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I. TERRITORIAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE BALLTIC STATES, 1940-1951

The "Sovietization" of territorial-administrative organization in the three Baltic Republics¹, which began in 1940, was completely achieved during 1949 and 1950. Within Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania the civil divisions now conform to the Soviet pattern of oblasts, rayons, and selsovets. The last remnants of the old territorial-administrative systems were eliminated in Latvia on 31 December 1949, in Estonia on 26 September 1950, and in Lithuania on 20 June 1950. The principal aims of the Soviet reorganization appear to have been to discourage local tradition and nationalism in the interest of Soviet nationalism, to expedite administration and control, and to promote the Bol'shevik agrarian reform (collectivization. etc.).

The accompanying maps (CIA 11824, 11825, and 11829) illustrate the current territorial-administrative organization in the three Baltic states. For all of the countries, administrative centers are located, but information adequate for mapping internal boundaries is available only for Latvia.

The gradual alignment with the Soviet structure has been progressing, step by step, since 1940. The first step was a revision of administrative terminology.² Although internal territorial units

^{1.} The United States has not recognized the incorporation of any of the Baltic states into the USSR.

^{2.} Much of the information for this summary was provided by the Air Studies Division of the Library of Congress.

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were at first left intact, the old Tsarist administrative terms uyezd¹ and volost were revived and used by the Soviets instead of local or Russianized forms of local terminology. The Tsarist terms were applied in all three Republics even though their administrative subdivisions were not comparable.

In Latvia, changes were at first limited to terminology. In Estonia and Lithuania, where the minor civil divisions were considerably smaller, a sharp reduction in the number of secondorder units soon followed in an attempt to make the administrative divisions of the three countries more nearly comparable. The problem in Lithuania was further complicated by a succession of international territorial transfers, which made adjustments in both international and internal boundaries necessary.

More drastic steps in the Sovietization were delayed until 1944-45. During the turbulent period of the German occupation from 1941 to 1944, territorial administration of the Baltic States reverted in general to its prewar status. When the Soviets re-entered the area, they revived the programs of assimilation with increased vigor. Important towns and cities were designated as separate administrative units and placed directly under the control of a republic or a uyezd, depending on their economic significance; the

1. The Russian terms uyezd (uyezdy), volost' (volosti)' oblast' (oblasti), rayon (rayony), okrug (okruga), kray (kraya), and sel'skiy sovet or sel'sovet (sel'skiye sovety or sel'sovety) will hereafter be given in their anglicized forms.

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typical Soviet settlements structure with selsovets and workers' settlements was introduced; and internal administrative boundaries were progressively adjusted to make the units conform more nearly in size to their established counterparts in the Soviet Union. Old administrative boundaries at all levels appear to have been disregarded when they interfered with the programs of rural reform and collectivization.

An outline of the progression of Sovietization in each of the Baltic Republics follows. For each Republic, changes and modifications introduced are divided according to five periods: the period of independence, the first Soviet occupation, the German occupation, the Soviet re-occupation, and the complete reorganization that began on 31 December 1949.1

1. For use in working with maps, statistics, and other data for the period of transition from 1940 to 1951, a detailed tabulation of administrative units for each of the periods is in preparation and will be issued as a Working Paper.

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Latvia

The major territorial divisions of Latvia during the period of independence were the 4 <u>apgabali</u> and 19 <u>aprinki</u>. Historically the <u>apgabali</u> (provinces) were Latvian tribal kingdoms. During the period 1924-39, they were of general regional significance only and had no administrative functions. The <u>aprinki</u>, or districts, were the first-order rural administrative divisions under the republic. They also are historical in origin, having developed around the cities for which they were named. The administrative body of each <u>aprinkis</u> was directly subordinate to the Ministry of Internal Affairs but had fairly complete responsibility for activities within its territory, including some judiciary functions.

The <u>pagasts</u>, or rural community, was the basic unit of Latvia's local government. Like <u>apgabali</u> and <u>aprinki</u>, the <u>pagasti</u> are the result of historical evolution, having developed around feudal manors. <u>Pagasti</u> were smallest and most numerous in the most highly cultivated areas. Each <u>pagasts</u> had elected officers, a rural court, clerk, etc. The Latvian Republic included 517 <u>pagasti</u> ranging in population from less than 500 inhabitants to more than 10,000 -the majority had between 1,000 and 5,000.

The four principal cities of Latvia (Riga, Liepaja, Ventspils, and Daugavpils) were self-governing units with special rights similar to those of <u>aprinki</u>. These and 55 other self-governing cities were called <u>pilsetas</u>. The administration in all 59 cities was directly subordinate to the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Approved For Release 2000/04/17 : CIA-RDP79-01005A000100210004-8

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During the period of the first Soviet occupation of Latvia (1940-41), internal boundaries were little changed. The Soviets were interested chiefly in establishing Latvia as a Soviet Republic and in replacing the Latvian administrative personnel with temporary Communist administrators. They did, however, make several adjustments in the territorial-administrative organization. <u>Apgabali</u> were totally ignored; the 19 <u>aprinki</u> and their centers were retained, but the term uyezd was applied to them in all Russianlanguage literature; <u>pagasti</u> also were left intact -- but were renamed volosts. The 59 <u>pilsetas</u>, or city administrations, were retained. The four cities with special rights were made directly subordinate to the republic; the city of Yelgava became the fifth city of republic subordination. The other 54 cities were placed under uyezd administration.

When the Germans entered the area in 1941, they reinstated the pre-1940 aprinki and pagasti with their administrative organs. For the purpose of supervision by the military government, regions corresponding to the former <u>apgabali</u> were established. Kurzeme, Zemgale, and Latgale were renamed Liepaja, Jelgava, and Daugavpils, respectively. The Apgabals of Vidzems was divided between the Valmiera and Riga regions; the city of Riga formed a region in itself.

In 1945, when the Soviets re-entered Latvia, they resumed the process of Sovietization where they had left off in 1941. Information concerning the progressive changes is available only through study of the periodically published lists showing the number of divisions.

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These lists reveal several important trends:

1. Selsovets, or village councils, were introduced in 1945. In the Soviet system the selsovet is the organ of state authority in the villages and their associated lands. It directs the economic, cultural, and political development in the rural communities. Between 1 August and 19 December 1945, selsovets were established in the volosts of all the uyezds of Latvia.

2. The number of uyezds was increased and the number of volosts slightly decreased in an apparent effort to centralize control and to make each division more nearly an economic unit.

3. All cities except the five of republic subordination were placed under the supervision of the uyezds:

As of 31 December 1949, the territorial-administrative organization of Latvia was totally revised to make it conform to the Soviet pattern. In the reorganization the uyezds and volosts as administrative units were entirely disregarded and were replaced by 58 newly established rayons (see map CIA 11825). Each of the former uyezds was apportioned among two to six of the new rayons, which are about half the size of the former uyezds. Of the new rayons, 32 are made up solely of a part of one former uyezd, 17 others contain areas from two former uyezds, and 9 include parts of three former uyezds. The majority of the new rayon boundaries follow older boundaries of some type (often parishes), but some entirely new boundaries were drawn, particularly in the southeastern zone. Of the 58 rayon centers, 25 were formerly uyezd

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centers, 19 were cities or towns that had not been uyezd centers, and 14 were villages. All of the 14 villages that became rayon centers under the decree of 31 December 1949 were redesignated as "workers' settlements" in February 1950. By definition, a "workers' settlement" must include an adult population of no fewer than 400, with a minimum of 65 percent as wage earners. In this way a distinction is made between agricultural and industrial villages.

The essential unit which the Soviet's carried over from the pre-1950 organization was the selsovet, which had been introduced in Latvia in 1945 and which is a basic element in the Soviet structure for economic, cultural, and political administration. Since 1947 the number of selsovets has remained approximately constant. The new rayons include from 16 to 34 selsovets each, in most cases about 25. The total number of selsovets under the new system is approximately 1,360.

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Estonia

In pre-1940 Estonia the largest of four types of selfadministering units was the <u>maakond</u> (district). The units of subordinate rank were the <u>vald</u> (rural commune), <u>linn</u> (city) and <u>alev</u> (borough). All functioned independently of the central government, which could intervene only in questions of constitutional legality. Within the <u>maakonnad</u>, of which there were 11, the <u>vallad</u> were comparable in function to the <u>pagasti</u> of Latvia. In 1938, there were 396 <u>vallad</u> in Estonia. The <u>linnad</u> and <u>alevid</u>, though including a much smaller area than the rural communes, contained 31 percent of the total population in 1934. At that time, Estonia included 19 linnad and 17 alevid.

During the first Soviet period, Estonia became a Soviet Socialist Republic, and the old administrative bodies were replaced with temporary Communist executive committees. The <u>maakonnad</u> were retained, but the term uyezd was applied to them by the Soviets. Neither their names nor centers were changed. The term volost was applied to the Estonian <u>vallad</u>, or rural communes, and their number was reduced by about one-third in the process of making them conform more nearly in size to the Soviet rayons. Such consolidations took place in all uyezds except Petserskiy. Four cities (Tallin, Narva, Pyarnu, and Tartu) were designated as cities of republic subordination, adopting the classification used in the

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Soviet Union. The 15 remaining <u>linned</u> and all 17 of the <u>alevid</u> were considered to be of sufficient economic importance to become cities of uyezd subordination.

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As in the case of Latvia, the Germans on entering Estonia in 1941 reinstated the pre-1940 administrative system. For the purpose of surveillance over the self-administering units, however, the occupation government divided Estonia into six regions, each under a <u>Generalkommissar</u>. These regions were centered at Kuressaare, Parnu, Petseri, Rakvere, Tallin, and Tartu.

Upon reoccupation by the Soviets in 1945, territorial administration was returned to its status immediately prior to the German occupation.

The first major change thereafter was the transfer of most of Petserskiy Uyezd and the part of Viruskiy Uyezd east of the Narva River to the Leningrad Oblast, RSFSR. Vyruskiy Uyezd probably received the four remaining volosts from the Petserskiy Uyezd, which was dissolved. Selsovets were introduced into Estonia, and the volosts were subdivided into selsovets in all of the uyezds. With few exceptions, the 637 selsovets established by 1946 seem to have persisted even through the 1950 reorganization.

Settlements of urban type (<u>poselki garodskogo tipa</u>) were differentiated in about half of the uyezds, and one city (Paldiskiy) was elevated to the position of direct subordination to the republic. Urban rayons were established within the city of Tallin.

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During the period 1946-47 the Khiumaskiy Uyezd was established from part of the Lyayaneskiy Uyezd (center formerly at Kaapsalu). The number of volosts remained unchanged, but one additional selsovet was established, one town was elevated to the rank of uyezd subordination, and several settlements were recognized as of urban type.

After 1947 the two new uyezds of Yygevamaskiy and Yykhvimaskiy were established. The major portion, if not all, of Yygevamaskiy Uyezd had formerly belonged to Tartuskiy Uyezd, whereas the major portion of Yykhvimaskiy Uyezd was formerly part of Viruskiy Uyezd (center at Rakvere). The number of volosts and selsovets in the Vil'yandimiskiy, Khar'yumaskiy (center at Tallin), and Yarvamaskiy (center at Payde) uyezds was reduced, apparently as a result of consolidation.

One city (Kokhtla-Yarve, the shale mining center) was elevated to the rank of republic subordination, and four settlements were newly designated as settlements of urban type.

Following the 26 September 1950 territorial-administrative reorganization in Estonia, all administrative units above the selsovet level were abolished. The 8 uyezds containing 236 volosts were replaced by 39 rayons. The selsovets, the number of which was not changed, were apportioned among the new rayons. All of the former uyezd centers were retained as rayon centers, which include 26 cities, 8 settlements of urban type, and 5 villages.

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Lithuania

The first-order civil division of the independent Republic of Lithuania was the <u>apskritis</u> (district), which had administrative duties similar to the <u>aprinki</u> of Latvia, but with less autonomy. The country was divided into 23 <u>apskrity</u>, which together included 365 <u>valsciai</u>, or rural communities, which in turn consisted of small administrative units known as <u>seniunijos</u>, or "senior groups." Two classes of cities were distinguished -- those directly subordinate to the republic and those subordinate to the <u>apskrity</u> but taking part in the <u>apskritis</u> administration. This city organization resembled that of the Soviet Union.

Unlike the other Baltic republics, the boundaries of Lithuania did not remain constant during the period of independence. The territory claimed by the Lithuanians as "Lithuania Proper" includes two problem areas, the Klaipeda¹ (Memel) Region and the Vilnius Region, which were the main foci of boundary disputes.

In 1920, Poland annexed the district of Suvalkai along the southwest tip of Lithuania and the district of Vilnius in the southeast. In the extreme east the Zarasai district was added to Lithuanian territory. In 1923 the Klaipeda Region of East Prussia was taken over by Lithuania, and an autonomous government was established under the administration of a governor appointed by

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^{1.} Lithuanian forms of place names are used for the pre-1939 and the German occupation periods, since they appear in statistical reports and maps of these periods.

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the president of Lithuania. On 22 March 1939 the Klaipeda Region was taken back by Germany. About 6 months later, on 10 October 1939, part of the Vilnius Region again was turned over to Lithuania, following the Russian occupation of part of Poland. After 1940, some territory was added to Lithuania around Shvenchenus and Druskininkay, northeast of Vilnius and along the southern tip of Lithuania, respectively.

Wollowing the first Soviet occupation in 1940, a plan of political and economic absorption parallel to those in Latvia and Estonia was initiated. Changes and adjustments, which were made progressively, were always toward conformity with the system of the USSR. Lithuania became a Soviet Socialist Republic, and the Soviet terms uyezd and volost were substituted for the Lithuanian apskritis and valscius, respectively. In the area taken from Poland, three new uyezds were established with centers at Vil'nyus, Shvenchyonelyay, and Shvenchionis. The city of Vil'nyus was also made the capital of the new Soviet Republic. The number of volosts (valsciai) was reduced by 104, leaving a total of 261. In some cases the reduction represented consolidation, but it may have been partly the result of loss of territory to Germany in the southwest, where valsciai had been small, and the acquisition of other territory from Poland, where the units were larger. Selsovets were established immediately within the volosts of the new uyezd of Shvenchyonskiy.

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The German policy during the occupation from 1941 to 1945 was much the same in Lithuania as in Estonia and Latvia, including the reinstatement of the earlier administrative terminology. Lithuania. was divided into four districts -- Siaulia, Kaunas, Ponevezys, and Vilnius -- each under the direction of a <u>Generalkommissar</u>. Part of Belorussia was arbitrarily included in the Vilnius occupation district for military administrative purposes. The Germans also altered the boundaries of the <u>apskritis</u> of Alytus and established the two new <u>apskrity</u> of Svyriai (east and north of Vilnius) and Eishishkes (south and west of Vilnius). The numerous other changes were minor.

With the re-entry of the Soviets into Lithuania, the process of Sovietization was resumed. By January 1946 the Klaypeda Region, including three districts or uyezds, had again become Lithuanian territory. The number of cities had increased from 37 to a total of 40, the number of uyezds from 23 to 26, and the number of volosts from 261 to 266, partly as a result of the annexation. Apparently no other significant changes had occurred prior to January 1946.

Records published in 1947 show that many important changes were made in 1946., The number of cities directly subordinate to the republic was increased from 4 to 5, and the number subordinate to uyezds from 36 to 49. Uyezds increased in number from 26 to 30, and volosts from 266 to 320. Prior to 1946, only 23 selsovets had been established, all within a single uyezd.

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Records published in 1947 show that a total of 2,889 selsovets, distributed throughout the country, had been established by then. Seven settlements had been designated as of urban type. Changes such as these must have altered the minor administrative boundaries radically.

Between January 1947 and May 1949 the most significant change was the increase in the number of uyezds from 30 to 41, thus again altering the administrative boundaries and continuing the systematic modification in the size of the uyezds. The rapid increase in number of uyezds between 1946 and 1949 indicates an almost continuous state of change.

Mid-1950 marked the complete Sovietization of Lithuania. Unlike the other three Baltic countries, Lithuania was divided into four larger units or oblasts -- Kaunas, Klaypeda, Vil'nyus, and Shyaulay. These were further subdivided into 87 rayons comparable to those of the other Baltic Republics.

From the listing of the component parts of the new rayons, it appears that 20 additional settlements have been designated "cities." Of the 74 cities in Lithuania, 67 are rayon or oblast administrative centers or both. The new oblast centers that had formerly been subordinate to the Republic are now subordinate to the oblast. Only Vil'nyus is a city of Republic subordination. Twenty villages were designated rayon centers.

The maj rity of the new rayons were made up from parts of two former uyezds. The number of uyezds contributing territory to each rayon, however, varied from 1 to 4. The number of selsevets in each rayon averages about 30, although the range is from 19 to 50.

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II. ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES IN THE SOVIET ZONE OF GERMANY

In line with the Soviet policy of centralizing authority, the internal administrative areas of the Soviet Zone of Germany were radically changed in mid-1950. The German administrative set-up including Land (state), Landkreis (rural county), Stadtkreis (urban county), and <u>Gemeinde</u> (township) has been retained, but changes in functions, numbers, administrative centers, and boundaries of the divisions have altered the administration at all levels.

Boundary changes have been made, and areas have been transferred between Länder, Landkreise and Stadtkreise. Administrative seats of many Landkreise have been moved, which required a change in Landkreise names to conform to those of the new administrative centers. But the most significant change has been the elimination of 49 <u>Stadtkreise</u>. This represents an important step in the reduction of local autonomy, since a number of former <u>Stadtkreise</u> that had strong tendencies toward self-government have been relegated to the status of <u>Landkreise</u> centers. The functions and interests of the cities are thus spread over and subordinated to those of larger and more diversified <u>Landkreis</u> areas. All cities of over 100,000 population, however, have retained their <u>Stadtkreise</u> status for the sake of greater administrative efficiency. Alteration of the traditional mechanism provides stronger centralized control and in many cases greater effectiveness.

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A detailed list of the new administrative units is included in the <u>Berichte zur Deutschen Landeskunde</u>, 9 Band, 1 Heft, December 1950, CIA Map Library Call No. F304 p. B4, Bd. 9, Hft. 1. The Soviet Zone changes were made in Land Sachsen-Anhalt on 15 June 1950 and in the other <u>Länder</u> on 1 July 1950. Maps showing the new boundaries are available only for Thüringen and Mecklenburg (AMS Call No. 4M 23-26-43641-300). Both maps were printed in 1950 by Schaffmann and Kluges, Berlin, and are at the scale of 1:300,000.

A comparison of the list of new administrative divisions with that of the last official census of the four zones of Germany, published in 1950 in the <u>Deutsches Gemeindeverzeichnis</u>, Volks-und <u>Berufszählung vom 29 Oktober 1946</u>, reveals the following changes in the Soviet Zone:

<u>IAND MECKLENBURG</u> -- The number of <u>Stadtkreise</u> is reduced from 6 to 4; Rostock, Schwerin, Stralsund, and Wismar remain on the list, but Greifswald and Güstrow are missing. The number of <u>Landkreise</u> is decreased from 21 to 20, the territory of Randow having been transferred to Land Brandenburg. Two <u>Landkreise</u> have new names --Schönberg is changed to Grevesmühlen and Ueckermünde to Pasewalk.

<u>IAND BRANDENBURG</u> -- The number of <u>Stadtkreise</u> is decreased from 9 to 2; Brandenburg (Havel) and Potsdam remain, but Cottbus, Eberswalde, Forst (Lausitz), Frankfurt (Oder), Guben, Rathenow, and Wittenberge are missing. Although the number of <u>Landkreise</u> remains the same, many extensive boundary changes have been made. Landkreis Frankfurt (Oder) was created from parts of several Approved For Release 2000/04/17: CIA-RDP79-01005A000100210004-8 RESTRICTED

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Landkreise, including Guben. The following changes were made in Landkreis names: Beeskow-Storkow to Fürstenwalde, Lebus to Seelow, and Calau to Senftenberg.

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<u>IAND SACHSEN ANHALT</u> -- The number of <u>Stadtkreise</u> is reduced from 19 to 4; Dessau, Halberstadt, Halle (Saale), and Magdeburg remain; Aschersleben, Bernburg, Burg b. Magdeburg, Eisleben, Köthen (Anhalt), Merseburg, Naumburg (Saale), Quedlinburg, Salzwedel, Schönebeck (Elbe), Stendal, Weissenfels, Wittenberg, Zeitz, and Zerbst are missing. The number of <u>Landkreise</u> is changed from 33 to 30, Ballenstadt and Blankenburg (Harz) are missing and Mansfelder Gebirgskreis and Mansfelder Seekreis have been combined and re-named Eisleben. Calbe is now Schönebeck, Dessau-Köthen is Köthen, Eckartsberga is Kolleda, Jerichow I is Burg, Jerichow II is Genthin, and Schweinitz is Herzberg.

<u>LAND SACHSEN</u> -- The number (6) and names of the <u>Stadtkreise</u> are the same. The number of <u>Landkreise</u> is decreased from 29 to 28; only Stollberg is missing. The relatively few changes are probably due to the extensive reorganization effected in January 1947, when 17 <u>Stadtkreise</u> were abolished. The new administrative divisions were used in the <u>Gemeindeverzeichnis</u>, even though the date 1946 appears in the title.

LAND THURINGEN -- The number of <u>Stadtkreise</u> is reduced from 12 to 4. Erfurt, Gera, Jena, and Weimar remain; but Altenburg, Apolda, Arnstadt, Eisenach, Gotha, Greiz, Mühlhausen i. Th., and Nordhausen are missing. The number of <u>Landkreise</u> is changed from

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22 to 21; Langensalza, Schmalkalden, and Weissensee are missing; Bad Salzungen and Erfurt are newly created <u>Landkreise</u>; and the name of Landkreis Stadtroda is changed to Jena.

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III. JAPANESE TOPOGRAPHIC MAPPING SINCE THE WAR

Japan has been more adequately mapped than any other comparable area outside Western Europe. Prewar Japanese maps, especially those of Japan proper, are justly famous for their accuracy, fine cartography, and elaborate detail. The renewal of Japanese topographic mapping under the Occupation is therefore a development of major importance.

The official Japanese topographic mapping agency at present is the Geographical Survey Institute (GSI; Chiri Chosa Sho) under the Ministry of Construction (Kensetsu Shō), with headquarters in the city of Chiba, 25 miles east of Tokyo. The GSI was formed in 1948 and is the descendent of the former Japanese Imperial Land Survey (Rikuchi Sokuryō Bu), which had been moved from Tokyo to Matsumoto in Nagano prefecture as a precautionary measure during the war.

To date, postwar mapping activity has not been great, but it is increasing in both scope and volume. Unfortunately, many recent maps have been printed in quantities sufficient to satisfy only the immediate requirements of agencies of the Japanese government and of the Occupation. Since but few postwar maps are currently available in the United States, this article is of necessity based largely on recent coverage indexes. The index maps available cover topographic urban maps at the scale of 1:10,000; topographic series at 1:25,000, 1:50,000, 1:200,000, and 1:250,000; and prefectural maps at 1:200,000.

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A. Urban Maps

The scale of 1:10,000 has been adopted as standard for urban- and suburban-area maps. In 1944, urban coverage was as follows: Tokyo-Yokohama-Yokosuka, 90 sheets; Osaka-Kobe, 33 sheets; Shimonoseki-Moji, 37 sheets; Nagoya, 18 sheets; and Kyoto, 14 sheets. According to the current index, 31 sheets of the Tokyo-Yokohama-Yokosuka area were revised in 1948 and 1949, 34 sheets of the Kyoto and Osaka areas were scheduled for revision in 1950 and 1951, and 41 sheets of the northwestern suburbs of Tokyo and of the Kanoya area in southeastern Kagoshima prefecture were to be surveyed in 1950 and 1951. Plans for the future provide for the mapping of all cities with populations of 50,000 and over.

A more extensive program of urban mapping at large scales was initiated in 1947 by the War Rehabilitation Bureau, also under the Ministry of Construction, and is being continued by local governmental units. Of a projected total of nearly 500 maps of cities and large towns, 130 had been completed by October 1950; scales employed range from 1:3,000 to 1:20,000, but most are at 1:5,000 and 1:10,000.

B. Topographic Series

1. Large Scale

<u>1:25,000</u> -- Sheets at this scale have been completed for about one-quarter of Japan (1,152 out of approximately 4,800 sheets). The completion of the 1:25,000 series is expected to require 25 years, after which it will replace the 1:50,000 as the standard series for Japan.

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The areas covered include most cities with populations of 50,000 and over and some strategic areas such as Tsushima, Tsugaru Strait between Honshu and Hokkaido, and the exits to the Inland Sea. In 1950 and 1951, two areas on Hokkaido are to be surveyed. The 58 sheets to be prepared from the surveys include a strip of coal mining and agricultural country between Sapporo and Asahikawa, and the east coast from Kushiro to Nemuro, an area in which agricultural settlement is currently being encouraged. Many of the prewar sheets have been revised since 1947. All the revisions examined, however, concerned only administrative boundaries and railroads, and other important changes were ignored.

<u>1:50,000</u> -- This series of 1,244 sheets was completed for all of Japan long before the war and is at present the standard map of the country. All but 159 sheets, mainly for Hokkaido, have been revised since 1925. Postwar revision of 373 sheets has been undertaken. As in the case of the 1:25,000 series, changes are apparently limited chiefly to administrative boundaries and railroads. "Provisional" revisions based on aerial photography are indexed as "underway" or in some cases "completed."

All Japanese maps at 1:50,000 and 1:25,000, and most of those at 1:10,000, are monochromes. GSI hopes eventually to print both the 1:50,000 and the 1:25,000 series in several colors. Although the format (which is similar for maps at all three scales) has been

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standardized, it may be useful to point out that the following information is given:

(1) Contours, at intervals ranging from 20 to 2.5 meters depending on relief; arrows indicate depressions.

(2) Land use (six types of crops) and natural vegetation (six types of forest).

(3) Administrative boundaries down to the <u>ku</u> level in large cities and to the <u>machi</u> and <u>mura</u> in rural areas (the 1:10,000 sheets also show <u>cho</u> and <u>chome</u> boundaries in cities).

(4) Roads of seven classes (national and prefectural roads,local roads of three widths, roads impassable to carts, and trails).

(5) Railroads, classified as ordinary (mostly government-owned) and special (passenger, lumber, etc.); number of tracks; and tunnels, bridges, and stations.

(6) Power lines.

(7) Buildings of about 30 types, differentiated by symbol; outlines of large buildings and 3 intensities of shading for builtup areas, on maps at the two larger scales.

2. Medium Scale

Before World War II, all of Japan was covered by a 1:200,000 series in four colors, but the plates of the series were destroyed during the war. In 1948 and 1949, three-color versions of 124 sheets were made from original copies, presumably by color separation. The remaining 13 sheets are to be reproduced in the same way during the current fiscal year. The series, however, is

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not being revised and will be replaced by an 8-color 1:250,000 series in 88 sheets. An experimental sheet at 1:250,000 has been reported as completed.

A six-color set of prefectural maps at 1:200,000 is also in preparation, with sheets for 21 out of a total of 46 prefectures reported as completed. In view of the large size of Hokkaido, which at 1:200,000 would require a map measuring 80 by 100 inches, it seems possible that separate maps of each of the 14 <u>shichō</u> might be prepared.

C. Comparison of AMS and Japanese Maps

At present the Japanese topographic maps as a whole are inferior in several respects to equivalent or nearly equivalent AMS maps of Japan. Important types of changes that have taken place since the compilation of Japanese maps and are not shown even on the revised sheets are as follows: (1) the tremendous expansion of war industries and military installations that took place on the outskirts of the major cities and in some previously rural areas immediately before and during the early years of the war; (2) the devastation of large areas in almost all cities of industrial or military importance as a result of Allied bombing during the latter part of the war; and (3) the rebuilding since the war of much of the devastated area, in some cases along quite different lines than before the war. The large industrial plants that were not destroyed have been converted to peacetime production or in some cases dismantled in compliance with the reparations program.

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Extensive wartime and early postwar aerial photography has been used in preparing many AMS maps. These maps portray correctly the developments during the war years but do not show postwar reconstruction. Furthermore, the use of color on AMS maps makes them much clearer than the Japanese monochromes. On the other hand, the omission of Japanese characters on many AMS maps is a disadvantage when it is necessary to use the maps in conjunction with textual materials published in Japanese. The current plans of GSI indicate that maps which will compare favorably with current AMS sheets may soon be forthcoming.

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IV. BRIEF NOTICES

A. MAP SERIES ON RAILROADS OF AFRICA

The accompanying map, <u>Railroads of Egypt and Libya, 1950</u>, CIA 11747, is the second in a series of four railroad maps of Africa being prepared by CIA. The first map, <u>Railroads of North</u> <u>Africa, 1950: French and Spanish Zones</u>, CIA 11746, and a general introduction to the series, appeared in <u>Map Research Bulletin</u> No. 25. The remaining two maps, <u>Railroads of Tropical Africa, 1950</u>, CIA 11798, and <u>Railroads of South Africa, 1950</u>, CIA 11799, will be included in subsequent issues of the <u>Map Research Bulletin</u>.

B. A NEW ATLAS OF INDIA

India in Maps, the first atlas of India to be published since the partition in 1947, is now available (Enclosure 1 to R-63-51, AA, India, 3 February 1951). The atlas was published in August 1950 by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting of the Government of India.

The volume contains 38 small-scale maps, with supplementary statistical tables, and two world maps. The maps of India, at approximately 1:15,000,000, are mainly sociological and economic, but a few cover physical and political subjects. Several of the sociological and economic maps present information not available elsewhere in map form. Noteworthy among these are the maps locating universities, medical schools, technical schools, and research institutes and those showing number of workers and annual production for various types of industry by states.

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Most of the information is official and is for 1947 or later. Altogether the atlas presents a good, though highly generalized, picture of the distribution of a number of sociological and economic features of post-partition India.

C. NEW PROVINCIA IN DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

A new first-order administrative division, the Provincia de Santiago Rodríguez, was created within the Dominican Republic on 1 January 1951. The <u>provincia</u> was formed by combining two secondorder administrative divisions, the Comunes of Monción and Santiago Rodríguez, formerly the southernmost <u>comunes</u> of the Provincia de Montecristi. Law No. 1892, which created the Provincia de Independencia on 1 January 1950, proposed the creation of the Provincia de Santiago Rodríguez on the same date, but an amendment (Law No. 1995) postponed the effective date until 1 January 1951.

Formation of the new <u>provincia</u> increases the number of firstorder administrative divisions in the Dominican Republic to 21 -the Distrito de Santo Domingo and the following 20 <u>provincias</u>: Azua, Bahoruco, Barahona, Benefactor, Duarte, Espaillat, Independencia, La Altagracia, La Vega, Libertador, Montecristi, Puerto Plata, Samana, San Pedro de Macorís, San Rafael, Santiago, Santiago Rodríguez, Seibo, Trujillo, and Trujillo Valdéz.

The accompanying outline map of the Dominican Republic (CIA 11787) shows the boundaries of the 21 first-order administrative divisions now in effect. A Dominican map set, Mapa para el Censo de 1950, showing

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<u>comunes</u> is available at the Army Map Service map library (AMS 13E 3-26-6570-V). This set, prepared by the Instituto Geografico Militar, gives the correct boundaries of the 27 <u>comunes</u> and can be used to delineate <u>provincia</u> boundaries even though the scale (generally 1:100,000) varies from sheet to sheet. This set and the accompanying CIA map are the only available maps known to include the new first-order administrative division.

D. A POSTWAR JAPANESE GEOGRAPHIC PERIODICAL

Twenty-seven issues of a postwar Japanese geographic periodical entitled <u>Shakai Chiri</u>, with the English subtitle "Geography for Social Life," have been received in Washington. Numbers 1 through 27 are available by title at the Library of Congress. Of the issues received, the first was published in September 1947 and the latest in August 1950. During the first 2 years, publication was irregular, but the periodical is now being issued on a monthly basis.

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The periodical is significant as a source of factual information as an indication of trends in Japanese geographic thought since the war. Several articles

indicate the influence on geographers of the great changes in the Japanese political, economic, and social structure that have been brought about under the Occupation. In contrast with the earlier preoccupation with physical geography, these articles are concerned with the development of geography as a social science and with the role of geography in political, economic, and social planning.

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The text of the periodical is entirely in Japanese, but an English table of contents is included. Most of the issues are about 35 pages long and contain 5 or 6 articles 4 or 5 pages long (some with maps), shorter notes and book reviews, several maps without accompanying text, a national affairs section, and a section devoted to events in foreign countries. Nearly 60 percent of the articles, notes, and maps examined dealt with specific areas of Japan or geographic aspects of the Japanese economic or social life, 13 percent with foreign areas, 20 percent with aspects of geography not limited to specific areas, and the remainder with the teaching of geography. One entire issue (Number 20) was devoted to Hokkaido.

Of special interest are the current items included in the national affairs section. Among the topics considered are newly discovered mineral deposits or major extensions of previously known deposits, changes in administrative areas, population data, plans for the extension of railroad electrification, and road construction projects. Much of the information of this type is not readily available elsewhere.

Most of the maps included are cartographically simple and can be understood readily with the translation of a few characters in the legends. A few, however, are confusing, because too many types of interrelated data are plotted and the colors and shading are not well selected.

Before World War II, many Japanese geographic periodicals flourished briefly and then disappeared; the survival of <u>Shakai Chiri</u> through 3 years, and its increasing regularity of appearance bodes well for its continuation.

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E. ATLAS OF MOROCCAN AGRICULTURE

The Department of Agriculture Library has recently received a copy of <u>Atlas Agricole Marocain</u> (Rabat, October 1950), a new atlas which provides the most complete coverage of agriculture in the French Zone in Morocco that has been published to date. Statistical material, which covers the years 1941-48, was supplied by several services of the French Administration, the official source for the area. Although a publishing authority is not indicated, some pages were printed by the Maroc Matin in Rabat, others by Imprimeries Réunies, Casablanca.

Maps of the <u>régions</u> of Morocco are at different scales within the general 1:1,000,000 range, the scales having been adjusted to the size of the page without regard for uniformity. For each <u>région</u>, the total area cultivated and the number of hectares and percentages of cultivated land in selected major crops are shown by <u>territoire</u>. Figures are given for total area cultivated by Europeans and by Moroccans. In addition, maps of The French Zone in Morocco as a whole give average annual rainfall at 1:3,000,000; density of rural population per cultivated hectare and per square kilometer at 1:4,500,000; and field crops, tree crops, and animal population by <u>territoire</u> at 1:6,000,000. The maps of population density included also differentiate between Arab- and Berber-speaking people and show the boundaries and the seat of government for each <u>région</u>, <u>territoire</u>, cercle, circonscription, and annexe.

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The graphs on many of the maps are difficult to interpret and might well be omitted, since the same information is more effectively presented in marginal tables.

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