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Antarctic Discoveries: ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ Byrd's Own Story

The second Byrd Expedition to Antarctica has completed its task and will soon leave Little America for the long voyage back to civilization. In the following article Admiral Byrd sums up the results of the expedition—the explorations at sea, the flights into Marie Byrd Land, which uncovered new territory and determined that Antarctica is one continent; the geological and geographical discoveries of the trail parties, and the contributions made by the scientific staff.

By Richard E. Byrd,

Rear Admiral U. S. N., Retired

By Mackay Radio to the New York Times, Little America, Antarctica

Endlessly this question is asked about polar exploration: "What is the use of it?" In a certain sense science supplies the answer. Geographical discovery, the brightest weapon in an explorer's armory, is only an elementary tool for getting at something deeper. Exploration nowadays reaches dignity only when penetrating past the superficial concerns of latitude and longitude. It brings the modern apparatus of science to bear upon the unknown for a truer understanding of the known and half known. In the twenty-two-point program of this expedition, geographical discovery was only a single point.

Among the subjects studied by this expedition during its field operations are astronomy, meteorology, physical oceanography, biology, oceanography, vertebrate and invertebrate zoology, mammalogy, physiology, glaciology, stratigraphy, petrography, paleontology, tectonic and economic geology, geophysics, physical geography, cartography, physical and terrestrial magnetism, bacteriology and botany.

The expedition has had the distinction of carrying cosmic ray research into the highest Southern latitudes thus far attained in the adventuresome pursuit of this most fascinating of newly discovered phenomena; of initiating the first meteor-observation program in Antarctica, with spectacular results; of introducing up-to-date technique in polar meteorology; and of gathering the first authentic data as to the thickness of the South Polar ice cap, thanks to the seismic sounding apparatus, the preliminary hints of which may radically change our conceptions of Antarctica.

The most casual survey of these subjects shows they are not esoteric and peculiar to remote places. Many of them are of every-day significance in civilization.

ON THE WAY

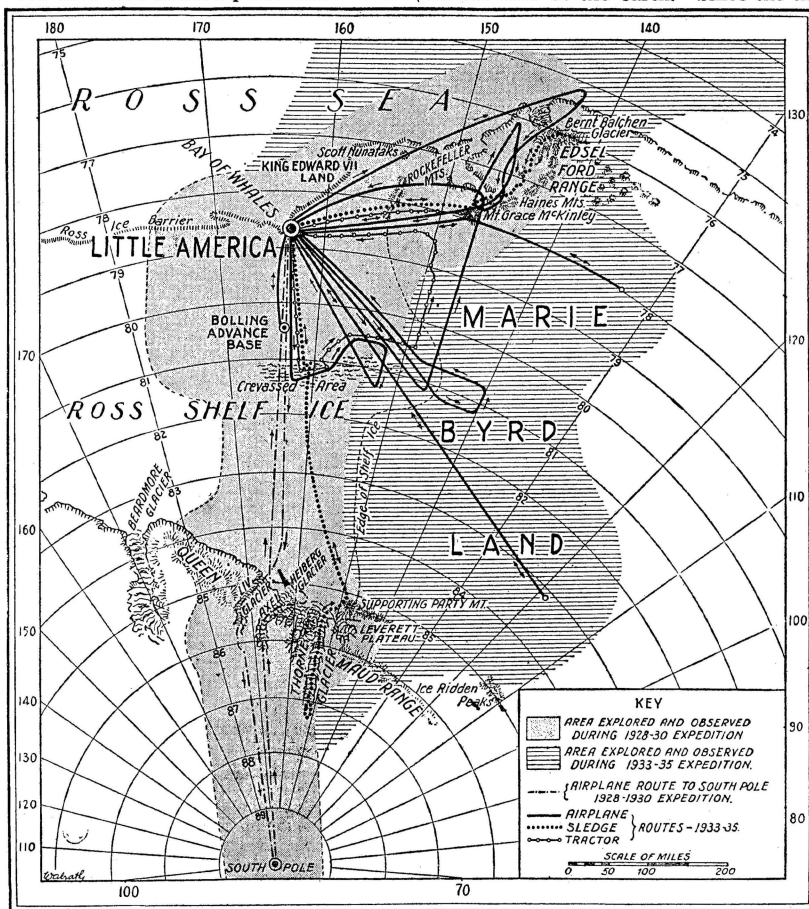
In certain respects my first expedition was a preparation for the second. Great problems still remained and it seemed logical to try to close with them while we still had the

advantage of an awakened public interest, the momentum of one successful effort, and while we still had available the nucleus of a well-trained personnel.

iron Jacob Ruppert, resurrected from the government graveyard, and the 60-year-old barkentine Bear of Oakland. We had aboard four airplanes, a fleet of six tractors, 150 dogs and the best tools of our trade that we could beg, borrow or buy.

Strange Bulge of White

For many years my curiosity had been attracted by that strange bulge of white, unexplored space jutting into the Pacific Ocean in the Pacific Quadrant between the 170th and 120th meridians. West. Somewhere behind it lay the most extensive stretch of undiscovered coastline on the face of the earth. Since the time



Byrd's Record of Exploration in Antarctica: A Blank Area of the Map Filled in

The intrusion of the depression made the task of building a second expedition formidable, but not insuperable. It was done finally, one way and another, and when we squared away for our job on Oct. 22, 1933, we numbered six score men, mostly volunteers, aboard two ships, the

of Cook, innumerable explorers had tried in vain to make a break through, only to find the way barred, as he had, by mountains of ice and a pack of impenetrable thickness. After leaving New Zealand, instead of laying a course direct for Little America, I resolved to try to cut away

some of this unknown.

An unprotected iron ship like the Rupert was a poor weapon with which to engage the worst pack ice in the polar seas, but we fortunately had another string to our bow. Cocked on a special tiered pedestal on the after deck was our twin-engined Condor biplane, William Horlick; in New Zealand it had been equipped with floats. It was our intention to press the vessel as far into the pack as seemed practicable, and when she was stopped to renew the assault by air. These tactics proved extremely successful, risky as they were.

The initial operations were auspicious. Laying a course to fetch us up at the intersection of the Antarctic Circle and the 150th meridian, we were gratified to break 136 miles past Cook's record, something in these latitudes which had not been surpassed in a century and a half. The ship ultimately attained Lat. 66.45 S., Long. 150.10 W. It would have been imprudent to risk driving her deeper into the ice; so we withdrew her for fourteen miles to a lovely open lake in the pack, and there let aviation carry the burden of the penetration.

Littered with Pack

The first flight carried us within sight of the 70th parallel, close to 350 miles beyond the deepest penetration in this region and within 300 miles of the coast of Marie Byrd Land. To the limit of vision along our track the sea was littered with pack.

Enticed by the likelihood that no land lay nearer than the coastal front we had discovered in 1929, I decided then to run east to the 120th meridian, where Dr. Charcot had made a deep penetration, and try to gain the coast along that meridian. Those many miles of easting no man aboard the iron vessel is likely to forget; it was impressively instructive as to why this area has so long resisted invasion. We entered the heart of the greatest ice-producing region in the world, which we called the Devil's Graveyard. For days we never saw the sun.

The ship felt her way past innumerable bergs in dense fog. On a bright day Dr. Poulter, senior scientist, estimated we saw 8,000 bergs in twenty-four hours. On one day, in fog and in a gale, we lay helpless for an hour and a half in the midst of them with our engines stopped.

Flying in Fog

Still we persevered, sometimes sailing into unexplored waters. At the 120th meridian the way south was barred by heavy pack; so we worked to the 116th meridian. The ice here was none too favorable, but time was getting short. On Dec. 31 we reached the pack for the second time, forcing the ship forty miles south to Lat. 70.05 S. From this point we withdrew five miles, to take advantage of open water for a take-off, and on Jan. 3, 1934, made our second flight, this time to Lat. 72.30 S., Long. 116.35 W.

Altogether it was a dramatic flight. Fog closed in, and on the return flight to the ship we had to fly blind part of the way. The air speed indicator froze and the plane was on the verge of icing up. Flying quite

low, we twice burst over huge bergs with barely fifty feet of clearance. Haines, the meteorologist, said when we came aboard the ship, "Well, you fellows certainly stole one that time."

As before, the pack ran to the limit of vision.

Having already overstayed the time allotted for these eastern operations, and still facing the tremendous job of re-establishing the Winter base of Little America, we had no choice but to start the long voyage to the west. We withdrew from the pack and commenced to run along the front of it. Fortunately the wind and current had carried much of the pack out of our path, and, edging southward from the 67th to the 69th parallel, the ship again broke into unknown waters. On Jan. 10, when she stopped to let aviation resume the assault, she had reached Lat. 69.50, Long. 152.21. Here we had our third aerial thrust into the unknown, flying to Lat. 71.45 along the 152d meridian.

G. Caiger's New Book
From Japan to Japan
with some 60 photos
To be published in April

This flight closed the vessel's operations in the eastern sector. She was then steered directly for Little America. But in February, after the ships were unloaded, I was tempted to strike at the heart of the matter with a different weapon and from a new quarter. With Captain English I took the Bear of Oakland on a voyage of exploration. Before the worst sea ice I have ever seen stopped the plucky old ship, we had worked our way northeast to Lat. 73.05 S., Long. 149.30 W., and thence westward to the 159th meridian, so that for all practical purposes the gap between the flight tracks and the known coast was closed.

The significant result of these operations, together with our subsequent explorations in the eastern sector, was to identify a vast area of unknown as Pacific Ocean and extinguish the hypothesis of an archipelago reaching into it.

THE TASK BEGINS

The bitterest task, in facing a wintering problem, is the establishment of the base camp. Luckily for us, the old buildings were available, though the roofs of several had been crushed by the snow; but new buildings had to be built for the larger personnel and a vast amount of stores had to be unloaded from the ships and transported to Little America. A direct approach was barred by impassable pressure ridges. A circuitous trail more than six miles long was cut through the ridges and at one point a ten-foot gap of open water was bridged with telephone poles.

Every ounce of stores—more than 500 tons in all—had to be hauled over that road. Night and day, for three weeks, tractors and dog teams shuttled between the caches. One plane made twenty-six flights to expedite the movement of vital equipment. The period was a white nightmare. Men worked until they dropped. The surging out-rushes of the bay ice menaced the ship, then the stores cached

on the ice, and finally even Little America itself.

Varied Preparations

Still, in spite of these difficulties, on March 1 we were able to free Captain Innes Taylor and a southern party of six men and five dog teams for the vital mission of running a chain of food depots to Lat. 79.56 W. in preparation for the major journeys of the Spring and to dispatch Chief Pilot June and Demas southward with a fleet of four tractors carrying the equipment and stores necessary for the advanced meteorological base we proposed to establish somewhere on the Ross Ice Barrier and for its occupancy throughout the Winter night.

Meanwhile, under the direction of Lieutenant Commander Noville, executive officer of the expedition, a new city was built around old Little America, and, all things considered, it was really a first-class city. It could boast electric light and power, telephones, a well-equipped science laboratory, a first-class weather observation station, a radio station and a broadcasting plant, medical facilities, a machine shop, a tailoring establishment, a carpenter shop, a dairy housing three cows and a bull, and a transportation system geared to the varying gaits of dog teams, tractors and aircraft.

Little America was unique among the cities of the world in the diversification of talents enlisted among a company of forty-six men and in its fortifications against the contingencies latent in isolation. When the recession of ice from the Bay of Whales made it seem possible that even Little America might break out, we built an emergency base called Retreat Camp on the high barrier about three-quarters of a mile to the south-southeast and stocked it with the bare essentials for survival.

Except for the crash and destruction of the Fokker airplane on a test flight and the dramatic appendectomy performed on Pelter, hard upon the alarums and excursions excited by a fire that threatened to destroy the surgical cache, the Fall operations closed uneventfully.

On to the Advance Base

On March 22 I flew to the advance base to occupy the world's southernmost meteorological station, the occupation of which was important to our meteorological and auroral program. Till then most of the data on which our knowledge of the meteorology of Antarctica is founded were collected at stations on the coast or by ships exploring coastal waters. These stations naturally fell within the moderating influence of the ocean. No fixed station had ever been established in the interior, where conditions more truly characteristic or continental meteorology would be expected to prevail.

The advance base was a shack 123 miles by trail south of Little America. It was originally my hope to be able to advance the shack nearer the foot of the Queen Maud Range, 400 miles south, but the delay in discharging the ships, caused by the unusual ice conditions, together with the difficulties in re-establishing Little America, made necessary a change in this plan. Nevertheless, we determin-

“M. 10001 and the Flying Scotsman”

During the recent experimental run from King's Cross, London, to Leeds and back, the London and North Eastern Railway, employing a coal-burning steam locomotive—the “Flying Scotsman” No. 4472, which was shown at the British Empire Exhibition at Wembley—broke all official records for a passenger railway train in Great Britain by reaching a speed of 97½ miles an hour near Essendine on the return journey. During the outward run, the average speed from London to Doncaster, which was 77 miles an hour, equalled that of the oil-fed Diesel electric train, the Flying Hamburger, which runs between Berlin and Hamburg daily at an average speed of 77 miles an hour. The average for the complete outward journey was 73.4 miles an hour. The engine's load was light—about equal to that of a Flying Hamburger service—and consisted of a dynamometer car in which tests were made, a first-class corridor coach, a dining-

car, and a brake van, weighing in all about 147 tons. On the return journey, it having been decided that a steam-driven passenger train could beat Diesel electric trains for speed, and provide for more passengers, two further corridor coaches were added, so that the weight behind the engine came to about 207 tons. Once more the Flying Hamburger's schedule was beaten. As “The Times” pointed out in a most thorough article, the experimental run was not a mere speed test to show what can be done under abnormal conditions: “It was intended rather as a test of the steam locomotive burning coal on a service similar to that now run in foreign countries by oil-fed Diesel locomotives.” The Union Pacific's express “M. 10001” broke American railway records by running from Los Angeles to New York (3334 miles) in 56 hours, 55 minutes, at an average of 62 m.p.h., and with a top speed of 120 m.p.h. over short stretches. The previous Transcontinental record was beaten by 15 hours, 32 minutes.

The Illustrated London News

* America's Need of Sea Power *

By Herbert Corey

Current History, November 1934

Mr. Corey, a war correspondent throughout the World War and now president of the Overseas Writers in Washington, is well qualified to discuss American naval policy by reason of his long and intimate study of the subject. He covered the Washington Arms Conference and has since been in a position to acquire information that enables him to write on naval affairs in an authoritative manner.

This article follows Hector C. Bywater's in this Monthly for November (adapted from Current History for October) which gave a British view of the issues of this year's naval conference and Captain Gumpei Sekine's in the January and February numbers, which presented the Japanese official attitude.

The American attitude at the naval conference in 1935 will be determined by American naval necessities. World problems are again being viewed realistically, as they were in the days of Grover Cleveland and Theodore Roosevelt. Idealism and altruism have been tried and—to be blunt about it—they have not worked. The administration is sincerely desirous of obtaining a reduction in world armament. It is, so far as one can see, backed by majority opinion. But reduction will not be solely at the cost of the United States in 1935. America will not again offer other nations rewards for good behavior. It is not that Americans have turned cynical; they have merely learned to recognize facts.

The preliminary naval conversations in London have already made it abundantly clear that the 1935 conference will centre upon the Pacific problem, although there are other problems to share the attention of the treaty powers. But until the troubled situation in the Far East is cleared up little can be done. Japan has declared that the word “ratio” is offensive to her, and has insisted that the other powers grant her an equality in defense “in principle.” Her reading of this theory appears

ed to advance the shack as far south as the tractors could make it before the onset of Winter jeopardized the crews.

[At the advance post Admiral Byrd spent four and one-half months in solitude, undergoing severe hardships.]

(To be continued)

to be that she shall be granted a sufficient weight of defensive ships to give her the absolute and unchallenged control of Far Eastern waters. At the same time Great Britain and the United States are asked to cut down their present allotment of heavy battleships, both in weight and in numbers. If that proposal were to be accepted it would amount to precisely this: Japan could do as she pleased in Asia and no other power would be in a position even to question her.

That this will be vigorously opposed by the United States is certain. Great Britain presumably will at least in part support the stand of the United States. This position may be traced back to the Washington conference of 1921, though its genesis is of still earlier date.

Of the two accomplishments of the Washington conference, the lesser in importance has had most of the world's attention and the other has been almost forgotten. The striking achievement, brilliant in conception and execution, was the limitation of naval armaments which Secretary of State Hughes generously offered on behalf of America and which was accepted in modified form by the other powers represented at the conference. When this agreement was made a flame of enthusiasm swept across the world. The feet of the nations had, it seemed, been at last set on a path that drew onward and upward. Navies were confidently expected to dwindle into nothingness as time went on. To certain influential

thinkers universal peace seemed to be just around the corner because, according to them, wars take place when men are armed because war may come.

Actually, reduction in armament was made possible at the Washington conference only because the powers concerned had decided to jettison and Anglo-Japanese alliance. No one who was in close touch with the situation in 1921 can forget the days of tense excitement while this question was being debated. The conference had been called and the delegates with their aides were already in Washington. But a delay followed that was at first inexplicable. Then, little by little, from behind the screen of silence maintained by the delegates, it leaked out that unless the Anglo-Japanese alliance were ended the conference would come to nothing.

Great Britain and Japan had for their own purposes made this alliance. But during the World War Japan revealed the policy she has consistently followed toward China and attempted to raid that shapeless and headless country under the banner of her Twenty-one Demands. The Western powers compelled her to withdraw from this position. Although Japan had been of some value to the Allies during the war in protecting commerce on the Eastern seas, when the war ended Great Britain was content to withdraw from the alliance. In urging so strongly that the alliance be voided, the United States was actuated both by motives of sentiment and a natural and laudable desire to increase its commerce. We wanted the doors of China kept open.

Japan consented—and until she did the conference was at a standstill—to end her alliance with Great Britain. But she exacted her full pound of flesh. For a two-power pact Japan obtained a four-power pact. Instead of being the partner of one great nation she became the associate of Great Britain, France and the United States. From second rank she rose to first at a bound. But that was not all. She consented to the 5:5:3 ratio on the assumption, assented to freely by all, that it would give her perfect defense, her geographic position being what it is. The Japanese delegates in addition demanded that the fortification of the Pacific islands be forbidden by the powers holding them as of former right or by mandate. They insisted that Great Britain should stop the fortification of her Hongkong base and that the United States should not further improve the bases at Guam and in the Philippines. Without these bases and without other protection on the islands it would be impossible for the United States to hold the Philippines against a determined attack.

These demands were granted because the Western powers believed that they were thereby making war in the Far East impossible. The sea distances are so great that the absence of effective bases must discourage any prospective belligerent. Britain and America further understood, quite definitely, that the value of this concession to Japan's security was not to be increased by the unlimited building of auxiliary vessels by Japan. But this understanding is now challenged by Captain Gumpei Sekine in January and February

Monthly when he says that the Japanese naval authorities consented to the proposals "with the understanding that we might carry on unlimited building of auxiliary vessels."

In order to obtain for Japan the inestimable gift of perfect security and what amounts to the grant of a free hand in China the United States gave up the naval dominance of the world. At that time the American Navy was becoming the most powerful the world had ever seen. The British Navy was second in point of strength, although burdened by some vessels which were approaching the age of obsolescence. Though the Japanese Navy was new and powerful, it was less than 3 to 5 of ours, but Japan had become so conscious that the Western nations were looking with suspicion upon her adventures in China that she was building at a rate she could not afford financially to maintain for long. There was no naval race between Japan and the United States at this time, as has so often been said, even if both countries were overbuilding, and though friction was growing, there was no apparent danger of war between them.

The 5:5:3 ratio and the consequent naval holiday, which were not possible until the Anglo-Japanese alliance had been ended, reflected the world-wide weariness of war and the restiveness of taxpayers at the thought of continuing to shoulder burdens in peace which they had borne with more or less resignation during the war. The 5:5:3 ratio was adopted solely because it was a rough-and-ready device that avoided the intricacies of each nation's needs and corresponded with each nation's naval strength at the time. In each country a number of ships considered as surplus by the statesmen of the day were lopped off the estimates, so that in relative strength the three nations were left precisely as they were before.

In the decade that followed the United States refused to build up to treaty strength. There was a persistent belief, spread by important, extremely vocal and very well financed societies of pacifists, that if America did not maintain her navy at treaty strength the other nations would presently be overcome by shame and would likewise stop building. Needless to say, no other nation followed the American example. In 1926 President Coolidge tried to rouse their consciences and asked that they meet in Europe to agree upon a formula for further disarmament. The results of that conference were so disheartening that in 1928 Mr. Coolidge announced a program for shipbuilding, and followed it with a note in which he commented bitterly on the unfairness with which America's disarmament suggestions had been received.

During this period Americans did not seem to realize that failure to keep the American navy built up to treaty strength had dislocated the disarmament agreement of 1921, for which the world gave the United States almost exclusive credit. Theodore Roosevelt's advice had been forgotten. We were walking softly but we had thrown away our big stick. No one listened to us in international conference.

In 1933 a change took place in the American attitude, as represented by the

administration and by popular opinion. Americans again became conscious of sea power. This is seen in many ways. The talk in public places is almost invariably resentful of the weakness into which the United States has fallen on the seas. When President Roosevelt asked for generous support for his program to rebuild the navy, it was granted by Congress with what amounted to enthusiasm. Representative Vinson, author of the bill which provided for the first long forward step toward a stronger navy, declared on the floor of the House that if the other nations would not disarm with us we would build with them: "Our past negligence is not to be taken as a prophecy. We will match them ship for ship and gun for gun."

Congress, always in close contact with the voters back home, would not have maintained this new enthusiasm for the American navy without certainty of voter support. In 1933 and 1934 laws were enacted and orders issued that will bring the navy to its full treaty strength by the end of 1942. Until then it must lag sadly behind the British and the Japanese. Great Britain will have built to treaty strength at approximately the end of the treaty period. Japan now is practically built to treaty strength.

(To be continued)

The B.B.C. 1934

By C. Henry Warren

(Continued from Feb. Number)

But if radio drama itself has not progressed far, there is an off-shot of this particular branch of broadcast entertainment which has shown considerable development during the last year. I refer to "Feature Programmes." These items are in the charge of Mr. Laurence Gilliam, a comparatively new addition to the staff of the Dramatic Department at Broadcasting House. His work is notable for a freshness and zest that are particularly welcome. One memorable feature programme of his was the composite picture of a day in the Kentish hop-gardens, which was composed almost entirely of records made on the spot: singing over the bins, the tallyman on his rounds, arrival of hops at the oasts, a convivial evening at the local pub and so on. These programmes may be expensive to produce but they are eminently worth while: they constitute one of the liveliest avenues of development in recent broadcasting and deserve every encouragement.

Outside broadcasts had a particularly busy summer, their efforts ranging from Test Match relays, which surely would have revealed a record number of listeners, and Wimbledon eyewitness accounts, to the usual bombast from the Military Tournaments with which this country yearly gives the lie to the pacific pronouncements of its statesmen.

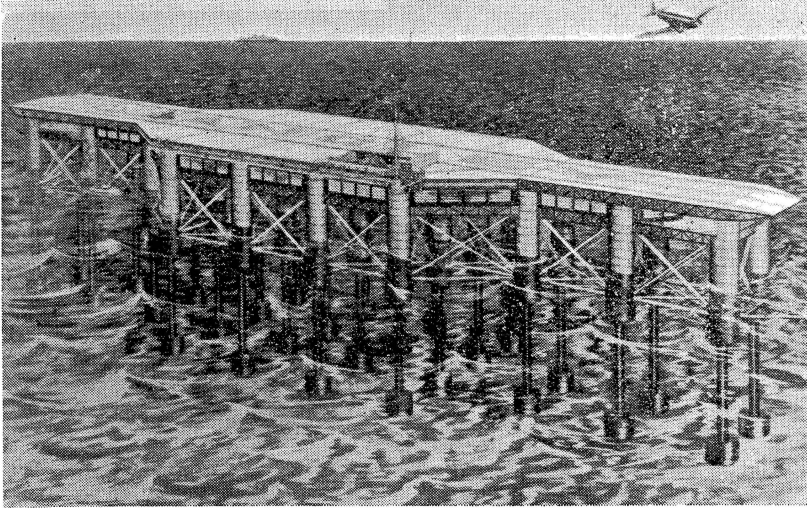
Perhaps the engineering developments at Broadcasting House have come home

to the average listener most easily by way of the foreign relays. Gone are those days when voices over the sea came to us on the wings of a continual thunderstorm. It is nothing for the Announcer of to-day to switch over to Rome without a moment's delay so that we may hear somebody amplify at first-hand the news of (let us say) Mussolini's latest fascist celebration, in a voice as clear as that of the Announcer himself. And we rush to our seats at eight o'clock in the morning, confident that the B.B.C. will not disappoint us of its promise to relay from Australia the broadcast of Scott's arrival in Melbourne. As for music from the Continent, we accept opera from Vienna and serenades from Salzburg as if they were certainly our due. Never was armchair travel so near the real thing.

And what about the talks? The regular series of serious talks continue their grave and dignified way. I doubt whether these talks are listened to with the zest they sometimes deserve: we are still a long way behind the Americans in our enthusiasm for lectures—though some would maintain that this was a good thing. Nevertheless the B.B.C. informs us that last winter there were fifteen hundred listening groups in touch with Broadcasting House, so that even if nobody else were to listen to these particular talks I suppose they may be considered a success. Education is necessarily the key-note of most of them and there is no doubt they are doing much not only to make us a well-informed nation, but also, since their general tendency is to amplify the statement of a problem by a detailed consideration of its history and background, to make us an intelligent nation. Such a series as "Poverty in Plenty," which includes among its contributors Messrs. Orage, Keynes, and J. A. Hobson, or "Freedom and Authority in the Modern World," sponsored by Mr. C. R. M. F. Cruttwell, may make tough listening but it is worth the effort. A similar thoroughness distinguishes the broadcast talks to schools. I leave aside now the vexed question as to how far a child can or even ought to be taught by wireless. The B.B.C. believes it can and should; and so believing, sets about the matter with a conviction and determination which many recognised educational bodies would do well to copy. Witness, for instance, the series of twelve imposing pamphlets (at two-pence a time) which have been issued for the present term: in layout and contents and illustrations they knock the average school literature into a cocked hat. Again of course it is largely a matter of having the necessary money to play with. But apart from educational talks, whether for adults or for children, there remain the topical and "occasional" talks. These are less satisfactory. It would seem that the B.B.C. has yet to learn to acquire the necessary journalistic touch. I am not suggesting cheapness or vulgarity in any form; but the kind of brisk, coloured and well-informed journalism which the newspapers so deplorably lack and which broadcasting might well revive for us.

On the whole then it may be said that although the present programmes may reveal less of that courage and adventur-

LANDING-GROUNDS ON THE OCEAN



A seadrome in service after it has been anchored; showing the deck, the space for hotel and other accommodation, and the water-ballasted pillars 208 ft. below sea-level, with their buoyance chambers 40 ft. below sea-level.

Anchored some five or six hundred miles apart, seadromes of the type illustrated here would revolutionise cross-ocean flying, for they would make it possible for passenger-carrying aeroplanes to operate on routes now necessarily confined to "lone" flyers or, at most, to aeroplanes carrying a modest crew: instead of a long and hazardous non-stop flight across the North Atlantic, for example, there would be a series of five "hops." Let it be noted, then, that each of the Armstrong "seadromes" would cost about £1,000,000, this sum including towing and anchorage. The United States Navy Department has approved the building of the first, and has recommended that the Seadrome Ocean Dock Corporation should receive a loan of £1,600,000 for the construction of a seadrome to be placed on a New York-Bermuda air route. Thus the possibilities of the proposed North Atlantic series of five seadromes are likely to be tested. The length of the flight deck would be 1500 feet, with a width of 300 feet at the centre. With fuel, ballast, water for drink-

ing, etc., the total weight would be over 65,000 tons. Support would be by means of 32 pillars resting on flotation chambers 40 ft. below water, and below these would be other cylinders, each based on a ballast tank 208 feet below the surface. "In this arrangement," as "The Times" pointed out "the centre of gravity is well below the centre of buoyancy, with the result that there is virtually no change in the buoyancy of the seadrome, no matter what changes there may be in the displacement of the pillars. Actually only 2 per cent. of the structure is subject to wave action. . . . Provision has been made to apply power to the seadrome primarily for the purpose of keeping it head-to-wind in case of emergency. In the ordinary course, the seadrome, moored to an anchored buoy, is automatically kept in the proper position for up-wind landings. It is fitted with vanes which will keep it in this position when the wind strength is 15 miles an hour or more. Four electric motors are available to provide power for propellers should currents or other circumstances render the vanes ineffective." The suggested method of anchoring, it should be added, is such that, there would be no direct pull by the seadrome on the anchor. The seadrome would be moored to a buoy, and this would be attached to a steel and concrete anchor at any depth up to 3½ miles. The pull on the seadrome would be almost horizontal; while the buoy would take the direct anchor-strain.

(The Illustrated London News)

The Drama of ★ ★ ★ the Pacific

Being a Treatise on the Immediate Problems which Face Japan in the Pacific

濤騒ぐ太平洋

By Major R. V. C. Bodley

With Illustrations and Map. Price 2.00

Postage 10 sen, in Japan.

The Bookman, London, Dec. 1934

Port Chester Considers Ordering Cows to Leave

Port Chester, N. Y., Dec. 5:—

A committee of the Port Chester Village Board studied today a recommendation of Trustee Samuel La Rosa that the local laws be amended to prohibit the keeping of cows within the village limits.

The recommendation followed a debate over the behavior of a cow owned by Lincoln Acker of 18 South Regent Street. Saverine Bubico of 22 South Regent Street complained to the board last night that the cow was a nuisance, its early morning mooing keeping him awake.

Dr. Joseph Schofield, assistant health officer, said there was nothing in the law to prevent the keeping of a "well-behaved cow" within the village limits. Trustee John Rheinfrank brought up the question whether mooing at 5 A. M. by the Acker cow was good bovine behavior.

Action on Mr. La Rosa's recommendation is expected within a few weeks.

Praise for Japan

The Sunday Times, London

Plea for Alliance with Britain

By S. Leslie

Major Bodley is an English officer who has gone over in whole-hearted fashion to the Japanese. He neither likes nor dislikes them. He simply admires them. All facilities have been placed at his service, and they have not prevented him reaching his own conclusions about the mighty drama he sees being played by the international actors in the Pacific: "Russia and China are popular with the gallery: the stalls favour England and Japan. The dress circle has a penchant for the United States."

We read first-hand accounts of what Japan is doing with her Mandates, and how she is administering the South Seas, which were her reward for being on the side of the Allies. In the drama of the Pacific the South Sea Islanders barely count even as a chorus. The Japanese are educating them, but Major Bodley thinks that the clothes introduced by the missionaries are causing their slow destruction. As a rather startling result, the areas of the Japanese Mandates will soon be inhabited only by the Japanese.

Major Bodley compares, for their historical importance in the East, the blowing up of the Maine and the destruction of the Mukden Railway. Far-reaching were the results in both cases.

Major Bodley has very serious ideas as to what should be done in the East. He thinks it is only Japan that stands to-day between the Soviet and the control of Asia. What he hopes can be expressed in equally simple terms:

A watertight Anglo-Japanese Alliance could ensure the peace of the world and establish that balance of power which Great Britain has always looked for.

"A Founder of Modern Japan"

*The Times Literary Supplement, Thursday
January 17, 1935*

"The Sage of Mita," as he was commonly called by his countrymen towards the close of his career, dictated this autobiography at the request of his friends in 1896, shortly after Japan's victorious war with China, and it was first published as a serial in his newspaper, the Jiji-shinpo, in 1898, three years before his death. The present translation is the work of one of his grandsons, now a teacher of English at the University of Keio, which grew out of Fukuzawa's famous school. Professor Koizumi, President of Keio, contributes an introduction, in which he pays tribute to the memory of "the man to whom Japan owes to-day's civilization," and emphasizes the historic significance of his life's work during the closing period of the Tokugawa Shogunate and throughout the greater part of the Meiji era. Professor Koizumi considers that "in style, in attractiveness of contents and in importance as a document of the times and the man," this autobiography should be recognized as a masterpiece worthy of mention in comparison with the most notable examples of the world's autobiographical literature. To the Western reader it should certainly appeal as an unusually interesting human document, if only because it opens a door which is generally closed by reason of the reticence and repression of all feeling imposed upon the Japanese by their social conventions, based on the philosophy of the samurai. It allows the reader to share the innermost thoughts and the private life of one who combined rare independence of character and intolerance of the mental fetters of feudalism with deep love of his native land and lifelong devotion to its service. Towards the close of his career Fukuzawa confesses that, although sociable by nature, he had never in his life been able to make a heart-to-heart fellowship with any of his friends or to open himself completely to the confidence of others. In this book he has done so in full measure.

Told with remarkable frankness and modesty, the tale of his life is that of a very brave, yet ever gentle, man who, at great personal risk and wholly without personal ambitions, devoted himself, often quite alone, to the task of educating his countrymen to a sense of Japan's real position in the world and to the need of safeguarding her threatened independence as a nation by adopting the culture and acquiring the armaments of the West. Sustained by an unswerving faith in his mission, during long years of poverty, peril and hard toil, he preached without ceasing, in his school and in his books, the doctrine of "Independence and Self-respect," and in the end came to be recognized and beloved, not only as a great thinker and educationist but as a leader of men and a champion of popular rights. He lived to see and to enjoy the fruits of his labours. After the Restoration and the opening of Japan to the world, it was his dream "to form a great nation in this far Orient, which would stand counter to Great Britain in the West, and take an active part in the progress of the whole world." And in the end, when Japan had proved

herself worthy to take rank among the Great Powers, he rejoiced that his ambition had been attained.

In his private life the Sage of Mita, as he reveals himself in these pages, with all his likes and dislikes, must have been a very lovable man. He had an instinctive love of clean living and of his own roof tree, a horror of debt, a great inclination (which at the age of thirty-four he curbed) towards strong liquor, a strong dislike of pedantry and conventionality in scholars, and of heated arguments. Having trained himself in his youth "to receive both applause and disparagement politely, but never to allow himself to be moved by either," he could say at the end of his days that "He had never been truly angry in his life or touched a person in anger."

"A Japanese Pioneer"

*The Manchester Guardian, Manchester
January 9, 1935*

The reader of this autobiography will find himself constantly marvelling at a spirit of rare independence. Fukuzawa Yukichi was born into a Samurai family in 1835—long before Japan was forced to open her ports to the West. All the natural influences which surrounded him were of the old feudal discipline of Japan, with its exclusive and anti-foreign tradition. Yet he seemed to find no difficulty in disengaging himself from all such mental limitations. He was essentially a pioneer. By means of private experiments as a child he soon satisfied

himself that the gods were fallible and that no heavenly vengeance followed acts of sacrilege. A self-reliant young man emerged with a passion for foreign languages and the science and "gunnery" which could be learned through them. Suspected by Shogunate and Imperialists alike, and in danger of assassination either as an advanced thinker or a reactionary in turn, he went serenely on his self-appointed way, first as a student, then as a teacher, till the day when he became the head of his own university, now acknowledged as one of the most powerful influences in modern Japan.

Fukuzawa was a product of the nineteenth century. He appreciated the marvels which science had accomplished for Europe, and was content to pin his faith to this new learning. He foresaw none of the problems which were to arise so soon after his death in 1901. That would be to expect too much.

His story makes excellent reading and, above all, provides a good background for anyone who wishes to understand how Japan reacted to her first contacts with modern Europe—so differently from her neighbour across the Yellow Sea. E.W.M.

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TRANSLATED BY
Eiichi Kiyooka

WITH AN INTRODUCTION BY
Shinzo Koizumi
President of Keio University

Here is the life of a great leader of new Japan who, in the age when Japan was in bewilderment with her ports suddenly visited by the Western peoples, taught her the true spirit of the Western civilization, and showed how this nation ought to be reorganized to meet the new age; and who made a fortune by simply being a successful writer—founded a university—also a newspaper—and financed them both single-handed. A loving father, a hearty friend, and a possessor of noble character. His name seems to hold a special meaning to all Japanese people.



盛は自に新べら海りが本見生のし本精本作文く言も感ら傳着英
る新傳盛しきれ外で讀なるを意での神書と學世は泉の興亦はた語
!感・らきだてになむど維通氣の新新・し中界れ塾がの新何福の
興夫れ章!!然傳くば我新じ・先覺興義て一自る長あ湧なか翁衣
をれた袋 るへてか々日て先生と日塾の傑傳如のるくるし自を

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Lafcadio Hearn in aller Welt

„Prager Presse“, Czecho-Slovakia

Dem Wahl-Japaner Yakumo Koizumi, der als Lafcadio Hearn das japanische Land und Volk besungen hat, ist ein durch japanisch-amerikanische Zusammenarbeit entstandenes literarisches Denkmal gewidmet, das bibliophil ausgestattete Werk: „Lafcadio Hearn. A bibliography of his writings“ von P. D. und Ione Perkins, mit einem Vorwort von Sanki Ichikawa. (444 Seiten mit Handschriftproben usw. In 200 nummerierten Exemplaren fuer die Lafcadio Hearn-Gesellschaft gedruckt. The Hokusaido Press, Tokyo.) Lafcadio Hearn hat ein Japan geschildert, das heute bereits der Vergangenheit angehört. Aber die „Seele Japans“, wie sie sich dem Engländer offenbart hat, lebt weiter. Nur die Oberfläche hat sich, wie im Vorwort ausgeführt wird, gewandelt. In diesem Sinne hat Lafcadio Hearn's Lebenswerk nach wie vor universale Bedeutung. Die vorliegende Bibliographie befasst sich zunächst detailliert mit den seltenen Erstausgaben der

Werke Lafcadio Hearn's und einiger Bücher, die Originalbeiträge Hearn's enthalten. Ungemein reichhaltig ist der Abschnitt „Übersetzungen“. Die Japaner besitzen Hearn's gesammelte Werke in siebzehn Bänden. Hierzu gesellen sich zahlreiche Einzelausgaben, Auswahlbände usw. Die deutsche Ausgabe (mit dem Buchschmuck von Emil Orlik) ist bekannt. Weniger bekannt die Tatsache, dass Hearn's „Japanische Geistergeschichten“ von Gustav Meyrink uebertragen worden sind. In tschechischer Uebersetzung liegen fuer fuenf Bücher Lafcadio Hearn's vor (darunter zwei verschiedene „Kwaidan“-Editionen). In Frankreich, Schweden, Daenemark, Finnland, Spanien, Italien, Polen, Russland, Holland und Ungarn und schliesslich sogar in jiddischer Uebersetzung sind Werke Hearn's herausgekommen. Der weitere Teil der Bibliographie verzeichnet die in Buchform oder in Zeitschriften und Zeitungen erschienenen Monographien und Aufsätze ueber Lafcadio Hearn, dessen Leben sein Sohn Kazuo Koizumi in japanischer Sprache geschildert hat. (fm)

古い切抜帳から

中 土 生

松江に於ける小泉八雲先生の舊居は市河博士を始め他の諸名士の御盡力により昨年九月建設された「八雲記念館」と共に國際的日本名所の一として永久保存されることになった。

つい先頃私は古い切抜帳をあきつて居たら大正十一年の「朝日夏季特別號」の中から

故厨川白村博士の

小泉先生の舊居

と題する次の記事を見つけた。
◆日本を見物に来る西洋人のうちには、日本人の全く知らない所を、やつとの事でも尋ねて、あの不愉快な山陰線の汽車に乗つて、見に行く人が、殊に近頃は多い。それどころか、はるばる太平洋のかなたから(小泉八雲)先生の遺跡を訪はるが爲にのみ日本に來遊する外人もあるのだ。現に、このたび米國で先生の全集刊行の舉あるに際して、松江時代の舊居の寫眞を撮らんが爲め、かの國からわざわざ出かけて來た人さへあるではないか。
◆あの孫世の名文を以て日本を世界に紹介せられた先生の遺跡を保護しやうともせず、先生の功に報ゆるに殆ど何事をも盡してゐない日本人の無知と忘恩とを見て、快からず思つてゐる西洋人の多いのは、まことに無理のない事だと思ふ。先生にはあの十數卷の名著がある。英語の滅びざる限り『ラフカディオ・オ・ハン』の文名は世界に不朽なるのだから、其遺跡などを保護しやうが、しまいが、今は世になき先生のために寸毫の利するところはあるまい。唯だ日本人として果してそれで済むものだらうか。文藝の尊威を解せざる其無知とその忘恩とを、世界に廣告して、恥だとも思はないのだらうか。

◆日本に於ける先生の舊居の地としては、此松江のほかは、熊本時代のまれば、また現在未亡人の住まつて居られる東京の大久保の邸もある。しかしこの出雲の地は日本に歸化せられた先生に取つては特殊の意味がある。天外萬里漂浪の孤客として、その頃はまだよく内情を世界に知られてなかつた遠い日本の、しかもまた山陰の片ほとり、夢と影との神話の都に來て、そこで舊藩士の女小泉氏を娶られた。英米の社會からは全く踏躓し去つて、突如として此地から、あの最大の名著『日本管見記』二卷を公にせられたのだ。作者は果して何處にある如何なる人ぞと、かなたの文壇の驚異となり、はては「ラフカディオ・オ・ハン」その人の實在をすらすら疑はれた時があつた。先生と同じく近世散文の巨匠であるロバート・ルイス・ステイヴンソンも、故國蘇格蘭を出てからは足跡天下にあまねく、米國の桑港で結婚してのち、太平洋をさまよひ、はてはサモアの島に世を終るまで、後の研究者はその足跡を辿るのに没頭してゐる。わたくしは松江に於ける先生のこの舊居の地が、南洋のサモアに於けるステイヴンソン終焉の地のごとくに、今後は益々多くの文學巡禮者の驚嘆と好奇の念を惹く事であらうと思ふ。

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小泉八雲の横顔

一 次 目 一

1、藏書より見たる八雲。 2、藏書の餘白に記入されたる短評。 3、教師としての八雲。 4、ヘルンと蟲。 5、ヘルンと狐。 6、少年のヘルン觀。 7、八雲の舊居。 8、八雲先生第二十五回忌追悼文。 9、書簡より見たる八雲。 10、あとがき。

編輯室から

バード少将が一九三三年十月二十三日百二十名の人員を率ゐる四臺の飛行機と百五十匹の犬を搭載し二隻の古船に分乗して南極地に向つてから一年有半に亘つて居るが、今や其探險の事業を了へて近く米本國に歸着しようとして居る。前途に上る時や歸國の時華々しからうが、一年以上も雪と氷と空ばかり相手にした一行の仕事は辛かつたに違ひない。特に嘗てバード少将自身の如き單身飛行機を驅つて前進根據地に至つてから只だ一人飢餓と寒氣と闘ひ乍ら四ヶ月半を過ぎた事がある。何と云ふ剛氣だらう。科學に奉ずる殉教者の魂を此處に見出すものである。一行の中には科學者も多かつたのであるから、相當收穫も多かつたであらうが、費したものに對する可視的速成的結實を要求する人士には空の浪費としか映じないかも知れない。嘗て一部に批難或は罵詈の言辭の弄されたのは此事を示して餘りある。然し我等は其成果の多少を問はず、此殉教者の努力丈に對しても敬意を拂ふものであり、科學の進歩が可視的であると否とを問はず黙々として着實に此等の舉に依つて齎らされつゝあるを確信するものである。バード少将の四ヶ月半の單身籠城に就ては少将自ら謙虛にして其電報中に語つて居ないが他の人の筆に成る所を號を遣うて掲載する事にしたいと思ふ。

日英米三國間の軍縮豫備會談は御承知の如く流産的に終つたが、問題は此れからである。本誌は曩に日英兩國の對軍縮態度を各専門家の筆になつた論文を轉載して讀者諸氏にお目につけたが、本號から引續いて米國側の主張を轉載する事にした。外國の立場をよりよく知る事は自らの立場をよりよく知る事である。此意味に於て無駄でないと思ふ。昨年中の B.B.C. の記事は本號を以て完結する。流行的記事ではあるが、流線型列車の話を載せて置いた。新規計畫として大西洋上に飛行機着陸場を設置しようとして居る話の記事を載せて置いた。此の計畫は既に前からしばしば報道せられた所であるが今度は愈々米國海軍省が其建設に賛意を表して居る。大西洋上に空の宿場が出来るのも單に時間の問題だらう。

お陰を以て出版部の本が愈々益々諸外國に擴まりつゝある。チェツコ・スロヴァキヤのプラーク・プレツモ紙が Lafcadio Hearn in Aller Welt (=Lafcadio Hearn in all the World) なる題目にパーキンス氏著小泉八雲書誌を批評して呉れたが、其題は取つて以て逆に「ヘルンが世界に」益々擴まつて行きつゝある事を表示する文句であらう。英國新聞界の雄ロンドン・タイムス紙とマンチェスター・ガーザン紙が英文福翁自傳を批評して、タイムスが「歐米人に取つて異常なる興味を與ふる人間的記録であり」感情的抑制と沈黙に依つて閉されて居る日本人の

心理に對して戸を開くものであると稱し、ガーザン紙が此語は優れたる讀物を提供し日本人が初めて歐米人と接觸した當時如何にリアクトしたかを了解せんとする人に對して良き背景を提供す、と評したのは至言である。ホードレイ少佐の The Drama of the Pacific はレスリイ氏に依つてサンディ・タイムス紙上に一段に亘つて批評せられたが其中から拔萃してお目にかける事とした。出版部では最近松岡朝子女士史に依つて書かれた「奈良の寶庫」を出版した。女士史は紐育博物館の研究員として和洋甲冑其他の比較研究に絶好の機會を持たれたる人で、此方面に於て外國人のために日本の文化を語るべく恐らく数少い中の最適者一人であらう。日本文化紹介のために御紹介を乞ふ所である。

出版部の高等英文教科書は益々信用を高めて居ます、出版部では其編纂に當つて最善の注意と時代の要求に適應したものをを選び、出來得る限り學生諸君の負擔を輕からしむるやうに努力して居ることは既に定評ある所であります。今年も安價にして而かも内容の優秀なものを數點發行し、既に準備が整つて居りますから精々御用命あらんことをお願い申します。

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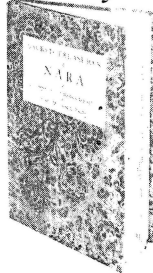
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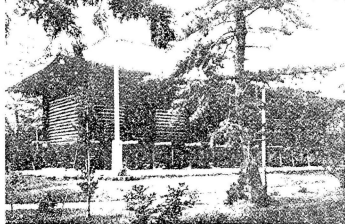
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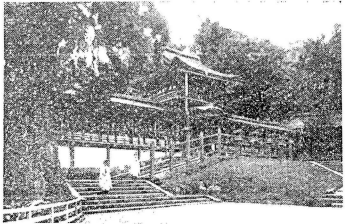


The cover is a photograph of a carpet in Shoso-in collection

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