, she is the descendant of a collateral branch of the Imperial family and attended what in her youth was the exclusive Peers' School for Girls. She is fond



The Empress almost always accompanies the Emperor on official functions as well as private occasions. The Imperial couple made a state visit to the capitals of Europe in 1971 and are pictured here with the "Little Mermaid" in Copenhagen.



In a traditional Palace event, dating back more than one thousand years, the Emperor and Empress preside each January over the New Year Poetry Party, held in the Matsu-no-ma (Hall of Pines) of the Seiden (State Hall).



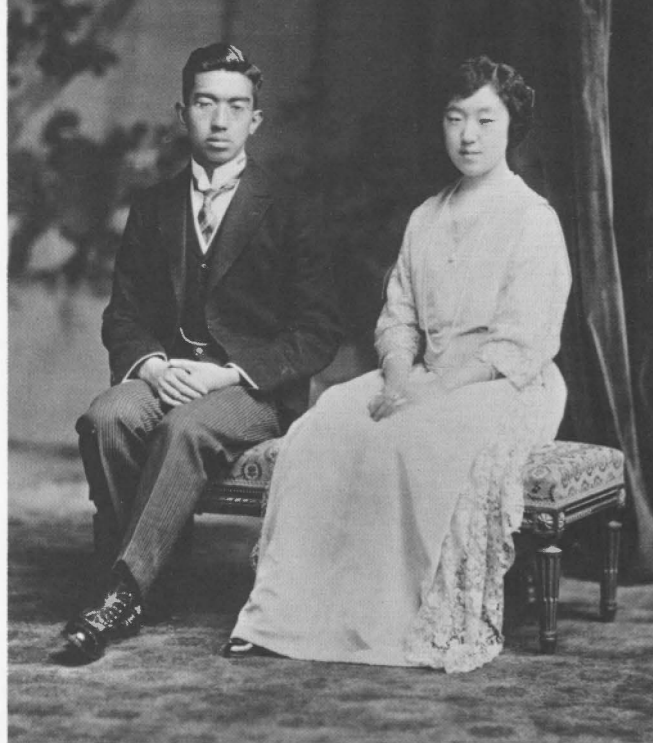
Visiting London in October 1971, the Emperor and Empress were guests of honor at a state banquet at Buckingham Palace. They are being greeted here by His Royal Highness, the Prince Philip Duke of Edinburgh, and Their Majesties Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother and Queen Elizabeth II.



The Emperor and Empress receive their guests at the annual Imperial Garden Party.



The Empress particularly enjoys painting in traditional Japanese style, and a number of her works have been collected and published in two volumes under her art name Toen.



The present Emperor and Empress, then Crown Prince and Princess, shortly after their wedding in 1924.

of poetry and music, and some of her Japanese-style paintings have been collected and published in two volumes. Like her husband, she plays a symbolic role conscientiously and with good will, serving for example as the Honorary President of the Japanese Red Cross Society. She is a person of unusual charm. While I was the American Ambassador, my wife and I had the opportunity to meet her on frequent occasions and found her to be one of the most genuinely warm, friendly, and gracious persons we had even known.

One of the daughters of the Emperor and Empress died before her first birthday, but the other four grew up and married, thereby becoming commoners, as are all former nobles and collateral Imperial lines since the war, except for the brothers of the Emperor. The eldest daughter, now deceased, was married to a member of a collateral Imperial line, the second to a scion of one of the branches of the Fujiwara family that so long dominated the Imperial court, and the two younger ones to descendants of feudal lords. The youngest, the former Princess Suga, is remembered around Washington as the extremely attractive and vivacious wife of Mr. Hisanaga Shimazu, who was stationed there for two years as a young official of a Japanese banking company.

The Imperial couple's fifth child is Akihito, the Crown Prince, now 42 years old. During the early postwar years, Mrs. Elizabeth Gray Vining of Philadelphia was one of his personal tutors. In 1959 he electrified the nation by choosing for his consort Miss Michiko Shoda, the daughter of a businessman who was a commoner even by prewar standards. The Crown Princess is a very talented and attractive graduate of Sacred Heart Women's University, and the couple met and fell in love through their common interest in tennis. The Crown Prince also shares his father's interest in marine biology and devotes much of his free time to the study of ichthyology. The Crown Prince and Princess have three children, Prince Hiro (born in 1960), Prince Aya, and Princess Nori. All three are being brought up by the Crown Prince and Princess themselves in an ordinary modern



Crown Prince Akihito shares the Emperor's interest in marine biology. Father and son are shown here aboard the vessel Hayama-maru conducting biological research in Sagami Bay in 1952.

family atmosphere. This is a significant innovation, for heirs to the throne were traditionally separated from their parents at an early age and raised by court officials. The Crown Prince and Princess share the heavy burdens of ceremonial and public relations duties with the Emperor and Empress. They have already gone abroad on state visits twelve different times, visiting the United States in 1960.

The Emperor's younger son is Prince Hitachi, who like his brother shares their father's interest in biology. He graduated from Gakushuin University, and in 1964 married Miss Hanako Tsugaru, the descendant of a line of feudal lords. Prince and Princess Hitachi as well as the brother and sisters-in-law of the Emperor also carry some of the public relations duties that surround the throne. The Emperor's second brother died not long after the war, but his extremely charming widow, Princess Chichibu, survives and is remembered in Washington from the time when in the 1920s she was the school-girl daughter of Tsuneo Matsudaira, the Japanese Ambassador. The third brother and his wife are Prince and Princess Takamatsu, and the fourth brother and his wife, Prince and Princess Mikasa. Only the latter have children, and Prince Mikasa is also noteworthy for his part-time position as a professor at several universities and for being a specialist in the history of the ancient Middle East, particularly that of the early Hebrews.

Although all the members of the Imperial family help the Imperial couple with the various ceremonial tasks and with other matters of public relations, the main burden still falls on the Emperor and Empress. But of all their many activities, their present visit to the United States is one of the most significant, demonstrating as it does the relaxed warmth of relations between two great nations which are of such vital importance to each other.

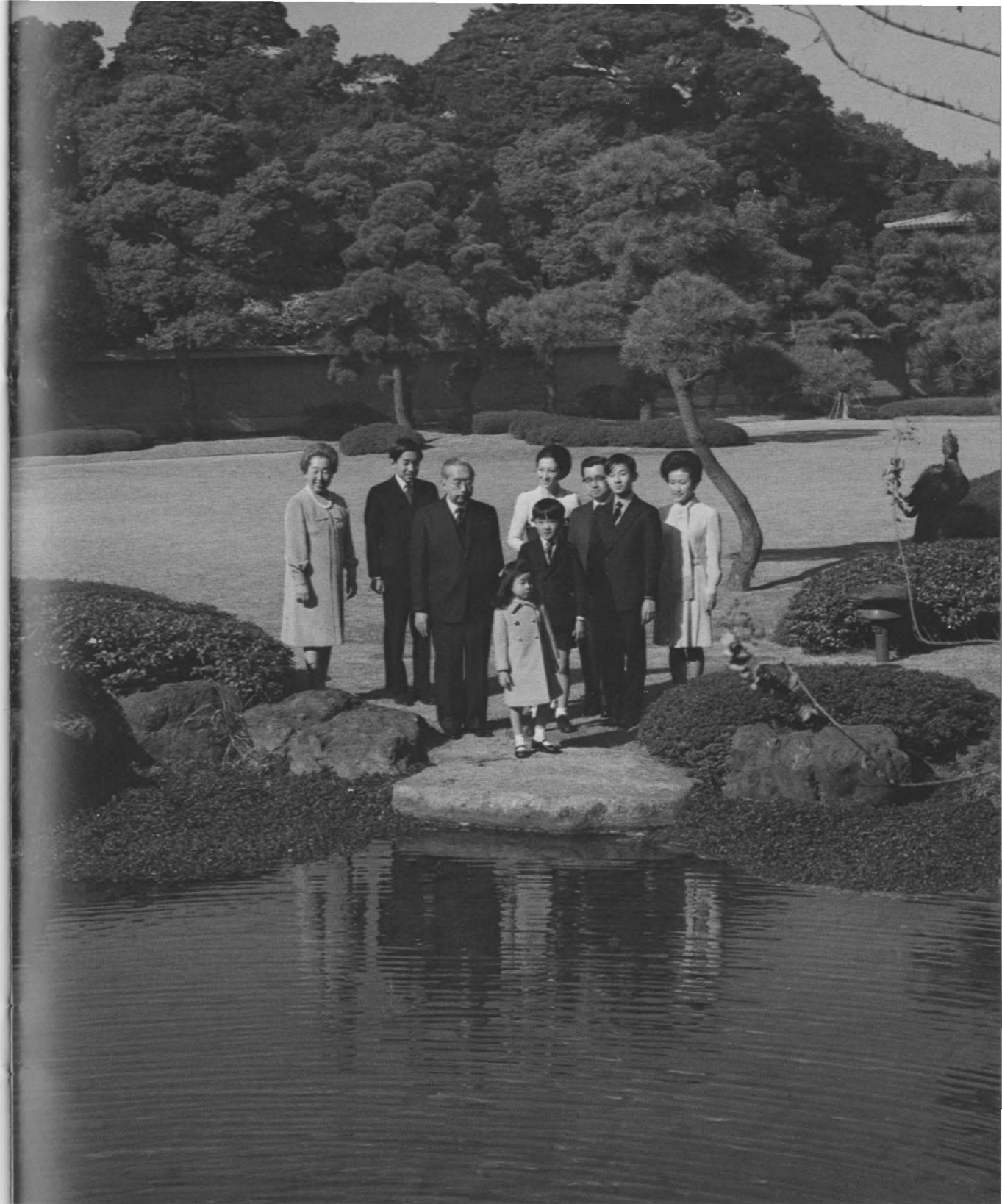
There is reason to believe that the Emperor has for a long time wished to visit the United States, and so this occasion means the achievement for him of a long cherished hope. The American people for their part will recognize and admire



The Emperor and Empress, pictured here in front of one of the new buildings of the Imperial Palace.



The Imperial couple frequently enjoys the companionship of their children on informal visits to their mountain villa at Nasu, north of Tokyo. Here they are joined by Crown Prince Akihito and Crown Princess Michiko.



The entire Imperial family often gathers informally at the Palace. Pictured here in the garden are the Empress, Crown Prince Akihito, the Emperor, Princess Nori, Prince Aya, Crown Princess Michiko, Prince Hitachi, Prince Hiro, and Princess Hitachi.



The Emperor received his early education at the Gakushuin (Peers' School). Here, he and the Empress enjoy an informal moment at a meeting of Gakushuin alumni.

in the Emperor and Empress the epitome of personal friendliness, family virtues, cultural interests, and scientific devotion. Beyond these personal aspects of the visit, however, the presence in the United States of the Emperor and Empress affords the American people and government an opportunity to reciprocate to the Japanese people the warmth of their welcome to our President in the autumn of 1974 and to show them the strength and sincerity of our wishes to continue the friendly and mutually beneficial relations between our two countries, which lie at the root of our mutual hopes for world peace.



Their Majesties derive much pleasure from looking through their family photograph albums.

EDWIN O. REISCHAUER

The long career of Edwin O. Reischauer has embraced nearly all areas of Japanese-American relations. His personal involvement with Japan is perhaps deeper and more intimate than that of any other American, and professionally he has distinguished himself as a scholar, teacher, writer, and diplomat.

Born in Japan in 1910, he received his education at the American School in Japan, Oberlin College, and Harvard University. As a historian, Professor Reischauer pursued his study of Japan at the Harvard-Yenching Institute and the Universities of Paris, Tokyo, and Kyoto. After wartime service in the War Department and the State Department, he returned to Japan in 1948-49 as a member of the Cultural and Social Science Mission of the Department of the Army. Since 1946, he has been on the faculty of Harvard University, teaching Japanese language, history, and government. In 1966, he was appointed a University Professor at Harvard and in 1973 was named Chairman of the Committee for the Japan Institute.

Professor Reischauer's academic activities were interrupted from 1961 to 1966, when he served the administrations of President Kennedy and President Johnson as United States Ambassador to Japan.

Among his numerous publications in the field of Asian history and foreign policy, perhaps the best known are Japan, Past and Present, The United States and Japan, and the great two-volume text-book, East Asia: The Great Tradition and East Asia: The Modern Transformation.

Professor Reischauer is an honorary director of the Japan Society and president of the board of trustees of the Harvard-Yenching Institute.

JAPAN SOCIETY

The Japan Society, founded in 1907, is an association of individuals and corporations actively engaged in bringing the peoples of Japan and the United States closer together in understanding, appreciation and cooperation. It is a private, nonprofit, nonpolitical organization, devoted to cultural, educational and public affairs, and to discussions, exchanges and studies in areas of vital interest to both peoples. Its aim is to provide a medium through which each nation may learn from the experiences and accomplishments of the other

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DEPARTMENT OF STATE
WASHINGTON, D. C.
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF PROTOCOL

WHITE HOUSE ARRIVAL CEREMONY

One-half hour before ceremony	Members of the Welcoming Committee arrive White House via Southwest Gate and are escorted to their assigned places on the South Lawn.
One-half hour before ceremony	Members of the Official Party not arriving by helicopter arrive White House via Southwest Gate and are escorted to their assigned places on the South Lawn.
Five minutes before ceremony	Members of the Official Party traveling by helicopter arrive White House via Southwest Gate and are escorted to their assigned places on the South Lawn.
Two minutes before ceremony	President and Mrs. Ford arrive Diplomatic Entrance of White House.
	Ruffles and Flourishes Announcement Hail to the Chief
One minute before ceremony	President and Mrs. Ford arrive platform area in front of Diplomatic Entrance and position themselves at the beginning of red carpet.
Time of Ceremony	Motorcade carrying visitor (and Mrs.) arrives Diplomatic Entrance via Southwest Gate.

Trumpet Fanfare

President and Mrs. Ford are introduced to visitor (and Mrs.) by the Chief of Protocol.

(Photo Opportunity)

President Ford then introduces visitor (and Mrs.) to Secretary of State (and Mrs.) and representative of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (and Mrs.).

The President escorts visitor onto the platform.

Mrs. Ford escorts visitor's wife, accompanied by wife of Chief of Protocol, to a position to the right of the platform, in front of the Official Party. Visitor's wife stands to Mrs. Ford's right with wife of Chief of Protocol directly behind.

Present Arms
Ruffles and Flourishes
National Anthem of Visitor's Country
National Anthem of the United States
(19 or 21-gun salute)
Order Arms

President Ford escorts visitor toward the Commander of the Troops, who takes his place at visitor's right. The Inspection Party turns in front of the band, and the President takes a position to the right of the visitor.

Inspection begins at the right front of the band and proceeds along front rank of troops. Members of the Inspection Party render salutes when passing in front of the Colors.

At the left flank of troops, the Party turns and proceeds toward the platform.

President Ford escorts visitor onto the platform.

Troops in Review
Marine Drum and Bugle Corps
pass in front of the platform
Present Arms
Order Arms

President Ford and visitor move to the microphone and face the press area.

Remarks by President Ford.

Remarks by visitor.

President Ford and visitor face the troops and the Commander of Troops indicates that the ceremony has concluded.

President and Mrs. Ford escort visitor (and Mrs.) to the South Portico Balcony.

(Photo Opportunity at
South Portico Balcony)

The Party enters the Blue Room and a receiving line is formed in the following order:

President Ford
Visitor
Mrs. Ford
Visitor's Wife
Secretary of State
Wife of Secretary of State
Representative of Joint Chiefs of
Staff
Wife of Representative

Members of the Official Party and the Welcoming Committee are escorted into the Blue Room and are presented to the receiving line.

Coffee is served.

One-half hour
after start of
Ceremony

President Ford escorts visitor to the President's Office for meeting.

Mrs. Ford and wife of visitor remain in the Blue Room for coffee.

Following coffee, wife of visitor departs from North Portico via motorcade.

* * *

Members of Official Party depart North Portico via motorcade.

Members of Welcoming Committee depart via Southwest Gate (Diplomatic Entrance).

Following meeting with President Ford, visitor departs from South Lawn Driveway via motorcade.

* * * *

Attached are three diagrams showing:

- #A - The President's Park (Ellipse) showing positioning of the two helicopters and motorcade to the White House Arrival Ceremony.
- #B - Overall view of the White House South Lawn during White House Arrival Ceremony.
- #C - View of the Platform Area during White House Arrival Ceremony.

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FORM OF DOCUMENT	CORRESPONDENTS OR TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
Diagrams	Diagrams #A, #B, and #C, 3 pgs (part of White House Arrival Ceremony Document)		B

FILE LOCATION

Ron Nessen Papers, Box 27, "State Visits - 10/2-3/75 - Hirohito (1)"

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689 3/4/14

Draft White House Announcement

At the invitation of the President, Their Majesties the Emperor and Empress of Japan will pay a state visit to the United States from September 30 to October 13 as guests of the US Government.

This will be the first state visit to the United States by a reigning Emperor in the more than one hundred and twenty year history of America's relations with Japan. The visit will symbolize the close and cooperative relations which have developed between the US and Japan over the past quarter century. The President believes that Their Majesties' visit will contribute a new dignity to US-Japan relations and strengthen the bonds of friendship between the Japanese and American people.

President and Mrs. Ford will greet the Emperor and Empress when they arrive in Washington on October 2 and host a state dinner in their honor at the White House that evening. On October 3, the Emperor will lay a wreath at the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, tour Washington and give a banquet at the Commons Hall of the Smithsonian Institution in honor of President and Mrs. Ford.

Deputy Prime Minister Takeo Fukuda will accompany Their Majesties during the visit as the head of their Suite.

department of state * august 1975

OFFICIAL NAME: Japan

GEOGRAPHY

Japan, a chain of rugged, mountainous islands, lies in a 2,000-mile-long arc off the east coast of Asia. It comprises four main islands—Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku, and Kyushu—and more than 3,300 smaller islands, at about the same latitude as the United States.

About four-fifths of the country is covered by hills and mountains, a number of which are inactive or active volcanoes. Japan's unstable geological position beside the Pacific deeps accounts for the earthquakes it experiences.

Climate ranges from subtropical on Okinawa (similar to southern Florida) to cool on Hokkaido (like that of

southern Maine). Most of Japan is dominated by the Asiatic monsoon, which brings a pronounced summer rainy season (most intense in early July) and mild, sunny winters. Rainfall throughout the country is more than 40 inches per year and greater than this amount in certain areas. During late summer and early fall Japan is often buffeted by torrential rains accompanying Pacific typhoons.

PROFILE

Geography

AREA: 143,000 sq. mi. (slightly smaller than Calif.). CAPITAL: Tokyo (pop. 11.5 million). OTHER CITIES: Osaka (2.8 million), Yokohama (2.6 million), Nagoya (2 million), Kyoto (1.4 million).

People

POPULATION: 110 million (1974). ANNUAL GROWTH RATE: 1.2%. DENSITY: 762 per sq. mi. ETHNIC GROUPS: 0.6% Korean. LANGUAGE: Japanese. RELIGIONS: Shintoism and Buddhism; 0.8% Christian. LITERACY: 98%. LIFE EXPECTANCY: Male 69.3 yrs., female 74.7 yrs.

Government

TYPE: Parliamentary democracy. DATE OF CONSTITUTION: May 3, 1947.

BRANCHES: *Executive*—Prime Minister (Head of Government). *Legislative*—bicameral Diet (House of Representatives and House of Councillors). *Judicial*—Civil law system with Anglo-American influence.

POLITICAL PARTIES: Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), Japan Socialist Party (JSP), Democratic Socialist Party (DSP), Komeito (Clean Government Party), Japan Communist Party (JCP). SUFFRAGE: Universal over 20. POLITICAL SUBDIVISIONS: 47 Prefectures.

FLAG: Red sun on white field.

Economy

GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (GNP): \$457 billion (1974 est.). REAL GROWTH RATE: -1.8% (1974); 10.6% (1960-70). PER CAPITA GNP: \$4,100 (1974 est.).

AGRICULTURE: *Land* 19%. *Labor* 12%. *Products*—rice, wheat, barley, vegetables, fruits.

INDUSTRY: *Labor* 36%. *Products*—machinery and equipment, metals and metal products, textiles, autos, chemicals, electrical and electronic equipment.

NATURAL RESOURCES: Negligible mineral resources, fish.

Trade: *Exports*—\$55.8 billion (1974): machinery and equipment, metals and metal products, textiles. *Partners*—US 23%, EC 11%, Far East 23%, Communist countries 6%. *Imports*—\$62.1 billion (1974): fossil fuels, metal ore, raw materials, foodstuffs, machinery and equipment. *Partners*—US 20%, EC 6%, Far East 20%, Communist countries 5%.

OFFICIAL EXCHANGE RATE (floating): 296 yen=US\$1 (July 1975).

ECONOMIC AID EXTENDED: Total official and private resource flow (1974)—\$2.962 billion (0.66% of GNP); official development assistance (1974)—\$1.126 billion (0.25% of GNP).

MEMBERSHIP IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: U.N. and its specialized agencies, International Court of Justice (ICJ), International Monetary Fund (IMF), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), International Energy Agency (IEA).

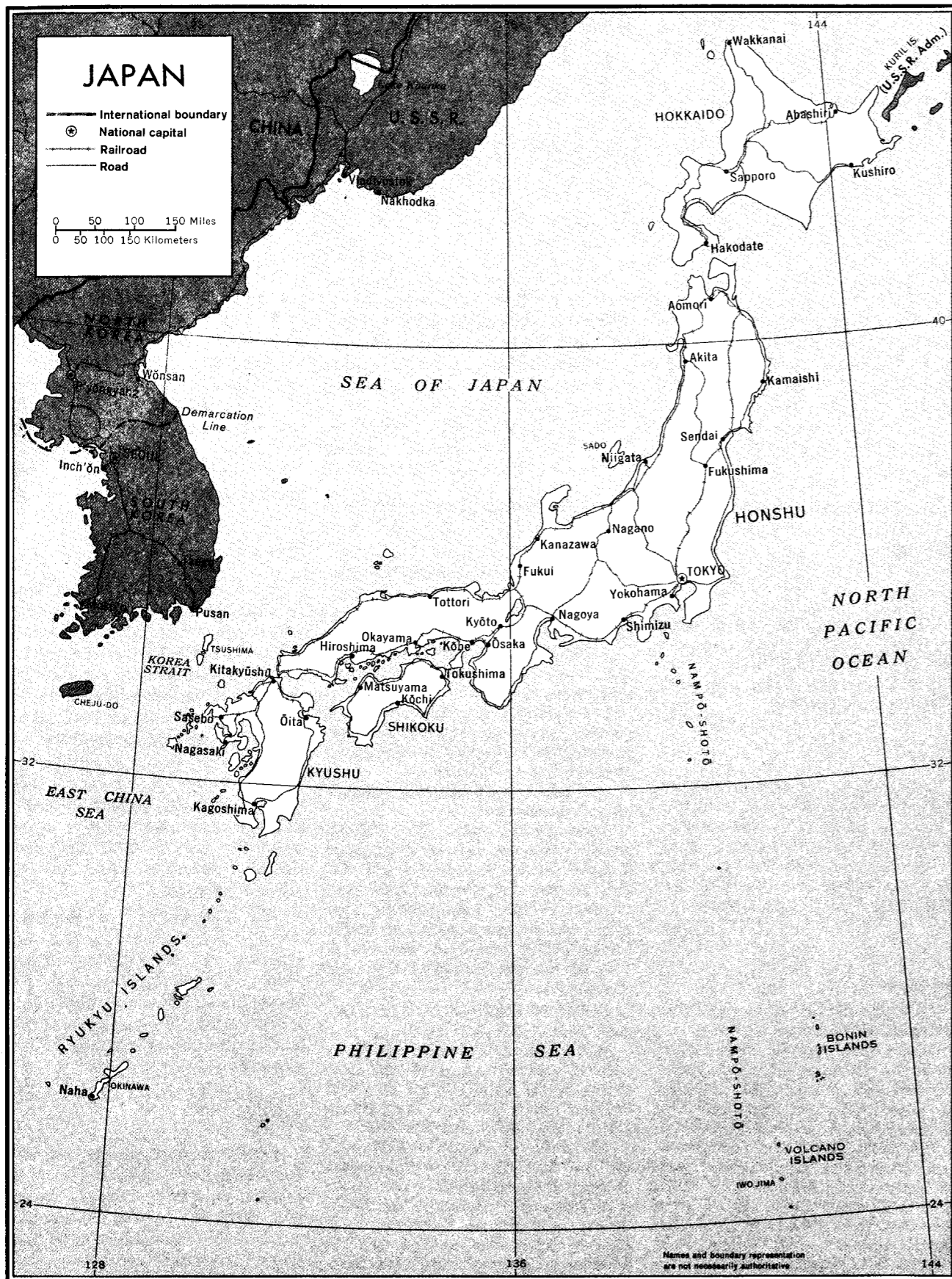
PEOPLE

Japan ranks among the most densely inhabited nations in the world. A growth rate which fell to 0.8 percent in the late 1950's has stabilized at about 1.2 percent in recent years. The government encourages birth control and family planning. In 1971 Japan's productive age population reached an all time high of 73 million, as the postwar "baby boom" joined the labor force. The rate of increase is tapering off, and indications are the nation will eventually have a stable labor force perhaps followed at a later date by a stable population.

The Japanese are a Mongoloid people, closely related to the major groups of east Asia. However, there is some evidence of admixture with Malayan and Caucasoid strains. There are about 600,000 Koreans and much smaller groups of Chinese and Caucasian residents.

Religion

Buddhism occupies an important place in Japan's religious life. It has exerted profound influence on fine arts, social institutions, and thought, and most Japanese still consider themselves members of one of the major Buddhist sects.



Shintoism is an indigenous religion which is founded on myths, legends, and ritual practices of the early Japanese people. It was recognized by the Meiji government in the latter 19th century as the official state religion and was cultivated by the government as a spur to patriotic and nationalistic feelings. Under the Allied occupation (1946-52), state support was removed from "State Shinto," and the Emperor disavowed divinity. Shintoism continues to draw participation by many people, particularly in the more rural areas of the country, at times of marriage, death, local festivals, and other observances.

Neither Buddhism nor Shintoism are exclusive religions. Most Japanese observe both Buddhist and Shinto rituals.

Confucianism is more an ethical system than a religion. The Confucian philosophic tradition is an important strand in Japanese thought.

Christianity has about 750,000 adherents.

Education

Japan provides free public schooling for all children through 6 years of elementary school and 3 years of junior high school. Most students go on to 3-year senior high schools, and those able to pass the difficult entrance examinations enter the 4-year universities or 2-year junior colleges. There are public and private high schools, colleges, and universities, but public institutions, as well as private, require tuition.

The rapidly rising standard of living and growing job opportunities for well-educated youth have placed a severe burden on overcrowded institutions of higher learning. Competition for entry into the handful of particularly prestigious universities—such as Tokyo University, Kyoto University, Waseda, and Keio—is very intense.

Between 1965 and 1970 there was an increase in student protests. A number of universities, including Tokyo University, were at times paralyzed or closed down entirely for as long as a year. The student movement is now divided into a number of mutually antagonistic factions, but the level of tension has decreased considerably.

Mass Communications

Mass communications in Japan are

comparable to those in the advanced industrial nations of the West. The mass media are highly competitive even though dominated to a considerable extent by three national dailies with circulations of 7-9 million copies (combined, morning and evening): *Asahi*, *Mainichi*, and *Yomiuri*. These major newspapers and several smaller ones publish weekly magazines and have interests in commercial radio and television. There are many other national and prefectural newspapers of significance and five English-language dailies.

The Japanese publishing industry brings out more new titles each year than its American counterpart.

Radio and television follow the British or Canadian pattern, with a nationwide government-owned network competing with commercial networks. Almost all Japanese homes have radios. As of 1970 about 95 percent of Japanese households had TV, placing Japan second in the world after the United States. The Japanese motion picture industry similarly ranks as one of the largest in the world.

Social Welfare

In Japan, as in other parts of Asia, the care of the sick, aged, and infirm has been, until recently, the responsibility of the family, employers, or private organizations. To meet the needs of an urbanized, modern industrial society, this system has changed greatly, and the government is conducting a very broad range of modest but successful social welfare programs. These include health insurance, old-age pensions, a minimum wage law, and the operation of a variety of hospitals and social welfare institutions for orphans, the physically handicapped, and the elderly. All major political parties are firmly committed to providing increased and more effective social welfare services.

HISTORY

Traditional Japanese records embody the legend that the empire was founded in 660 B.C. by the Emperor Jimmu, a direct descendant of the Sun Goddess and ancestor of the present ruling dynasty. About 405 A.D. the Japanese court officially

adopted the Chinese script. During the 6th century Buddhism was introduced into Japan from China. These two events revolutionized Japanese culture and were the beginning of a long series of cultural borrowings from China that have resulted in a strong feeling of affinity for China by the Japanese people.

From the establishment of the first fixed capital at Nara in 710 until 1867, the Emperors of the Yamato dynasty were the nominal rulers, but actual power was usually held by powerful court nobles, regents, or shoguns (military governors).

Contact With the West

The first contact with the West occurred about 1542 when a Portuguese ship was blown off course and landed in Japan. It was followed by Portuguese traders; Jesuit, Dominican, and Franciscan missionaries; and Dutch, English, and Spanish traders. During the early part of the 17th century growing suspicion that the traders and missionaries were forerunners of a military conquest caused the Shogunate to place successively greater restrictions on foreigners, culminating in 1638 with the expulsion of all foreigners and the severing of all relations with the outside world, except severely limited commercial contacts with Dutch and Chinese merchants at Nagasaki. This isolation persisted until 1854 when Commodore Matthew Perry of the U.S. Navy "opened" Japan by negotiating the convention of Kanagawa.

Renewed contact with the West contributed to a breakdown of feudalism and led to industrialization and the rapid achievement of the status of a modern power. In 1868 the Shogun was forced to resign and Emperor Meiji was restored to temporal power. The feudal system was subsequently abolished, and in 1889 a constitutional government, parliamentary in form, was established. During this period Japan sought to utilize Western technology to strengthen and modernize the state and the economy. The "Meiji constitution," promulgated during this time, instituted many needed reforms. The success of the carefully controlled revolution of the Meiji leaders was tremendous. In a few decades these leaders achieved their goal of a strong Japan.

Japan proceeded to establish itself on an equal basis with the leading nations of the West. Along with the introduction of modern transportation, steps were taken to build an up-to-date army and navy, modernize education, adopt some Western customs, and create a modern industry. Of prime psychological importance was the introduction of a Western system of justice, thus enabling Japan to remove in 1898 the last of the "unequal treaties" which were particularly galling to the Japanese.

Wars With China and Russia

The Japanese leaders of the late 19th century, alert to internal and Western "power politics," regarded the Korean peninsula as "a dagger pointed at the heart of Japan." It was over Korea that Japan became involved in war with the Chinese Empire in 1894-95 and with Russia in 1904-05. As a result of the war with China, Japan acquired a part of southern Manchuria, the Pescadores Islands, and Formosa. Japan defeated Russia in the war of 1904-05, and the resulting Treaty of Portsmouth awarded Japan certain rights in Manchuria and southern Sakhalin (Russia had received southern Sakhalin in 1875 in exchange for the Kurile Islands). These two wars gave Japan a free hand in Korea, which it formally annexed in 1910.

World War I to Present

World War I permitted Japan, the only Asian member of the Allies, to expand its influence in Asia and its territorial holdings in the Pacific and brought unprecedented prosperity to the country. It went to the peace conference at Versailles in 1919 as one of the great military and industrial powers of the world and received official recognition as one of the "Big Five" of the new international order. It joined the League of Nations and received a mandate over the Pacific islands north of the Equator that were formerly held by Germany.

During the 1920's Japan made progress toward establishing a democratic system of government. However, parliamentary government was not deeply enough rooted to weather the pressures in the 1930's from economic and political forces. Military leadership played an increasingly influential role

in the ruling of Japan during this time.

Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931 and established the puppet state of Manchukuo. In 1933 Japan resigned from the League of Nations. The Japanese invasion of China in 1937 followed Japan's signature of the so-called "anti-Comintern pact" the previous year and was one of a chain of developments which culminated in the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. After 3 years and 9 months of warfare, which resulted in the loss of hundreds of thousands of lives on both sides and included the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan signed an instrument of surrender on the U.S.S. *Missouri* on September 2, 1945.

As a result of World War II, Japan lost all of its recently acquired possessions and retained only the home islands. Manchukuo was dissolved, and Manchuria was returned to China; Japan renounced all claims to Formosa; Korea was granted independence; southern Sakhalin and the Kuriles were occupied by the U.S.S.R.; and the United States became the sole administering authority of the Ryukyu, Bonin, and Volcano Islands. (The United States had returned control of all the islands to Japan by 1972 with the reversion of Okinawa.)

Japan was placed under the international control of the Allied Powers through the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (SCAP), Gen. Douglas MacArthur. U.S. objectives were to insure that Japan would become a peaceful nation and to establish democratic self-government supported by the freely expressed will of the people. Reforms were introduced in the political, economic, and social spheres. The method of ruling through Japanese officials and a freely elected Japanese Diet (legislature) afforded a progressive and orderly transition from the stringent controls immediately following the surrender to the restoration of full sovereignty when the treaty of peace with Japan went into effect on April 28, 1952.

Since the peace treaty Japan has been ruled by conservative governments whose policy has been to maintain a close orientation to the West. The institutions of parliamentary democracy have become progressively

stronger. The post-treaty period has also been marked by tremendous economic growth.

GOVERNMENT

Japan's parliamentary government—a constitutional monarchy—operates within the framework of a Constitution which became effective on May 3, 1947. Sovereignty, previously embodied in the Emperor, is now vested in the Japanese people, and the Emperor is defined as the symbol of the state. Japan has universal adult suffrage with a secret ballot for all elective offices. The government has an executive, responsible to the legislature, and an independent judiciary.

The bicameral Diet is constitutionally designated as the highest organ of state power and is the sole lawmaking body of the government. It consists of the House of Representatives (Lower House)—491 members elected for a maximum 4-year term—and the House of Councillors, (Upper House)—252 members elected for a 6-year term (one-half elected every 3 years). One hundred members of the House of Councillors are elected from the nation at large and the remainder by prefecture.

The Emperor, with the advice and approval of the Cabinet, may dissolve the House of Representatives in which case a general election must be held within 40 days. The House of Representatives may force the resignation of the Cabinet by passing a motion of no-confidence, unless the House of Representatives is dissolved within 10 days of the motion.

Bills, which may be submitted by the government or by individual members of the Diet, become law on passage by a simple majority of both Houses. Should the House of Councillors exercise a legislative veto on bills passed by the House of Representatives, such a veto may be overridden by a two-thirds vote of the House of Representatives. When the House of Councillors disagrees with the House of Representatives on budgetary matters or on Diet approval of treaties, the decision of the House of Representatives prevails if the disagreement cannot be resolved within 30 days.

Executive power is vested in a Cabinet composed of the Prime Min-

ister and the Ministers of State, all of whom must be civilians. The Prime Minister, who must be a member of the Diet, is appointed by the Emperor on designation by the Diet. He has the power to appoint and remove his Ministers, the majority of whom must be from the Diet.

In addition to its general executive functions, the Cabinet is responsible for the conduct of foreign affairs, the conclusion of treaties (with the approval of the Diet), the submission of a budget, and the enactment of Cabinet orders to execute provisions of the Constitution and the law.

The Cabinet must resign en masse: (1) when it no longer enjoys the confidence of the House of Representatives, unless the House is dissolved within 10 days after the no-confidence vote; (2) when the prime ministership is vacant; (3) upon the first convocation of the Diet after a general election for the House of Representatives.

Judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court and in such courts as are established by law. These include district courts and high courts (courts of appeal). The Chief Justice is appointed by the Emperor upon designation by the Cabinet. All other members of the Supreme Court are appointed directly by the Cabinet. Appointments are reviewed by the people at the next general election and again after 10 years.

The Constitution requires that regulations for the organization and administration of local governments be "in accordance with the principle of local autonomy." Japan, however, does not have a federal system, and its 47 Prefectures are not sovereign entities in the sense that American States are. Most of them are not financially self-sufficient but depend on the central government for subsidies. Governors of Prefectures, mayors of municipalities, prefectural and municipal assemblymen are elected by the people for 4-year terms.

Principal Government Officials

Head of State—The Emperor Hirohito
Prime Minister—Takeo Miki
Deputy Prime Minister; Director General, Economic Planning Agency—Takeo Fukuda

Other Ministers

Agriculture and Forestry—Shintaro Abe

Construction—Tadao Kariya
Education—Michio Nagai
Finance—Masayoshi Ohira
Foreign Affairs—Kiichi Miyazawa
Health and Welfare—Masami Tanaka
Home Affairs—Hajime Fukuda
International Trade and Industry—Toshio Komoto
Justice—Osamu Inaba
Labor—Takashi Hasegawa
Posts and Telecommunications—Isamu Murakami
Transport—Mutsuo Kimura
Chief Cabinet Secretary—Ichitaro Ide
Directors General
Administrative Management Agency—Yuzo Matsuzawa
Environmental Agency—Tatsuo Ozawa
Japan Defense Agency—Michita Sakata
National Land Agency—Shin Kanemaru
Prime Minister's Office—Mitsunori Ueki
Science and Technology Agency—Yoshitake Sasaki
Ambassador to the U.S.—Takeshi Yasukawa
Ambassador to the U.N.—Shizuo Saito

Japan maintains an Embassy in the U.S. at 2520 Massachusetts Ave., NW., Washington, D.C. 20008. There are Consulates General in Atlanta, Chicago, Honolulu, Houston, Los Angeles, New Orleans, New York City, San Francisco, Seattle, Portland, and Guam; a Consulate in Anchorage; honorary Consulates General in Boston, Denver, Miami, Detroit, Minneapolis, Kansas City, St. Louis, Cleveland, Philadelphia, and San Juan; and honorary Consulates in San Diego, Mobile, and American Samoa.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Japan is one of the most politically stable of all postwar democracies. It has been ruled for more than 25 years by a shifting coalition of moderate conservative political interests.

The usually close cooperation between politicians, the highly efficient, dedicated bureaucracy, and the business community has given cohesion to national policymaking. The political organization representing Japanese moderate conservatism is the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP). The party is actually a coalition of 8-10 well-organized factions whose fortunes rise or fall with the ability of the factional

leader to obtain a position of power in the Cabinet or party. The factional organization is sufficiently tight and the factional leaders' control of funds and appointments is sufficiently strong to maintain factional unity. A shared interest in sustaining conservative control of the government has maintained the unity of these factions in the LDP since the party's founding in 1955.

The largest of the four opposition parties is the Japanese Socialist Party (JSP). That party, torn by ideological conflict between the Marxist class struggle approach of its predominate left wing and the more pragmatic approach of the right wing, appears to have stabilized its position after a period of decline maintaining the support of 20-25 percent of the electorate. Its main support comes from the 4.5 million-member General Federation of Trade Unions (Sohyo).

The Komeito (Clean Government Party), the political arm of the Buddhist sect Soka Gakkai, has recently attempted to broaden its base. The party grew rapidly in its early years but representation in the Diet declined in the 1972 elections. The Komeito appears essentially conservative and opposed to communism but has joined the other opposition parties in parliamentary maneuvers against the Liberal Democrats.

No longer stridently revolutionary, the Japanese Communist Party (JCP) has rejected close ties with either Moscow or Peking and now espouses a parliamentary road to power like the major West European Communist parties. It portrays itself as a "lovable" party, using nationalistic posters and an approach focusing on popular issues—pollution, prices, and deficiencies in public services, schools, hospitals, and roads.

The Democratic Socialist Party (DSP) is a moderate Socialist party patterned after the European Social Democrats. Its membership broke away from the JSP in 1958. It is supported by Japan's second largest labor federation, the Japanese Confederation of Labor (Domei), but its strength has declined in recent years.

While Japanese politics are still characterized by stability, the LDP's position is not completely assured. In national elections for the lower house,

popular support for the LDP-endorsed candidates has declined an average of about 2 percent per election from a high of 76 percent to a point where in the last elections (1972) it fell to about 47 percent. Consequently, the LDP counts on the inability of its opponents to unite and on its own proven ability to take advantage of the unique Japanese elections system to maximize its Diet representation and remain in power. The LDP's performance in the economic field, one of its strong points, has undeniably improved the lot of the people in the postwar era, and despite recent economic difficulties the LDP is still the only party which the public trusts to manage the economy.

During the last House of Representatives elections in December 1972, LDP-endorsed candidates won 271 seats. With the subsequent affiliation of independents and victories in by-elections, the LDP controlled 284 seats out of 491 seats. The JSP gained 29 seats to increase to 119 seats after falling to 90 seats in the 1969 elections. The Komeito dropped from 47 to 29 seats and the DSP from 31 to 19 seats. The JCP increased their representation from 14 to 38 and for the first time since the late 1940's polled over 10 percent of the vote. Lower House elections must be held before December 1976 but may occur earlier.

In the House of Councillors elections in June 1974, the LDP emerged

with a bare majority of 129 out of the 252 seats. Their opposition included the JSP—63 seats, Komeito—24 seats, JCP—20 seats, DSP—10 seats, and others. The LDP's percentage of the vote in the prefectural constituency races declined from 44 percent in 1971 to 40 percent in 1974, an indication that the long-term decline in the LDP's popular vote in the national elections was continuing. The next Upper House elections will be in 1977.

DEFENSE

After World War II Japan was completely disarmed by the Allies. Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution provides that "land, sea, and air forces as well as other war potential, will never be maintained." In 1950 during the Korean hostilities this position was modified by the establishment of the National Police Reserve. Before the end of the Allied occupation in April 1952 the first steps had been taken to expand and transform it into a self-defense force. At the same time, the Japanese Government derived from Article 51 of the U.N. Charter the doctrine that each nation has the right of self-defense against armed attack and that this right is consistent with Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution.

In 1954 the National Defense Agency was created with the specific mission of defending Japan against external aggression. Ground, maritime, and air self-defense forces were established, with a Joint Chiefs of Staff organization patterned after that of the United States.

U.S.-Japan Security Relations

The United States and Japan are allied under the terms of the 1960 Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security. Our security relationship dates from the period of the early 1950's when Japan was virtually defenseless and a 1952 Security Treaty was negotiated at the same time as the Peace Treaty. The present treaty, revised on a broader basis of equality, came into force on June 23, 1960, and became subject to abrogation by either party at 1 year's notice in June 1970. Both governments at the time declared their intention to extend the treaty for an indefinite future.

The treaty has served its purposes well; for the United States the bases

and facilities provided by Japan are especially important to the U.S. ability to maintain its commitments to its other allies in the Far East, as well as for the security of Japan. U.S. military assistance to Japan was terminated at the end of FY 1967. Since 1952 U.S. military forces in Japan have decreased from more than 260,000 to the present level of about 54,000, including 35,000 on Okinawa.

The United States continues to maintain its essential military facilities on Okinawa under the terms of the Treaty of Cooperation and Mutual Security, which will apply without change to Okinawa.

Japanese Self-Defense Forces

The Japanese Armed Forces have an authorized strength of 260,000 men. Their ground forces are organized in 13 divisions, their naval forces have destroyers and submarines, and their air force has F-104's and F4's coproduced in Japan.

As U.S. forces were withdrawn, Japanese self-defense forces assumed their responsibilities. In 1958 the ground defense of Japan was assumed by the Japanese Ground Self-Defense Force. Air defense responsibilities, formerly undertaken by some U.S. Air Force units, have been assumed by the Japanese Air Self-Defense Force. The Japanese are continuing to make modest technical and qualitative improvements in their defense capabilities, without acquiring any capability for projecting their military power beyond Japan's immediate vicinity. While the absolute cost for self-defense has increased rapidly, it still remains less than one percent of Japan's gross national product. Japan is party to no military alliance save that with the United States.

Although political, economic, and psychological factors have constrained the rate of development of the self-defense forces, the proportion of the public at large that acknowledges the need for these forces has grown. Still, an important minority in Japan continues to advocate strict interpretation of Article 9 of the Constitution, and the government's freedom of action is seriously restricted. Competing demands of popular social welfare programs also serve to limit the percentage of the overall budget devoted to the defense establishment. Above all,

there remains in the minds of the Japanese people a strong antipathy toward all things military and particularly toward military uses of nuclear energy, stemming from their prewar and wartime experience with Japanese militarism and their unique position as the only people in the world who have suffered from nuclear warfare.

ECONOMY

Japan's waters are rich in aquatic life; however, the country is poor in land and other natural resources. Only 19 percent of the total land is presently suitable for cultivation. With great ingenuity and technical skill, which result in per-acre crop yields among the highest in the world, farmers produce on less than 13 million acres under cultivation about 70 percent of the food needed by the present population, including all rice requirements. The rest must be imported.

Natural resources to meet the needs of modern industry are few. Hydroelectric power, although highly developed, generates less than half of the total supply of electricity, and Japan relies increasingly on thermal power to satisfy its rapidly growing energy requirements. Coal, found principally on Hokkaido and Kyushu, is plentiful, but only 25 percent of the amount mined is suitable for industrial purposes. Chromite, copper, gold, magnesium, silver, and zinc meet current minimum requirements, but Japan is dependent on foreign sources for many of the minerals essential to modern industry. Iron, petroleum, and coking coal head the list of Japan's mineral needs.

Although some two-thirds of the total land area is forested, Japan cannot meet its rapidly growing requirements for lumber and wood pulp.

Japan's exports earn only about 10 percent of its GNP, much less than the percentages of other "traditional" trading nations. Although small in terms of GNP, this trade is essential for earning the foreign exchange Japan needs to purchase the raw materials essential to its advanced economy.

Japan's reservoir of industrial leadership and technicians, its intelligent and industrious working force, its high investment rate, and its intensive promotion of industrial development

and foreign trade have resulted in the development of a mature industrial economy. Japan, along with North America and Western Europe, is one of the three major industrial complexes among the market economies. Japan is also the world's second largest foreign aid donor.

Current Situation

In mid-1975 Japan finds itself in the midst of the longest and most severe business slump in its postwar history. In 1974 real GNP declined by an estimated 2 percent over 1973, when the economy grew 10.5 percent. Japanese economic analysts believe that the recession has reached its nadir, but unemployment is still at unprecedented levels. Consumer demand is slack, and business investment is in a prolonged slump. Even if recovery occurs during the second half of the year, as has been predicted, little or no economic growth is anticipated for the year as a whole.

The recession is due in part to the government's preoccupation during the past 2 years with the problem of inflation. In 1974 the consumer price index rose about 25 percent—the highest among the developed countries. The inflationary spiral was stimulated in large part by the quadrupling of oil prices and by large wage hikes averaging over 30 percent in 1974. Since its accession to power in November, the Miki administration has placed primary emphasis in economic policy on achieving price stability. In recent months the rate of inflation has dropped off to less than 15 percent. Organized labor was induced to accept wage settlements averaging increases at about this level during the important spring negotiations recently concluded. Nevertheless, Japanese policymakers remain deeply concerned about a possible resurgence of inflation and have delayed taking significant expansionary measures despite pressure from industry.

The bright side of the economic picture is in trade. Although its oil imports more than tripled in 1975, Japan managed to run a small surplus on its trade balance through aggressive export marketing. In 1974 exports rose almost 50 percent in value. During the first quarter of 1975 imports dropped off markedly as the economic downturn became more

READING LIST

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pervasive, and the trade surplus increased. Japan's foreign exchange reserves stand at about \$14 billion.

Trade and Investment With the U.S.

Trade between the United States and Japan, our largest overseas trading partner, has prospered over the past 5 years, rising from \$10 billion in 1970 to the current \$24 billion annual level. This unprecedented growth was accompanied by a reduction in the United States persistent bilateral trade deficit, which had been slashed from a record of \$4.1 billion in 1972 to \$1.8 billion by 1974 (about \$500 million higher than 1973). Major U.S. exports are food and feedgrains, business machines, aircraft, and coal; major imports from Japan are automobiles, iron and steel products, and household appliances.

U.S. investment in Japan about \$3 billion. The book value of Japanese investment in the United States is said to be about \$300 million, but actual value is believed to be in the range of \$1.5-\$2 billion. Since 1967, and particularly since 1973, partly in response to U.S. prodding, Japan has moved to dismantle controls on foreign direct

TRAVEL NOTES

Climate and Clothing—Tokyo has relatively mild winters with little or no snowfall and hot, humid summers. A four-season wardrobe is recommended for travel throughout Japan.

Customs—All visitors must have the appropriate Japanese visa for entry. Smallpox is the only immunization for visitors arriving directly from the U.S.

Health—Sanitary conditions in Japan are the best in Asia; in general, food and water are safe throughout Japan. Well qualified Japanese doctors, many of whom speak English, practice in the larger cities.

Telecommunications—Telegraph facilities are excellent. Long distance calls, either international or within Japan, can be placed with little difficulty.

Transportation—The major cities have subways, interurban surface and elevated trains, buses, and taxis. The national railway system serves most of Japan and is widely used by foreigners. Japan is served by a number of international airlines and steamship companies and has several domestic airlines.

investment. Only a few sectors are exempted from automatic approval.

The United States and Japan cooperate closely in multilateral efforts to resolve global economic problems such as energy, barriers to trade, food security, monetary reform, and North/South economic relations. Japan is an active and constructive participant in the International Energy Agency, the multilateral trade negotiations (MTN's), and the OECD. We welcome Japan's commitment to a liberal trade policy, as evidenced by its unilateral import liberalization and its active involvement in the MTN's, but nevertheless we believe that further liberalization in certain sectors, for example, automobiles and computer equipment, is needed.

Transportation

Japan has a well-developed international and domestic transportation system, although highway development still lags. The ports of Yokohama, Kobe-Osaka, and Nagoya and the Tokyo International Airport are important terminals for sea and air traffic in the western Pacific, with modern facilities for passengers and freight. Japan Air Lines began round-the-world flights through New York in 1967.

The domestic transportation system is heavily dependent on the government-owned rail network. This is supplemented by private railways in and near the large cities, a developing highway system, coastwise shipping, and several airlines. The rail system is well distributed throughout the country, well maintained, and offers efficient service, moving more passengers more miles than any other rail system in the world. The new super expresses, the fastest trains in the world, now take as little as 3 hours between Tokyo and Osaka, a distance of 325 miles. In the spring of 1975, service to Fukuoka by the super express was inaugurated, thus linking all of Japan's major urban centers by a single high-speed inter-urban rail line.

In recent years there have been increasing appropriations for highway building and maintenance in an effort to bring the road system abreast of the rapidly increasing numbers of cars and trucks. A modern 325-mile expressway between Tokyo and Kobe was opened in 1969.

Labor

Japan's labor force is estimated at more than 60 million, an increase of about 17 million since 1960. Less than 1.2 percent of the labor force is unemployed, and the shortage of labor is keenly felt in certain sectors of the economy.

Japanese trade unionism in its present form is largely a post-World War II phenomenon. The peak prewar union membership (1936) was 420,000, or 7 percent of Japan's non-agricultural labor force. At present an estimated 12.4 million workers, or 34 percent of the nonagricultural labor force, belong to about 68,000 unions. More than 8 million union members are organized in three major union federations. Consequently, labor is the largest organized group in Japan.

Sohyo (General Federation of Trade Unions), the largest (4.5 million members) and most powerful organization in the Japanese labor movement, was established in 1950 in protest against the JCP's domination of the then-leading union federation. No sooner had the new organization been founded, however, than the Communist element left the old federation (which quickly went out of existence) and joined Sohyo en masse. Non-Communist elements have been in control of Sohyo since 1957, although the Communists have increased their influence on some unions affiliated with Sohyo in recent years. Even the non-Communist wing of Sohyo is Marxist in orientation, however, and endorses concepts such as class warfare and tactics such as the political general strike. Since 1960 Sohyo has appeared to move in the direction of moderation, placing greater emphasis on economic "struggles" and objectives and somewhat less on political agitation. Sohyo is the major organizational and financial prop of the Japan Socialist Party, and its position on international questions parallels that of the party. Two-thirds of its membership are national and local public service workers, including railwaymen, postal workers, teachers, and municipal and prefectural government employees.

Domei (Japan Confederation of Labor) consists almost entirely of unions in the private enterprise sector. It was formed in 1964 by the union of Zenro and Sodomei labor federations and at present claims a membership of

2.3 million. Domei, moderate and non-Marxist, is the principal source of support for the DSP. It has been growing while Sohyo's membership has stagnated.

Churitsu Roren, a loose amalgam of industrial workers who decline affiliation with either Sohyo or Domei, came into existence in January 1961. It has a total membership of approximately 1.4 million drawn mostly from the Electrical Manufacturing Workers and workers in the various construction trades.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Japan today is a major power not only in Asia but in the world; an advanced industrialized country, it ranks third in terms of GNP. Its foreign policy since 1952 has sought to promote peace and the prosperity of its people through support of the United Nations, close ties with the West, and a special recognition of its status as an Asian nation. Japan has diplomatic relations with almost all independent countries, including the People's Republic of China, the Soviet Union, and the East European bloc countries. It has economic but not diplomatic relations with the Republic of China on Taiwan. A member of the United Nations since December 1956, Japan is also an active member of all the U.N. specialized agencies and seeks a permanent seat on the Security Council. Although the Constitution and government policy deny Japan a military role, Japanese cooperation through the U.S.-Japan Security Treaty and American security arrangements with other countries in the area has been very important to the peace and stability of the region.

All Japanese governments in the postwar period have relied on a close relationship with the United States as the foundation of their foreign policy and on the Mutual Security Treaty with the United States for Japan's strategic protection. Within the context of this alliance with the United States, the Japanese Government has moved in recent years to diversify and expand its foreign relations by establishing diplomatic relations with the P.R.C., seeking to improve relations with the Soviet Union, and expanding trade and cultural relations with other Communist nations, particularly in

Asia. While continuing to see their national interests as lying primarily in Asia, the Japanese have also moved to bolster their worldwide economic ties through greater diplomatic attention to the advanced nations of Europe and the oil-producing nations of the Middle East.

U.S.-JAPAN RELATIONS

"We consider our security treaty with Japan the cornerstone of stability in the vast reaches of Asia and the Pacific. Our relations are crucial to our mutual well-being. Together, we are working energetically on the international multilateral agenda—in trade, energy, and food. We will continue the process of strengthening our friendship, mutual security, and prosperity."

President Ford's address
before a joint session of
Congress, April 10, 1975

Relations between the United States and Japan are solidly based on a common commitment to the goals of a stable peace and economic growth and prosperity for all nations. Together we have developed a wide range of ties in the political, economic, cultural, and scientific fields. The security and general welfare of the American and Japanese peoples have become increasingly interdependent.

In addition to the Treaty of Peace of 1951, the U.S.-Japan relationship is formally defined by the Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security of 1960 and many other agreements and understandings. The United States frequently consults with Japan on various governmental levels regarding matters of mutual concern. Cooperation with Japan is facilitated by the operation of a number of intergovernmental and private committees and conferences.

Broadly speaking, there has been a shift in recent years within U.S.-Japan relations away from an emphasis on bilateral issues toward increased consideration of common multilateral problems. Considerable progress has been achieved in the resolution of past points of difference between the two countries. The Japanese Government has taken a number of important economic policy measures which go a long way toward restoring balance to our bilateral economic relations. The

questions of normalization of relations between Japan and the People's Republic of China is no longer a domestic political issue within Japan, and the United States and Japan have no problems over their respective approaches to China. The U.S.-Japan security relationship, which has caused difficulties in the past, is not now a divisive issue in our relations. Some aspects of it remain potential friction points but both countries value highly the ongoing consultations and coordination regarding security questions in this new era of détente. Both the United States and Japan recognize the need for a reduction and consolidation of the U.S. military presence on Japan and have been working together toward that end.

Both governments recognize the seriousness of current international economic problems and seek to coordinate and cooperate in their respective efforts to resolve the energy problem, liberalize world trading rules, reform international monetary arrangements, and create new approaches to food and raw materials problems. We are confident that within a large framework of common and complementary interests, the general policies of the United States and Japan can work in harmony.

Okinawa Reversion Treaty

An historic example of U.S.-Japan cooperation was the return to Japanese administration of the Ryukyu Islands on May 15, 1972. In November 1969 President Nixon and Prime Minister Sato agreed to begin negotiations for the return of the islands, which had been under U.S. administration since the end of World War II, in accordance with the longstanding U.S. recognition of Japan's residual sovereignty and the commitment reaffirmed by every President since President Eisenhower for their eventual return. Reversion thus removed what had become an important political issue in Japan.

Although the United States relinquished its administrative rights over Okinawa, it retains essential military bases there under the provisions of the 1960 Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security and its related arrangements, which apply to Okinawa without change. The United States, however, released some of its facilities and

areas which were no longer required, and Japan acquired a number of civil assets.

President Ford's Visit

On November 18 through 22, 1974, President Ford journeyed to Japan, the first such visit to that country by an American president while in office. He met with the Emperor, then-Prime Minister Tanaka, and various Japanese political leaders. Both in Tokyo and Kyoto, where he visited historic and cultural sites, the President was warmly greeted by the Japanese.

In recent years, following the reversion of Okinawa, relations between the United States and Japan have been moving into a new stage, characterized by a greater sense of equality, breadth of common purpose, and mutual commitment to the solution of multilateral problems. The President's visit successfully highlighted the strength and closeness of this new relationship.

The joint communique issued at the conclusion of the President's visit reaffirmed the importance both Japan and the United States attach to this relationship and placed a sharpened emphasis on the multilateral dimensions of our interdependence. The communique stressed that our treaty relationship is not solely a matter of military security but also one of

mutual cooperation in economic, social, and scientific areas in which we share common concern.

The Emperor's Visit

On September 26, 1971, President Nixon journeyed to Anchorage, Alaska to welcome the Emperor and Empress of Japan to American soil during their stopover en route to Europe. This was the first time in all of Japan's recorded history that a reigning Emperor had ever left Japanese territory.

During President Ford's visit to Japan in 1974, the Emperor accepted the President's invitation to visit the United States. The Emperor and Empress plan to visit the United States in October 1975. In addition to meeting the President and First Family in Washington, D.C., the Emperor and Empress will spend 2 weeks touring various American cities, and marine research institutes in both Massachusetts and California.

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Ambassador—James D. Hodgson
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The U.S. Embassy in Tokyo is located at 10-5, Akasaka 1-chome, Minato-ku, Tokyo. There are Consulates General in Osaka-Kobe and Naha and Consulates in Fukuoka and Sapporo.

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