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MINERAL AND METAL MINE PRODUCTION AND STOCKS (Cont'd)
PRELIMINARY, JULY 1951

Commodity	Form a/	Unit	Production	Stocks at Mine
Clay				
Ball clay	Washed	MT	3,676	618
Ball clay	Unwashed	MT	6,352	0
Fire clay		MT	44,510	56,778
Kaolin		MT	1,092	1,278
Pottery stone	Unwashed	MT	6,615	7,556
Cobalt	Metal in concentrate	Kg	0	846
Copper	Metal in concentrate	MT	3,660	2,812
Diaspore	Hand picked	MT	506	641
Dolomite		MT	50,024	12,459
Feldspar	Hand picked concentrate	MT	3,069	2,833
Substitute feldspar	Unwashed	MT	1,995	40
Fluorite	Concentrate (62% CaF_2)	MT	407	159 (60% CaF_2)
Gold	Metal in concentrate	Gr	427,328	272,026
Graphite				
Amorphous	Concentrate (52% C)	MT	285	342 (46% C)
Crystalline	Concentrate (73% C)	MT	228	126
Gypsum				
High grade	Concentrate (41% SO_3)	MT	1,094	1,693 (42% SO_3)
Low grade	Concentrate (33% SO_3)	MT	18,414	5,108
Iridosmine	Metal	Gr	0	42
Iron ore	Concentrate (52% Fe)	MT	87,241	41,797 (50% Fe)
Iron sand	Concentrate (57% Fe)	MT	24,432	11,827
Lead	Metal in concentrate	MT	1,206	859
Limestone		MT	1,183,595	305,150
Manganese				
Battery grade	Concentrate (72% MnO_2)	MT	1,004	933
Metallurgical grade	Concentrate (36% Mn)	MT	18,270	18,031 (37% Mn)
Mercury	Metal in concentrate	Kg	7,510	2,050
Molybdenum	Concentrate (84% MoS_2)	MT	9	11 (82% MoS_2
Phosphate rock	Concentrate	MT	0	36 (3% P_2O_5)
Placer Gold	Metal in concentrate	Gr	36	723
Pyrite	Concentrate (394% S)	MT	200,873	58,101
Pyrophyllite	Hand picked	MT	32,016	22,105
Realgar	Concentrate	Kg	0	0
Silica				
Artificial silica sand		MT	12,735	7,598
Brick silica		MT	23,716	26,224
Silica sand	Over 95% SiO_2.	MT	40,960	9,502

(Cont'd)

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MINERAL AND METAL MINE PRODUCTION AND STOCKS (Cont'd)
PRELIMINARY, JULY 1951

Commodity	Form a/	Unit	Production	Stock at Mine
Silica (Cont'd)				
Silica sand	Below 95% SiO_2	MT	1,440	379
White silica		MT	38,519	18,347
Silver	Metal in concentrate	Kg	12,372	7,056
Sulfur	Refined	MT	12,006	1,749
Talc	Hand picked	MT	809	1,297
Tin	Metal in concentrate	Kg	43,459	64,052
Titanium	Metal in concentrate	Kg	252,250	371,450
Tungsten	Concentrate (58% WO_3)	MT	11	9 (61% WO_3)
Zinc	Metal in concentrate	MT	6,442	3,280

a/ Percentages of concentrates apply to both production and stocks unless otherwise indicated in stocks column.
SOURCE: Natural Resources Agency, Ministry of International Trade and Industr

2. Preliminary Study on Platinum Group Metals of Japan

a. Natural Resources Section Preliminary Study No 66, Platinum Group Metals of Japan, was published in September. The publication was written by Melvin Pollard, geologist, Mining and Geology Division.

COAL

1. Increase in Demand Exceeds Increase in Production

a. During 10-20 September 1951, all districts except Kyushu exceeded their planned output of coal. The average daily production was 26,000 metric tons greater than at the same time last year. However, the demand for coal has increased faster than production, and since controls were lifted last year stockpiles have dwindled to an alarming low point at which no uncommitted stocks remain. The situation is therefore critical.

2. Threatened Strike

a. The coal crisis became more acute under the threat of a miners' strike for higher wages. Just before the deadline, the Coal Miner's Union and the Japan Federation of Coal Mine Owners agreed to negotiate further. This decision, which was reached at midnight 2 October, temporarily averted the strike, but tension continues.

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PETROLEUM

1. Reported Improvement in Conservation Practises in Yabase Oil Field

a. Natural Resources personnel in July 1951 called attention to abuses in the exploitation of Yabase oil field. Specifically, they pointed to excessive production from the deep zones, waste of natural gas, and undesirable effects of an unrepaired deep well (Koya R-34) which allowed intercommunication of fluids from various horizons.

b. Subsequently, overproduction from wells in Yabase field was curtailed in three stages, the last of which was completed 10 August. A low point in output (844 kiloliters per day) occurred two weeks later because of various difficulties. However, new wells raised the daily output to an average of about 920 kiloliters, which will probably be the approximate rate during the next few months, as compared with about 1,220 kiloliters during part of June 1951 before control was exercised. The Imperial Oil Co claims that the curtailment will result in a gross loss of ¥100,000,000 per month, but admits that in the long run it will allow greater total profits.

c. The Imperial Oil Co reports that gas is no longer wasted in Yabase field. The curtailment of overproduction of oil has reduced the gas output. At present, 57 percent of the total gas output is assertedly returned underground via an injection well. The remainder is used in the gasoline plant, consumed as fuel in company operations, or sold.

d. The objectionable well, Koya R-34, is said to have been "killed" 28 August, by injecting exceptionally heavy mud. The stuck drill pipe which remains in the hole has been entered by a slender perforating machine, and has been perforated for a considerable vertical distance. Cement will be forced through the holes in the drill pipe, cementing the well up to the lower end of the casing. This will seal off the several productive and intervening zones up to that level. An attempt will be made to whipstock a new well into Zone 10 from the upper, cased part of the hole.

e. A group known as the Yabase Conservation Committee has been organized, its members including government officials and the Director of the Geological Survey. The Committee has had five meetings and has decided to make its own field investigation to ascertain the present status of production and conservation in the Yabase field.

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EDITORIAL AND PRODUCTION

1. Reports Completed

a. Report No 110-H, Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Hokkaido, September 1951.

b. Report No 146, Clam Culture in Japan, September 1951.

2. Report in Preparation

a. Report No 147, Properties and Uses of Commercially Important Japanese Woods, October 1951.

3. Preliminary Study Completed

a. Preliminary Study No 66, Platinum Group Metals of Japan, September 1951.

4. Press Items

a. NR Releases

"Four Japanese Forestry Educators to Visit United States"

"Colonel Schenck, NRS Chief, to Head ECA Mission in Formosa"

"Robert Grant, NRS Mining & Geology Chief, Departing for the U.S."

b. Published Items

"Schenck Succeeds Moyer at Formosa Mission Post"

"Lt Col Schenck, Chief NRS, SCAP Transferred to Formosa"

"Schenck Gets ECA Post"

"Resources Section Resigns Post"

"Schenck Leaving for Taiwan Post"

"Whaling Plaque for MacArthur"

"Silver Engraving to General MacArthur"

Hubert G. Schenck

HUBERT G. SCHENCK
Lt Col CE
Chief, Natural Resources Section

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Division Chiefs	8
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CONVERSION FACTORS
METRIC TO ENGLISH - JAPANESE TO ENGLISH

Metric To English

Weight

1 gram	=	0.035 ounce
1 kilogram	=	2.205 pounds
1 metric ton	=	2,205 pounds 1.102 short tons 0.984 long ton

Volume and Capacity

1 liter	=	2.113 pints
1 cubic meter	=	35.313 cubic feet
1 cubic meter	=	282 board feet
1 kiloliter	=	264.178 US gallons (6.29 barrels petroleum of 42 US gallons each)

Length

1 meter	=	3.281 feet
1 centimeter	=	0.394 inch
1 kilometer	=	0.621 mile
1 millimeter	=	0.039 inch

Area

1 square meter	=	10.764 square feet
1 hectare	=	2.471 acres

Japanese To English

Weight

1 koku rice	= 330.69 pounds
1 kan	= 8.267 pounds
1 momme	= 0.132 ounce
1 kin	= 1.323 pounds

Volume and Capacity

1 koku rice	= 5.010 66-pound bushels
1 koku wheat	= 5.029 60-pound bushels
1 koku naked barley	= 5.015 61-pound bushels
1 koku barley	= 4.995 48-pound bushels
1 koku lumber volume	= 120 board feet
1 koku log volume	= 80 board feet
1 koku liquid	= 6.370 cubic feet 47.654 gallons
1 koku solid volume	= 9.827 cubic feet
1 soseki koku stacked volume	= 9.827 cubic feet
1 go	= 11.008 cubic inches
1 shaku	= 0.610 fluid ounce
1 sho	= 0.4765 US gallon

Length

1 sun	= 1.193 inches
1 shaku	= 0.994 foot
1 bu	= 0.119 inch

Area

1 cho	= 2.451 acres
1 tan	= 0.245 acre
1 tsubo	= 35.583 square feet
1 se	= 0.0245 acre
1 square shaku	= 0.988 square foot

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NATURAL RESOURCES SECTION

WEEKLY SUMMARY

No 306
7-20 October 1951

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
TOKYO, JAPAN

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INFORMATION

1. Chief of Section Honored by Minister of Agriculture and Forestry

a. Lt Col Hubert G. Schenck, Chief of Natural Resources Section, has been presented with an engraved plaque in commemmoration of his services in the field of Japanese natural resources during the past six years. The presentation was made on 19 October 1951 by Ryutaro Nemoto, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, Japanese Government. Colonel Schenck, who has been Chief of Natural Resources Section since its establishment in October 1945, will leave Tokyo on 12 November to become Chief of the ECA Mission to China in Formosa.

b. The silver plaque carried the following message:

My Lear Colonel Schenck,

On the eve of your departure from Japan we are deeply conscious and grateful of the great personal contributions which you have made to the rehabilitation and development of agriculture forestry, fishery and mining industries of Japan.

For six long years since the beginning of the Occupation you have, with infinite ability, tireless effort and patient understanding, striven to guide the development of Japanese natural and renewable resources which are the foundation of an overall economic recovery of Japan. Attainment of smoothly carrying out the unprecedented land reform, democratization of rural village and basic survey of natural resources are only a few of your personal contributions for which Japan will always be grateful to you.

It is our earnest hope that the friendly and helpful relationships which we have always enjoyed with you do not end and that you will continue to be interested in our constant effort to develop our agriculture, forestry, fishery and mining of Japan.

With every good wish for your future health and prosperity,

Faithfully yours,

Ryutaro Nemoto
Minister of Agriculture
and Forestry

2. Japanese Publications (Non-Periodical) Containing Natural Resources Statistics

a. Statistics upon various aspects of Japanese natural resources have been published in recent years in a large number of Japanese governmental, industrial, and private publications. For the convenience of agencies and individuals wishing to arrange with the Japanese to obtain these

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publications, a list of periodicals was published in Weekly Summary No 303, and a list of non-periodicals dealing with agricultural and fisheries topics was published in Weekly Summary No 304. Forestry, mining and hydrology non-periodicals are covered by the following list, with name and address of publisher in each instance. Publications are in the Japanese language unless otherwise indicated.

b. Forestry.

(1) See Japanese Forestry Bibliography, 1940-48, Natural Resources Section Preliminary Study No 40, by Thomas Sasaki and Kazuo Watanabe, Tokyo, July 1950.

c. Mining

(1) Report on the Real State of the Economy - The Economic White Paper (Keizai Jisso Hokoku Sho) (1949)
Economic Stabilization Board
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(2) Report on Economic Conditions - The Second Economic White Paper (Keizai Josei Hokokusho - Dai Niji Keizai Hakusho) (1949)
Economic Stabilization Board
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(3) Analysis and Explanation of Present Economic Conditions - The Third Economic White Paper (Keizai Genkyo no Bunseki to Kaisetsu, Dai Sanji Keizai Hakusho) (1949)
Economic Stabilization Board
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(4) Manual of Mining (Kogyo Benran) (1950)
Mining Institute of Japan (Nippon Kogyokai)
No 7, 8-chome, Ginza-Nishi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

(5) Natural Resources of Japan (Nippon no Tennen Shigen)
Natural Resources Section, GHQ, SCAP. Translated into Japanese by Economic Stabilization Board (1951)
Jiji Tsushin Sha
4, 4-chome, Ginza, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

(6) Mineral Resources of Japan Bill - Ores Mainly used for Ceramic Industry (Nippon Kosan Shi - Shutoshite Yogyogenryo to naru Koseki) (1950)
Geological Survey of Japan
Hisamoto-cho, Kawasaki-city, Kanagawa Pref.

(7) Zinc Mining Industry and Uses of Zinc up to Date (Saikin no Aenkogyo to Aen no Yoto) (1950)
Mining Institute of Japan (Nippon Kogyo Kai)
No 7, 8-chome, Ginza-Nishi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

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(8) Nickel and Cobalt (Nikkeru to Kobaruto) 1951
Mining Institute of Japan (Nippon Kogyo Kai)

(9) Non-metallic Mineral Resources in Japan - Present and Future
(Nippon no Hikinzoku - Kobutsu Shigen - Genkyo to Shorai)
Mine Bureau, Geological Survey and Resources Council
Shoko Kaikan
No 1, Sannencho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(10) Manual of Metallic Materials (Kinzoku Zairyo Benran) (1950)
Yoichi Yamamoto
Nikkan Kogyo Shibun Sha
No 1, Iida-machi, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(11) Summary of Statistics on Coal (Sekitan Tokei Soran) (1950)
Coal Association (Sekitan Kyokai)
2-16, Kayabacho, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

(12) Coal (Sekitan)(1949)
Masanobu Tokutomi
Diamond-sha
No 3, 3-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(13) Coal Economy (Sekitan Keizai)
Ryoichi Kusama
Kotsu-Nippon-sha
5, 3-chome Gofukubashi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

(14) Principal Statistics of Coal (Sekitan Shuyo Tokei) (1950)
Federation of Japanese Coal Mining (Nippon Sekitan Kogyo Renmei)
2-16, Kayabacho, Chuo-ku, Tokyo

(15) Footprint of National Administration of Coal Mine for One Year
(Tanko Kokka Kanri Ikkanen no Sokuseki)
Coal Board Ministry of International Trade and Industry
Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

d. Hydrology

(1) Flood Control in Japan (1950) 1/
Ministry of Construction
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(2) Table of Meteorological Calamities in Japan (Nippon Kisho Saigai Nempyo) 1900-1947 (1949)
Central Meteorological Observatory and Resources Council of Economic Stabilization Board
2, 1-chome Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

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(3) Typhoon and Flood Damages (Taifu to Suigai)
Central Meteorological Observatory
Chijin Shokan (Publisher)
59, 1-chome, Kanda-jimbo-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(4) River Improvement Project (Kasen Kaisyu Keikaku ni Tsuite) (1950)
Saburo Yamamoto and Masaji Kimoto
All Japan Construction Engineering Association (Zen-Nippon Kensetsu Gijyutsu Kyokai)
c/o The Kanto District Construction Bureau, Ministry of Construction
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(5) Over-all Development Project of National Land, Especially Concerning River Over-all Development Project (Kokudo Sogo Kaihatsu Keikaku - Kasen Sogo Kaihatsu Keikaku o Chushin to shite) (1949)
Construction and Traffic Bureau, Economic Stabilization Bureau
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(6) Deep Wells in Japan (Nippon ni okeru Fukaido) (1949)
Soki Yamamoto
Resources Section, Agricultural Land Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
7, 1-chome, Yuraku-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(7) Outline of Run-off (Ryuryo Yoran) 1919-1929 (1933)
Electric Power Bureau, Ministry of Communication
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(8) Outline of Run-off (Ryuryo Yoran) II 1930-1937 (1940)
Electricity Agency
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(9) Outline of Run-off (Ryuryo Yoran) III 1938-1947 (1950)
Electric Power Bureau, Resources Agency
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(10) Chronological Table of Run-off (Ryuryo Nempyo) I 1938-1939 (1941)
Public Works Bureau, Ministry of Interior
c/o Rivers Bureau, Ministry of Construction
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(11) Chronological Table of Run-off (Ryuryo Nempyo) II 1940-1941 (1944)
National Land Bureau, Ministry of Interior
c/o Rivers Bureau, Ministry of Construction
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

(12) Chronological Table of Run-off (Ryuryo Nemphy) III 1942-1943 (1951)
Rivers Bureau, Ministry of Construction
2, 1-chome, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo

1/ In English

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(13) Diagrams of Results of Investigation on Water Level and Discharge I 1943-1947 (1948)
Rivers Section, Hokkaido Prefecture
Sapporo, Hokkaido

RESOURCES UTILIZATION

1. Recent Activities of Resources Council

a. A report on the activities of the Resources Council of the Economic Stabilization Board during April-September 1951 was submitted by Dr K. Aki, Vice-Chairman of the Council. (See Weekly Summary Nos 239, 266, and 292 for earlier reports.)

b. The members of the advisory committee of the Council tendered their resignations on 30 April 1951. Light new members were appointed to the committee, and 14 members were reappointed. Those who resigned their membership were: Dr Ukichiro Nakaya, professor of Hokkaido University; Dr Seiji Kaya, professor of Tokyo University; Dr Hidetoshi Isobe, professor of Tokyo University; Mr Hajime Kagayama, managing director of the Matsuo Mining Co; Mr Gitaro Hirano, director of the Political and Economic Research Institute; Mr Shoji Sedo, professor of Tokyo University; Mr Shinjuro Akimoto, managing director of the Japan Maize Products Co.

c. At the same time Dr Shunichi Uchida resigned as Vice-Chairman of the Council and returned to his professorship at the Tokyo Institute of Technology. However, he continued to serve as a member of the advisory committee. Dr Aki succeeded him as Vice-Chairman of the Council.

d. Members of the advisory committee as of 30 September 1951 are:

Dr Akiba, Masuji	Professor of Faculty of Agriculture, Tokyo University
Dr Hori, Yoshimichi	Commissioner of Hypothec Bank of Japan
Dr Inoue, Harushige	Director of Industry and Techniques Agency, Ministry of International Trade and Industry
Mr Ito, Takeo	Chairman of board of directors, National Association of Regional Research Institute
Dr Kameyama, Naoto	Chairman of Japan Scientific Council
Mr Matsukawa, Kyosuke	Chairman of Board of Japan Forest Technical Assn
Mr Mitsuchi, Tomoyoshi	Director of Geological Survey
Mr Morinaga, Toshitaro	Agricultural Experimental Station
Mr Noda, Nobuo	Professor of Seikei University
Mr Obata, Kyuichi	Chairman of board of directors, Japan Synthetic Textile Inspection Institute Foundation
Dr Omori, Kenta	Professor of Keio University (Medical)
Mr Ono, Kazuo	Chief of Secretariat, Resources Council, Economic Stabilization Board

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Mr Ozaki, Junichi	Director of Food Institute, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Mr Royama, Seido	Chairman of directors, Japan Public Administration Assn
Dr Sasaki, Shigeo	Professor of the Tokyo Institute of Technology
Mr Taira, Teizo	Chairman of Over-All Land Development Council, Yamagata Prefecture
Mr Taniguchi, Saburo	Ex-engineer in chief, Ministry of Construction
Dr Tahata, Seiichi	Director of National Research Institute of Agriculture, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Mr Tsuru, Shigeto	Professor of Hitotsubashi University (former Tokyo University of Commerce)
Dr Uchida, Shunichi	Professor of Tokyo Institute of Technology
Dr Wadachi, Kiyowo	Chief of Central Meteorological Observatory

e. Councillors to the Resources Council at present are:

Mr Fujimura, Shigeto	Chief of Guidance Division, Forestry Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Mr Ishihara, Kaneo	Deputy chief, Accountant's Bureau
Mr Mitsui Shinjiro	Technical Advisor, Hokuriku Electric Power Co
Mr Nakanishi, Katsuji	Chief of Research Aid Section, Higher Education Science Bureau, Ministry of Education
Mr Shiomi, Tomonosuke	Chief of the Minister's Secretariat, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Mr Toyoshima, Yoshizo	Chief of Electric Power Facilities Division, Directors Secretariat, Resources Agency, Ministry of International Trade and Industry
Mr Wada, Eitaro	Chief of Planning Division, Reclamation Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry
Mr Yasui, Masami	Chief of Planning Section, Minister's Secretariat, Ministry of Transportation

f. As of 30 September 1951, personnel serving the Resources Council were reported as follows:

	Authorized	Present
Advisory committee member	30	23
Councillor	20	8
Specialist	No limits	350
Officials in secretariat	35	35

g. In connection with the discontinuance of the National Food and Nutrition Council of the Economic Stabilization Board on 31 May 1951, the Resources Council decided on 17 May 1951 to establish a Food Committee within the Council. This Committee, 10th to be established, will study food problems, with subcommittees for three main subjects: (1) character of food structure; (2) protein and fat resources; (3) enforcement of food nutrition. Dr Kenta Omori and Mr Junichi Ozaki were appointed to membership on the advisory committee in connection with establishment of the Food Committee.

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H. Recommendations and reports issued during the April-September period included:

(1) Recommendation No 9, "Scientific and Sanitary Treatment of Night Soil". The recommendation was passed at the Resources Council monthly meeting on 25 January 1951 and submitted to the Cabinet meeting on 10 May 1951.

(2) Report No 8, "Character and Measures of Damages by Gully Erosion in Shirasu Terrace Area, Kagoshima and Miyazaki Prefectures". This report was passed at the Resources Council monthly meeting on 26 June 1951 and submitted to the Cabinet meeting on 14 September 1951.

(3) Report No 9, "On Deficiency of Hydrological Data", passed at the Resources Council monthly meeting on 25 September 1951.

i. A preliminary study on each division of resources which had been analyzed since last fall was published in June 1951 as a part of Resources Council Material Series Nos 30-34: No 30, Energy Problems in Japan; No 31, Forest Resources Problems in Japan; No 32, Basic Problems on Development of Textile Resources in Japan; No 33, Japanese Food Resources Problems; No 34, Industrial Raw Materials Problems in Japan. These printings all had been issued by the end of September, and the Council has received many reactions. These studies will be reworked in one volume to be used as materials for a white paper on Japanese natural resources.

j. The Council sent out about 500 questionnaires with a brief pamphlet, On the Resources Council--Outline of the Council's activities Since Its Inaugulation and the Present, to various fields of public activity in August. The Council has come to understand, Mr Aki reports, the necessity of further public relation movements to bring these vital long-range national problems before the public.

2. Status of Resources Council

a. According to the governmental reorganization plan prepared by the Administration Management Agency, the Economic Stabilization Board, parent agency of the Resources Council, will be abolished by the end of the fiscal year 2/ and the responsibility for over-all planning will be assigned to the Prime Minister's Office. Under the reorganization, the Resources Council can expect a 25 percent reduction in personnel. Possible status of the Council as an auxiliary or external organ in connection with an over-all planning agency is now under consideration, according to Dr K. Aki, Vice-Chairman of the Resources Council.

b. The Resources Council is set up under an ordinance based on the Economic Stabilization Board Establishment Law. As a legal framework

2/ Japanese fiscal year, 1 April-31 March.

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of this nature is not satisfactory for a permanent agency, the Council has been studying a possible permanent legislative structure. A Bill Concerning the Resources Council Law was drawn up by the Council in June but was not pushed at this time. Further action is contemplated later, perhaps early next summer, according to Dr Aki, if an over-all planning organization is established in the interval and other circumstances are favorable.

c. Although the Bill drawn up in June would require modification to meet changes in government structure and functions, it indicate the general thinking of the Resources Council as to the organization's future status and is therefore reprinted here:

Bill Concerning the Resources Council Law

(Purpose)

Article 1. The purpose of the Resources Council (hereinafter referred to as "the Council") is to establish the over-all and basic measures from the viewpoint of scientific and technical utilization of resources which are the bases of national welfare, to make research and deliberation on the measures necessary for the coordination and adjustment of various programs concerning the research or utilization of resources, and to contribute to the stabilization and development of national economy as well as the development and conservation of national land.

2. The Council shall be under the jurisdiction of the President of the Economic Stabilization Board.

(Function)

Article 2. The Council shall make research and deliberation with respect to the following matters and make recommendation or report of the results to the President of the Economic Stabilization Board.

(1) Establishment of the basic measures to grasp the actual situation of the conservation or utilization of resources.

(2) Establishment of the over-all and basic measures pertaining to the stabilization or promotion of the productivity of natural resources by the prevention of disaster and the conservation of resources.

(3) Establishment of the over-all and basic measures for the efficient utilization of resources and the rationalized consumption of resources.

(4) Establishment of the new utilization program for resources.

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2. The Council shall make research and deliberation, in compliance with the inquiry of the President of the Economic Stabilization Board, on the matters provided for by the Cabinet Order with regard to the research or utilization of resources other than those mentioned in each item in the preceding paragraph and make report of the results.

3. The Council may make statement of its views to the administrative agencies concerned through the President of the Economic Stabilization Board on the research or utilization of resources.

4. The Council may make research and deliberation on the coordination and adjustment of the programs concerning the research or utilization of resources prepared or enforced by the administrative agencies, local public bodies and others concerned.

5. The Council shall make the collection and arrangement of data concerning the utilization of resources as required for planning economic programs by the administrative agencies concerned and for the compilation of national budget.

6. The Council shall collect the information on the research or utilization of resources in Japan and abroad and publish and develop activities relating to the research or utilization of resources.

7. The Council may, when deemed necessary, require the administrative agencies concerned for cooperation including the collection, adjustment and submission of data as well as the statement of views or explanation with regard to the matters referred to in the preceding paragraphs.

8. The Chief of the administrative agencies concerned may hear the opinion of the Council through the President of the Economic Stabilization Board with respect to the matters under its jurisdiction on the research or utilization of resources.

(Chairman and Vice-chairman)

Article 3. The Council shall have one (1) Chairman and one (1) Vice-chairman.

2. The Director General of the Economic Stabilization Board shall, as Chairman, preside over the affairs of the Council and represent the Council.

3. The Vice-chairman shall assist the Chairman and act for him in case the Chairman is prevented from performing his duties.

(Conference)

Article 4. The Council shall have the Conference.

2. The Conference shall be composed of not more than thirty (30) members.

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3. The recommendation, report or statement of views made by the Council in accordance with paragraphs 1-3 of Article 2 shall require the decision of the Conference.

(Member)

Article 5. The Chairman and the Vice-chairman of the council and the Chief of the Secretariat shall be members of the Conference.

2. The members other than those mentioned in the preceding paragraphs shall be appointed by the President of the Economic Stabilization Board from among personnel indicated in the following items.

(1) Personnel of learning and experience (including the personnel of the administrative agencies concerned engaged in educational and/or research works).

(2) Personnel of the administrative agencies concerned (excluding those mentioned in bracket of the preceding item).

3. The number of the members appointed from among personnel as mentioned in item (2) above shall not exceed that of members appointed from among personnel as mentioned in item (1) above.

4. The members appointed under paragraph 2 shall not be in full-time service. However, the members appointed to belong to the special panel under paragraph 3 of Article 10 may be in full-time service for its duration.

5. Members appointed from among personnel under the preceding paragraph 2 item (1) shall remain in office for two (2) years. However, they may be reappointed.

(Secretariat)

Article 6. The Council shall have the Secretariat.

2. The Secretariat shall arrange miscellaneous affairs of the Council, prepare data and original plans for the conference and arrange the results thereof.

3. The Secretariat shall have one (1) Chief, one (1) Deputy Chief and necessary personnel.

4. The Chief of Secretariat shall administer the affairs of the Secretariat at the direction of the chairman.

5. The Deputy Chief of the Secretariat shall arrange the affairs of the Secretariat at the direction of the Chief of the Secretariat.

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6. The full number of personnel shall be decided in accordance with the Law provided for separately.

7. Matters necessary for the organization of the Secretariat except those provided for by the preceding paragraphs shall be provided for by the ordinance of the Economic Stabilization Board.

(Expert member)

Article 7. The Council shall have expert members in order to make research and deliberation on special matters.

2. The expert members shall be appointed by the President of the Economic Stabilization Board from among personnel as mentioned below.

(1) Personnel of learning and experience.

(2) Personnel of the administrative agencies concerned.

3. The expert members shall be released from membership upon completion of the research and deliberation on special matters.

4. The provision of paragraph 4 of the preceding Article shall be applied mutatis mutandis to the expert members.

(Proceedings)

Article 8. The Chairman shall call a regular Conference or once a month.

2. The Chairman may, when deemed necessary, call an extraordinary Conference.

3. The members may require the Chairman for the call of an extraordinary Conference with due reasons.

4. The Vice-chairman shall be the president of the Conference. In case the Vice-chairman is prevented from performing his duties, the member nominated by the Chairman shall act for the President.

5. The President shall make prior notification of the agenda of the Conference to all members.

6. The Conference of the Council cannot be held unless the majority of the members are present.

7. The proceedings of the Conference shall be decided by the majority of the members who are present, and in case of a tie the decision shall be made by the President of the Conference.

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8. The expert members may attend the Conference and state their views in relation to the special matters with the consent of the President.

9. Except those provided for in the preceding paragraphs, the matters necessary for the proceedings of the Conference shall be determined by the Chairman after hearing the opinions of the Conference.

(Panel)

Article 9. The Conference shall establish the panel in accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance of the Economic Stabilization Board.

2. The Panel shall be composed of the members and expert members appointed by the Chairman.

3. The Panel shall have one (1) Chief appointed by the Chairman upon election by mutual vote of members.

4. The Chief of the Panel shall call the meeting at any time.

5. The Chief of the Panel shall be the President of the meeting. In case the Chief is prevented from performing his duties, the member appointed by the Chief shall act for him.

6. The provisions of paragraphs 5 and 9 of the preceding Article shall be applied to the proceedings of the meeting of the Panel.

(Special Panel)

Article 10. The Council may, if necessary, establish the special panel under the provisions of the Ordinance of the Economic Stabilization Board, in order to make research and deliberation as prescribed in paragraph 2 of Article 3.

2. The special panel shall be dissolved upon completion of research and deliberation concerned.

3. The special panel shall be composed of the Vice-chairman, the Chief of Secretariat and members and expert members appointed by the Chairman.

4. The provisions of paragraphs 3 to 6 of the preceding Article shall be applied mutatis mutandis to the proceedings of the special panel.

5. Except those provided for in the preceding 4 paragraphs, the matters necessary for the function, organization and operation of the special panel and others shall be provided for by the Cabinet Order.

(Councillor)

Article 11. The Council shall have not more than twenty (20) Councillors who shall take part in the conduct of affairs of the Council.

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2. The Councillors shall be appointed by the President of the Economic Stabilization Board from among persons mentioned below.

(1) Persons of learning and experience.

(2) Personnel of the administrative agencies concerned.

3. The Councillors shall not be in full-time service.

Supplementary Provisions:

1. This Law shall come into force as from the day of promulgation.

2. The Economic Stabilization Board Establishment Law (Law No. 164 of 1949) shall be partially amended as follows:

In Chapter II of Contents, "Section 3 (Deleted)" shall be amended as "Section 3 Resources Research Council (Articles 16-18)".

The Resources Council in the Table of Article 15 paragraph 1 shall be deleted.

Section 3 shall be amended as follows:

Section 3 Resources Council

Article 16. The organization and function of the Resources Council shall be provided for by the Resources Council Law (Law No. _____ of 1951)

Article 17. deleted.

Article 18. deleted.

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AGRICULTURE

LAND TENURE, RECLAMATION, AND IMPROVEMENTS

1. Bibliography on Japanese Land System

a. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Library prepared the following bibliography of the most important studies of Japan's land system.

(1) Outline History of Agricultural Land Reform by Farm Reform Recording Committee. Published 15 September 1951, by the Nosei Chosa Kai, 35, 1,361 pages.

This book describes the course of the recent agricultural land reform and its outcome based on original source materials. The compilers especially put stress on two points: viz, collection of accurate and correct records relating to the course of the reform itself and clarifying the epoch making accomplishments of the land reform. They also touch on the history of land system of Japan since 652.

(2) Historic Study of the Land System by Takekazu Ogura (Research Series No 17 published by the National Research Institute of Agriculture, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry). Published 25 March 1951, 866 pages.

In this book the land ownership system in the time of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the substance and background of Japan's land systems from the Meiji era to the period immediately before the end of World War II (Farm Reform) are thoroughly studied and accurately explained.

(3) Explanation of the Agricultural Land Law by Sakae Wagatsuma and Ichiro Kato. Published 10 September, 1948 by the Nippon Hyoron Sha, 418 pages.

Detailed explanations are given in this book on the Owner Farmer Establishment Special Measures Law which is the basic law for the farm reform and the laws and ordinances relevant to it as well as the Agricultural Land Adjustment Law and its related laws and regulations (Generally as of the end of April, 1947). In addition, these laws and regulations are collected in the book as on appendix.

(4) Fundamental Structure of Medieval Manor by Mitsuo Shimizu; (Modern Historical Science Series No 2) 28 February 1949, Takayama Shoin, 338 pages.

The book is a study of the fundamental structure of 'Shoen' (manors) in Japan, and covers the question of how the feudal society was established.

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(5) A Study of Japanese Ancient History by Sokichi Tsuda; 25 September 1947, Iwanami Shoten, 502 pages.

The book discussed the Political Reform of Taika (646 A. D.), especially with regard to the "Handen System" (Land Ownership System), which is one of the major objects of the reform.

(6) A Study of Shoen (Manors) by Kaoru Nakada, 10 October 1948, Shoko Shoin (History of Laws Series No 1), 404 pages.

The book is divided into two parts. The manor system in Japan is discussed in Part I from the standpoint of history of laws, while Part II covers the growth of manors during the dynasties prior to the Kamakura Military Government.

b. A futher list of references by subject follows:

(1) The "Handen" System (Or Land Allotment System by the Government)

Sokichi Tsuda	Study of the Ancient History of Japan, 1930
Arata Imamiya	Study of the "Handen Shuji" System, 1943
Tasuke Kawakami	Study of the Ancient Social History of Japan, 1947
Rokuji Morimoto	Origin of Agricultural Culture of Japan, 1941
Mitsuo Shimizu	Land Circumstance in the Ancient Times, 1943
Seidai Fujima	Ancient State Organization of Japan, 1946

(2) Manor System

Kaoru Nakata	Lineage of the Japanese Manor (vol 2, Collection of his essays on "Lineage of the Japanese Manor" 1938)
Seidai Fujima	History of the Japanese Manor, 1947
Shimpachiro Matsumoto	The Process of Lstablishing Feudal Land Ownership, 1948
Toranosuke Nishika	Development of the Manor System (Japanese History contained in the Iwami Lectures, 1933)
Rintaro Imai	Essay on the Japanese Manor System, 1939
Naokatsu Nakamura	Study of the Manor, 1939
Mitsuo Shimizu	Basic Structure of Medieval Manor System, 1949
Tadashi Ishimoto	Social Constitution of Madieval Japan, 1946

(3) Land Inspection by Hideyoshi Toyotomi

Mitsuhisa Takayanagi	Land Inspection by Hideyoshi Toyotomi (Japanese History contained in the Iwanami Lectures, 1938)
Kichiji Nakamura	Historical Study of the Initial Stages of Modern Agricultural Administration, 1938
Hiroshi Ando	Outline of Prefectural Rule during the Tokugawa Shogunate Era, 1915

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(4) Reform of Land Taxes in 1873

Compiled by Finance Ministry	Report on Land Tax Reforms, 1882
Compiled by Finance Ministry	Gist of Records on Prefectural Land Tax Reforms, 1882
Compiled by Finance Ministry	Gist of History of Rules and Regulations for Land-Tax Reforms, 1882
Compiled by Finance Ministry, Revised by Hyoe Ouchi and Takeo Tsuchiya	Vol 7, Collection of Historical Materials on Finance and Economy in the Early Meiji Era, 1933
Compiled by the Toyo Keizai Shimpo-sha	Gist of Financial History of Meiji Era, 1911
Yukikazu Hattori	History of the Meiji Restoration, 1927
Gitaro Hirono	Appearance of New Classes Following the Meiji Restoration and Social and Political Movements Thereafter (contained in the Lectures on History of Japanese Capitalism, Compiled by Iwanami Publishing Co), 1932.
Seitaro Yamada	Changes in the Agriculture Resulting from the Meiji Restoration (contained in same, 1933)

(5) Land System

Denzaemon Hashimoto	Agricultural Land Problems, 1929
Shiro Kawata	Essay on Land Economics, 1925
Hiroshi Nasu	Agricultural Policy or Essay on Japanese Agriculture, 1929
Bunjiro Ishida	Essay on the History of Ownership of Land, 1927
Togo Yoshida	Brief History of the Manor System, 1925
Takeo Ono	Essays and Lectures on the Social History of Farm-Villages, 1927
Yasushi Sawamura	Agricultural History (1st Vol), 1932
Katsumasa Tanabe	Study of Land Systems, 1942 (Published by Shozan-Bo)
Yasuo Kando	Essay on the Japanese Agricultural Economy, 1942
Takeo Ono	Essay on History of Japanese Manor System

(6) Legislation for Agricultural Land Reforms

Sakae Wagazuma and Ichiro Kato	Comment on Agricultural Land Laws, 1947
Keiki Owada	Comment on the Revised Law for Agricultural Land, 1947

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FARM ORGANIZATIONS

1. A Farm Cooperative Meets Its Problems

a. Agricultural cooperatives have undergone important changes in the years of the Occupation since dissolution of the Nogyokai. In the short space of four years, from 1948 to the present, 36,750 new cooperatives (including federations) were organized pursuant to new legislation authorizing establishment of cooperatives organized on internationally recognized cooperative principles. This achievement represented an unprecedented organization effort in the history of the cooperative movement. During this period, Japan's economy underwent important changes. The sharp post-Surrender inflation levelled off in 1949, causing serious repercussions in management and financial problems of cooperatives. Although prices started upward again after hostilities began in Korea, the economy has continued relatively stable in comparison with the years immediately after 1945. Progressive relaxation of economic controls, many of which indirectly benefitted cooperatives by strengthening their hold on marketing and distribution of basic commodities, has tested the capacity of the new cooperatives to cope with a more nearly genuine competitive stituation.

b. The following history prepared on the experience of one cooperative in relation to its economic setting illustrates the problems of a large number of Japan's new agricultural cooperative organizations:

The Cooperative's Economic Setting

"The Shichihongi-mura Agricultural Cooperative Assn established in April 1948 with a membership of 693, serves the farming community of Shichihongi village in the north central part of Saitama Prefecture in the Kanto Plain. The farm population of this village, as reported in the agricultural census of February 1950, is as follows:

Total farm population	4,076
Number of farm households	627
Full-time farmers	516
Part-time farmers	111

"Total cultivated area in the village is 657.9 cho, making the average holding just over one cho, somewhat more than the national Japanese average. These holdings are distributed by size as follows:

Size of Holding	Number of Households	Percent	Size of Holding	Number of Households	Percent
Less than 0.3 cho	55	8.8	1.5-2.0 cho	94	15.0
0.3-0.5 cho	66	10.5	2.0-3.0 cho	22	3.5
0.5-1.0 cho	172	27.4			
1.0-1.5 cho	218	34.8	TOTAL	627	100.0

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"Changes in the land tenure pattern wrought by the land reform program have been considerable, as shown in the following table. These changes relieved a large proportion of the village's farmers from the obligation to pay half or more of their gross income as rents to landlords, and greatly reduced the burden on the remaining tenants.

Land Tenure Category	Number of Farm Households 1945	1949
Non-cultivating landlords	34	3
Owner-cultivators (owning at least 90 percent of the land they operate)	98	391
Owner-tenants (owning between 50 and 90 percent of the land they operate)	109	215
Tenant-owners (owning between 10 and 50 percent of the land they operate)	126	21
Tenants (owning less than 10 percent of the land they operate)	197	23
TOTAL	564	653

"About one-fifth of the cultivated land is paddy land, the remainder being upland fields. A small amount of land is planted to trees in strips, primarily to serve as windbreaks.

"All farm families raise some staple foods, with wheat, barley, and white potatoes comprising the most important crops. Six hundred and twenty-five families raise white potatoes, 617 wheat, 612 barley, 590 upland rice, 524 sweet potatoes, and 399 paddy rice. All 627 farm families raise vegetables, a large proportion of the crop being sold in Tokyo. Four hundred and fifty-six families engage in sericulture, another important source of cash income.

"A total of 307 farm families own 320 head of cattle, including 73 milk cows. Milk is delivered to a milk processing plant at Isesaki, Gumma Prefecture. Two hundred families own 300 swine, and about 500 families own some 30,000 head of poultry. An unreported number of farmers also own horses.

"Sixty-two farm families have no sources of farm power except manpower. An additional 18 families have no machines and are dependet on animal power or manpower. There are a total of 570 motors (463 electric motors and 107 petroleum engines) in the village for farm use. One hundred and five farm families having such machines have no draft animals; 442 families have both machines and draft animals.

"As in most parts of Japan which have been investigated recently, the land market in Shichihongi is quiet and stable. Prices of first class paddy field are estimated at about ¥50,000 per tan; of first class upland, suitable for mulberry or vegetables, ¥30,000.

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"The farmers themselves estimate their average annual gross income at ¥200,000. In general, the economic stituation of the village and its farmers appears relatively stable and prosperous.

The Cooperative Itself

"In spite of the general prosperity of the community, however, the cooperative has suffered a number of vicissitudes, many of which illustrate problems common to a large proportion of Japan's new agricultural cooperatives.

"The cooperative was organized in April 1948 with a membership of 693, including three associate members, and with a capital of ¥648,000. It has 13 directors, 5 auditors, and 25 paid employees.

"At the end of the first business year, the organization had a surplus of ¥6,964.29. Of this amount, ¥4,000 was set aside as a reserve, and the balance was placed in an education and information fund for the coming business year. Member deposits totaled ¥10,195,053.37 as of 31 October 1948, the peak month of the year, and ¥5,184,605.23 as of 31 June 1948, the lowest month.

"The second year, ending 30 March 1950, told a different story, however. During this year the inflation leveled off, and cooperatives were faced with a number of new management problems. The deficit for this year was ¥537,125.62. This deficit was attributed to a number of causes, of which the most important were overemphasis on information and education with inadequate budget, provising too many services to farmers without charging adequate fees, inventory losses, and unnecessary overhead costs. The number of employee was increased first to 30 and later to 32, involving a substantial increase in personnel costs. The trial balance as of 30 November 1950 showed ¥1,115,000 in fixed assets, ¥2,530,000 in inventories, and ¥3,360,000 in loans outstanding, with deposits at nearly ¥20,000,000. Capital amounted to only ¥670,500, however. Accounts receivable came to ¥1,760,000. Of the loans outstanding, one, for ¥300,000, was to the prefectural guidance federation, and one of ¥100,000 was to the prefectural purchasing federation. Both were issued as advances on the initiative of the president without appropriate approval from the membership. The cooperative's accounts with these federations were thus financed with member deposits. At the same time, the cooperative owed ¥118,000 to members as interest on deposits.

"By October 1950, the seriousness of the cooperative's financial situation began to be apparent to the membership, and a few alert members began withdrawing deposits. By December daily withdrawals amounted to half a million yen, and on 6 January 1951, the cooperative was compelled to suspend payments on deposits.

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"At this point the membership itself began to mobilize to correct the deficiencies of their organization. Study clubs were formed to discuss the problem, and buraku meetings were held to inform the general membership of the issues involved.

"An extraordinary general membership meeting was held on 25 February 1951 to discuss resumption of payments on a limited basis. The prefectural credit federation had indicated that it would not make any further loans to the cooperative unless its board of directors was changed to include more competent men. Accordingly a complete slate of new officers was elected. It was further voted to amend the Articles of Association to require that the President of the Association be elected at general membership meetings instead of by the board of directors. The retiring president agreed to assume responsibility himself for the ¥400,000 loans made to the guidance and purchasing federations without appropriate approvals.

"A decision was also reached at the meeting to increase capitalization of the association by ¥3,000,000 in four years. It is anticipated that ¥2,000,000 of this amount will be raised during the current business year. Individual subscriptions will be prorated among members on the basis of the cultivation area of each farm. The cooperative has applied for a loan for encouraging reconstruction and rehabilitation of cooperatives under the Cooperative Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Law (Law No 140 of 1951, Weekly Summary No 287). However, to meet the standards imposed by this law, capital will have to be increased by ¥4,000,000 during the current year.

"The new board of directors has endeavored by every available means to eliminate unnecessary costs. The number of employees has been reduced from 32 to 11, and other savings have been made. A ¥5,000,000 loan from the prefectural credit federation was paid off in June and July of 1951.

"Limited deposit withdrawals were resumed following the meeting, and confidence in the association has been restored. Deposits as of 31 March 1951 were ¥10,829,334.13 as compared with ¥12,304,398.60 the previous year, but by 31 July 1951, a level of ¥10,460,000 had been reached. As of the same date, all debts outstanding to other financial institutions had been paid, and deposit withdrawals without restrictions had been resumed.

"If this cooperative continues on its present course, it will become one of the stablest and soundest in Saitama Prefecture. The general economic condition of the village is excellent, and the membership appears to have been fully awakened to the dangers of inattention to the affairs of the cooperative and to the need for informed membership participation in the association's work."

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FOOD POSITION AND COLLECTION

1. Collection of 1951 Rice as of 10 October 1951

COLLECTION OF 1951 RICE AS OF 10 OCTOBER 1951
(1,000 metric tons brown rice equivalents)

Crop	Delivery Quota	Collected Amount	Percent Quota Fulfilled
1951 a/	b/	298.9	b/
1950 c/	4,326.4	367.4	8.5
1949 d/	4,481.8	237.1	5.3

a/ As of 10 October 1951 excluding substitutes.
b/ Delivery quota has not been decided.
c/ As of 10 October 1950
d/ As of 10 October 1949
SOURCE: Food Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

CROP PRODUCTION AND REPORTING

1. Plan for Personnel Reduction in Crop Reporting Service

a. On 5 October 1951 the Japanese Cabinet approved a plan for reducing personnel in the Statistics and Survey Division, Agricultural Improvement Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry as part of the over-all plan for reducing the number of government employees. The approved plan calls for a reduction of 43.7 percent as compared to a reduction of 96.5 percent originally proposed by the Administrative Advisory Council. The matter will be submitted to the next session of the Diet at which time final action will be taken.

b. The proposed reduction is not as serious as it appears because the government is planning to decontrol wheat and barley in January and rice after completion of this year's delivery quotas, thus reducing the need for crop estimates at the gun (county) level. The Statistics and Survey Division still will have adequate personnel to prepare accurate estimates at the national level.

2. Estimated Production 1951 Rice

a. The second estimate of rice production for 1951 as of 26 September 1951 was released on 20 October 1951 by the Statistics and Survey Division, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Total harvested area and production are estimated at 3,012,000 hectares and 9,435,000 metric

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tons. Production is estimated to be about two percent less than the forecast of 31 August. Cool weather during the ripening season adversly affected production in the northern regions.

b. Final estimates of 1950 and forecasts for 1951 rice area and production are as shown below and on page 25.

ESTIMATED TOTAL RICE AREA, YIELD, AND PRODUCTION, 1950 AND 1951

Region	Harvested Area (1,000 Ha) 1950	1951	Yield Per Hectare (MT) 1950	1951	Production (1,000 MT) 1950	1951
Hokkaido	143	145	3.29	2.65	470	384
Tohoku	532	534	3.42	3.25	1,822	1,735
Kanto	470	482	3.01	2.93	1,413	1,410
Hokuriku	343	345	3.16	3.47	1,084	1,197
Tozan	152	151	3.44	3.39	523	512
Tokai	216	217	3.26	3.20	705	695
Kinki	272	271	3.33	3.37	905	914
Chugoku	295	294	3.16	3.04	933	894
Shikoku	138	139	2.83	2.89	391	400
Kyushu	433	434	3.24	2.98	1,405	1,294
TOTAL	2,994	3,012	3.22	3.13	9,652	9,435

SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

ESTIMATED PADDY RICE AREA, YIELD, AND PRODUCTION, 1950 AND 1951

Region	Harvested Area (1,000 ha) 1950	1951	Yield Per Hectare (MT) 1950	1951	Production (1,000 MT) 1950	1951
Hokkaido	143	145	3.29	2.65	470	384
Tohoku	531	532	3.43	3.26	1,820	1,733
Kanto	385	393	3.24	3.30	1,246	1,298
Hokuriku	343	345	3.16	3.47	1,084	1,197
Tozan	148	148	3.49	3.43	516	507
Tokai	208	209	3.33	3.27	692	683
Kinki	272	271	3.32	3.37	904	914
Chugoku	294	293	3.17	3.05	932	893
Shikoku	137	138	2.85	2.89	390	399
Kyushu	400	401	3.40	3.15	1,359	1,263
TOTAL	2,861	2,875	3.29	3.22	9,413	9,271

SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

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ESTIMATED UPLAND RICE AREA, YIELD, AND PRODUCTION, 1950 AND 1951

Region	Harvested Area (1,000 ha) 1950	1951	Yield Per Hectare (MT) 1950	1951	Production (1,000 MT) 1950	1951
Hokkaido	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tohoku	1	2	2.00	2.00	2	2
Kanto	85	89	1.96	1.26	167	112
Hokuriku	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tozan	4	3	1.75	1.67	7	5
Tokai	8	8	1.62	1.50	13	12
Kinki	0	0	0	0	1	0
Chugoku	1	1	1.00	1.00	1	1
Shikoku	1	1	1.00	1.00	1	1
Kyushu	33	33	1.39	0.94	46	31
TOTAL	133	137	1.79	1.20	238	164

3. Forecast of Sweet Potato Production for 1951

a. The Statistics Division of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry released on 20 October 1951 the forecast of sweet potato production for 1951 as of 10 September 1951. Yields are estimated to be 92.8 percent of normal, and production is expected to be 5,020,000 metric tons from the estimated 375,000 hectares planted, a yield of 13.39 metric tons per hectare. From the 1950 area of 398,000 hectares, the final production estimate was 6,292,000 metric tons, a yield of 15.60 metric tons per hectare.

FERTILIZER

1. Imports of Commercial Fertilizers, 1926-50

a. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry reported imports of commercial fertilizers in Japan during 1926-50. The data reproduced on pages 26-30 represent revisions and additions to data contained in Tables 10-12 of Natural Resources Section Report No 55, Fertilizers in Japan. Revised data for other portion of Report No 55 were published in Weekly Summary Nos 300, 302-304.

IMPORTS OF COMMERCIAL NITROGENOUS a/ FERTILIZERS INTO JAPAN BY CALENDAR YEARS, 1926-50
(1,000 metric tons)

Year	Inorganic						Organic b/					Grand Total
	Ammonium Sulfate	Calcium Cyanamide	Sodium Nitrate	Ammonium Nitrate	Synthesized Fertilizer	Total	Soybean Meal	Other Oil Cake Meal	Fish Meal	Bone Meal	Total	
1926	296	3	50	0	8	357	407	46	27	7	487	844
1927	250	7	43	0	16	316	374	37	28	8	445	761
1928	284	3	41	0	37	365	307	41	33	7	388	753
1929	381	15	69	0	55	520	267	37	37	8	349	869
1930	321	4	24	0	22	371	281	38	38	6	363	734
1931	277	c/	27	0	12	316	326	38	39	7	410	726
1932	244	0	18	0	2	264	198	30	41	6	275	539
1933	197	4	27	0	0	228	176	34	29	7	246	474
1934	246	5	31	0	0	282	228	38	41	6	313	595
1935	310	0	48	0	8	366	161	39	41	6	247	613
1936	371	0	63	0	39	473	155	41	45	7	248	721
1937	242	0	34	0	1	277	135	38	56	8	235	512
1938	319	0	21	0	0	340	202	14	85	4	305	645
1939	146	0	21	0	0	167	273	24	49	5	351	518
1940	205	0	150	0	0	355	116	21	18	5	160	515
1941	124	0	35	0	0	159	117	16	20	2	155	314
1942	110	0	2	0	0	112	145	14	12	1	172	284
1943	71	0	0	0	0	71	94	4	12	1	111	182
1944	4	0	0	0	0	4	119	5	4	c/	128	132
1945	39	0	0	0	0	39	45	1	0	0	46	85
1946	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1947	0	0	0	400	0	400	c/	0	0	0	c/	400
1948	0	0	0	470	0	470	1	0	0	0	1	471
1949	0	0	0	320	0	320	10	1	0	0	11	331
1950 d/	212	0	0	144	0	356	3	c/	0	0	3	359

a/ Expressed as ammonium sulfate equivalents, 20 percent nitrogen (N) content.
b/ Includes materials used for purposes other than fertilizers
c/ Less than 1,000 metric tons
d/ Estimated for organic
SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

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IMPORTS OF COMMERCIAL PHOSPHATIC a/ FERTILIZERS
INTO JAPAN BY CALENDAR YEARS, 1926-50
(1,000 metric tons)

Year	Inorganic: Synthesized Fertilizer	Organic b/: Soybean Meal	Other Oil Cake Meal	Fish Meal	Bone Meal	Total	Grand Total
1926	6	83	28	21	48	180	186
1927	13	76	22	20	49	167	180
1928	30	62	25	26	47	160	190
1929	44	54	22	29	52	157	201
1930	18	57	23	29	40	149	167
1931	10	66	23	30	49	168	178
1932	1	40	18	31	42	131	132
1933	0	36	20	22	45	123	123
1934	0	46	23	31	37	137	137
1935	7	33	23	32	39	127	134
1936	31	31	25	35	47	138	169
1937	1	27	23	43	39	132	133
1938	0	41	9	66	29	145	145
1939	0	56	14	38	35	143	143
1940	0	24	13	14	30	81	81
1941	0	24	10	15	16	65	65
1942	0	29	8	10	9	56	56
1943	0	19	3	9	9	40	40
1944	0	24	3	3	3	33	33
1945	0	9	c/	0	0	9	9
1946	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1947	3 d/	c/	0	0	0	c/	3
1948	0	c/	0	0	0	c/	c/
1949	0	2	1	0	0	3	3
1950 e/	0	1	c/	0	0	1	1

a/ Expressed as superphosphate equivalents, 16 percent phosphoric acid (P_2O_5) content.
b/ Includes materials used for purposes other than fertilizers.
c/ Less than 1,000 metric tons
d/ Imported superphosphate
e/ Estimated for organic
SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

IMPORTS OF PHOSPHATE ROCK a/ BY CALENDAR YEAR, 1926-50
(1,000 metric tons)

Year	Ocean	Nauru	Christmas	Makatea	Florida	Kosseir	Safage	Gafasa	Idaho	Morocco	French Indo-China
1926	0	0	100	43	122	111	33	6	0	0	0
1927	0	0	101	51	124	102	43	0	0	0	0
1928	0	0	98	64	155	101	13	0	0	0	0
1929	0	0	120	63	199	58	66	0	0	0	0
1930	0	0	96	44	228	97	57	0	0	0	0
1931	0	0	66	35	210	41	28	0	0	0	0
1932	30	0	71	47	161	156	63	0	0	0	0
1933	7	31	77	40	142	122	129	48	0	0	0
1934	17	30	93	70	211	124	102	35	0	0	0
1935	23	16	113	112	242	138	129	0	0	0	0
1936	41	0	119	112	263	194	106	0	0	0	0
1937	45	9	120	140	284	202	116	21	0	0	0
1938	40	0	104	92	163	101	90	9	0	0	0
1939	41	0	127	137	257	145	80	0	0	0	0
1940	119	33	186	156	229	4	6	0	0	0	c/
1941	0	0	79	136	120	0	0	0	0	0	21
1942	0	0	c/	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68
1943	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	65
1944	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
1945	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1946	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	58	50	0
1947	0	0	0	0	283	0	0	0	676	0	0
1948	0	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	273	0	0
1949	0	0	0	0	106	0	0	0	60	0	0
1950	0	0	0	86	545	178	38	0	0	0	0

(Cont'd)

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IMPORTS OF PHOSPHATE ROCK a/ BY CALENDAR YEAR, 1926-50 (Cont'd)
(1,000 metric tons)

Year	Haichow	Angaur	Fais	Rota	Saipan	Ebon	Rasa	Kita-daito	Korea	Others b/	Total
1926	0	64	0	0	0	0	70	14	0	7	570
1927	0	61	0	0	0	0	43	15	0	8	548
1928	0	63	0	0	0	0	34	0	0	20	548
1929	0	60	0	0	0	0	c/	0	0	27	593
1930	0	57	0	0	0	0	0	c/	0	35	614
1931	0	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	445
1932	0	47	0	0	0	0	0	24	0	33	632
1933	0	74	0	0	0	0	5	26	0	25	786
1934	0	65	0	0	0	0	17	24	0	17	805
1935	0	78	0	0	0	0	28	39	0	30	948
1936	0	89	0	0	0	0	49	40	0	57	1,070
1937	0	91	0	10	0	0	54	35	0	72	1,199
1938	0	104	14	50	6	0	62	31	0	51	917
1939	0	143	44	44	21	0	53	35	0	65	1,192
1940	19	122	27	52	26	2	45	47	0	39	1,112
1941	64	134	65	17	3	14	37	43	1	55	792
1942	75	127	87	42	15	14	48	63	27	13	579
1943	68	98	40	17	15	0	60	68	21	5	461
1944	70	26	3	4	3	0	18	23	35	2	187
1945	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	35
1946	16	54	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	00	195
1947	0	161	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0	1,129
1948	0	84	0	0	0	0	0	27	0	0	419
1949	0	157	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	0	339
1950	0	155	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,002

a/ Includes materials used for purpose other than fertilizer.
b/ Figures up to 1945 include quantities imported from Morocco.
c/ Less than 1,000 metric tons
SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

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IMPORTS OF COMMERCIAL POTASSIC a/ FERTILIZERS INTO JAPAN BY CALENDAR YEARS, 1926-50
(1,000 metric tons)

Year	Inorganic			Organic			Grand Total
	Potassium Sulfate	Potassium Chloride	Total	Soybean Meal	Other Oil Cake Meal	Total b/	
1926	26	7	33	39	4	43	76
1927	30	16	46	36	3	39	85
1928	34	28	62	30	3	33	95
1929	52	34	86	26	3	29	115
1930	65	30	95	27	3	30	125
1931	37	36	73	32	3	35	108
1932	18	18	36	19	2	21	57
1933	22	42	64	17	3	20	84
1934	47	57	104	22	3	25	129
1935	81	96	177	16	3	19	196
1936	69	99	168	15	3	18	186
1937	134	139	273	13	3	16	289
1938	108	72	180	20	1	21	201
1939	84	93	177	26	2	28	205
1940	27	117	144	11	2	13	157
1941	1	47	48	11	1	12	60
1942	0	1	1	14	1	15	16
1943	0	8	8	9	c/	9	17
1944	0	0	0	12	c/	12	12
1945	0	0	0	4	c/	4	4
1946	0	46	46	0	0	0	46
1947	0	50	50	c/	0	c/	50
1948	2	37	39	c/	0	c/	39
1949	11	198	209	1	c/	1	210
1950 d/	36	233	269	c/	c/	c/	269

a/ Expressed as potassium sulfate equivalents, 50 percent potassium oxide (K_2O) content.
b/ Includes materials used for purposes other than fertilizers.
c/ Less than 1,000 metric tons
d/ Estimated for organic
SOURCE: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

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FISHERIES

WHALING

1. Completion of New Whaling Factory Ship, Nisshin Maru

a. A formal reception to announce the completion of the new whaling factory ship Nisshin Maru was held on board the vessel on 6 October 1951. The vessel is about 23,000 dead weight kilo tons and 17,600 gross kilo tons. The vessel is capable of processing 30 blue whales a day.

b. The Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, General Mathew B. Ridgway, accompanied by Mrs Ridgway, attended the ceremony. Other guests included Lt Col H. B. Donaldson, Acting Chief, Natural Resources Section; Rear Admiral R. A. Ofstie, Chief of Staff, Naval Forces Far East, and Rear Admiral K. M. McManes, Commander Fleet Activities, Yokosuka Naval Base. An opportunity was afforded for the members of the party to inspect the ship and the processing equipment.

2. Departure of Baikal Maru, Mother Ship of Japanese Sperm Whaling Expedition

a. The Baikal Maru, mother ship of the Japanese sperm whaling expedition, accompanied by five catcher boats departed Osaka on 15 October 1951 for the Antarctic. The vessel is of 6,000 gross tons and belong to the Polar Whaling Co. The fleet will operate for approximately 70 days, and the company hopes that the catch will amount to as much as 400 sperm whales. The license issued by the Fisheries Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, permits the vessel to take only sperm whales. Two inspectors from the Fisheries Agency are on board the vessel to assure compliance with Japanese regulations and the terms of the International Whaling Convention.

b. This is the first time in the history of Japanese whaling that Japan has dispatched an expedition to the Antarctic for the sole purpose of taking sperm whales. The Baikal Maru operated in the Bonin Islands in the 1949, 1950, and 1951 seasons.

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PRODUCTS

1. Reported Fuelwood Production and Stockpiles, August 1951

a. Reported fuelwood production in August 1951 shows an increase of 51.1 percent in charcoal and also an increase of 4.3 percent in firewood from July 1951. Gasumaki production was 22.7 percent lower than July 1951 and 26.2 percent below August 1950. The reported stockpile of charcoal is 13.4 percent higher than July 1951 but 2.5 percent lower than August 1950. Production and stockpiles of wood fuels in August 1951 are shown:

FUELWOOD PRODUCTION AND STOCKPILES
August 1951

Product	Unit	Production	Stockpiles at End of Month
Charcoal	Metric tons	172,683	128,607
Firewood	Soseki-koku	2,104,240	ND
Gasumaki a/	Metric tons	10,728	ND

a/ Small blocks of wood used for fuel in internal combustion engines
ND: No data available
SOURCE: Forestry Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

2. Reported Production and Stockpiles of Logs, Lumber, and Plywood, August 1951

a. Reported output of forest products in Japan showed an increase of 10.5 percent in August 1951. Production of mine timber increased 46.8 percent and pulpwood increased 21.6 percent. Sawlog production showed an increase of 6.5 percent, and other logs increased 1.9 percent. Lumber production increased 6.3 percent and was 48.5 percent above August 1950.

b. The log stockpile at the end of August 1951 showed an increase of 2.6 percent over the stockpiles at the end of July 1951. Lumber stockpiles were 3.4 percent higher than July and 28.8 percent above August 1950.

c. Reported production and stockpiles of logs, lumber, and plywood for July 1951 are shown on page 33.

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REPORTED PRODUCTION AND STOCKPILES OF LOGS, LUMBER, AND PLYWOOD
August 1951

Product	Unit	Production	Stockpiles at End of Month
All logs			
General use logs			
Saw logs	Cubic feet	44,640,100	91,550,300
Other logs	Cubic feet	7,041,100	13,252,700
Subtotal	Cubic feet	51,681,200	104,803,000
Railroad ties	Cubic feet	703,600	2,679,800
Veneer logs	Cubic feet	514,900	4,970,500
Mine timber	Cubic feet	5,701,600	10,054,000
Telephone poles	Cubic feet	514,000	1,017,100
Piling	Cubic feet	172,000	413,700
Pulpwood	Cubic feet	11,064,200	21,674,400
TOTAL	Cubic feet	70,351,500	145,612,500
Lumber	Broad feet	524,028,000	372,564,000
Plywood	Square feet	64,866,000	27,761,000

SOURCE: Forestry Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

GENERAL

1. Regional Meeting on Land Utilization in Tropical Areas of Asia and the Far East

a. A representative of Natural Resources Section was placed on loan to the Department of State, United States of America, and was designated and served as an adviser on the United States delegation to the Food and Agriculture Organization Regional Meeting on Land Utilization in Tropical Areas of Asia and the Far East. The meeting was held at Nuwara Eliya, Ceylon, 17-29 September 1951. Other countries and organizations in attendance were Australia, Belgium, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, France, India, Indonesia, Portugal, United Kingdom, Viet Nam, Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, and the Holy See.

b. The main objectives of the meeting were to examine and analyze the causes responsible for the improper land use resulting in the deterioration of natural and national resources, and to formulate the

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basic elements of a rational land utilization program capable of practical implementation to correct these defects. The special importance of the meeting to the region was predominantly agricultural. The interchange of ideas among the many experts who had assembled will contribute largely to the solution of many land use problems in the region.

c. The working agenda of the meeting was divided into pertinent phases of land utilization as follows:

(1) Determining the best use of tropical land and water resources. Under this topic were discussed classification of agricultural regions, mapping of soils, measurement of water resources, economic land use classifications, collection and analysis of land utilization statistics, and determination of agricultural price policy.

(2) Preventing undesirable uses and bringing about approved uses of land and water resources. Topics of concern here were the elimination of shifting agriculture, the establishment of grazing reserves and forests, the development and protection of agricultural lands, watershed management, and the need for a permanent national land and water commission.

(3) Preserving and improving the productivity of tropical land and water resources during use. Here were discussed research, promotion of soil and water conservation on cultivable land, prevention of over-grazing, improvement of forest practice and land tenure arrangements, and consolidation of fragmented holdings.

d. Conclusions and recommendations reached by the meeting will be submitted to the countries represented by the delegates. The fundamental conclusion reached was that the mapping and classification of land systems is essential in determining the base use of tropical land and water resources. A survey of selected land systems according to soil associations and vegetation communities is one major need. The implementation of land use policies will be improved by land capability and economic use surveys coupled with the development of sound extension surveys and marketing facilities. The representatives were impressed with the destructive effect of shifting cultivation and the low economic position of the people who follow this practice. The delegates concluded that sound remedial action must be based on a clearer knowledge of causes and present conditions; that past measures have failed because of the purely technological approach to the problem; and that the aid of a sociologist oriented on the technical phases of the problem would contribute toward a more permanent and successful solution.

e. The meeting recognized that: (1) land which is better adapted by its nature for forestry than for other economic uses should

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be maintained in forests, and if cleared, should be reforested where necessary; (2) where conversion of land now in forests to other uses is proposed, the suitability of the land for the alternative use should be investigated carefully and the economic consequences studied; (3) in deciding which lands should be maintained in forests, consideration should be given to the value of forests in safeguarding water supplies and soil fertility and in preventing damage to rivers and agricultural land by flooding and erosion; (4) consideration should also be given to the provision of local supplies of forest products for agricultural, domestic, and industrial purposes as well as to the desirability of some countries serving as a source of forest products for other countries. In the last respect, hope was expressed that the tropical forests of the region can be a major source of wood products supplies to those temperate countries of Asia and the Far East which are clearly dependent upon wood importation for domestic and industrial purposes until such time as their own forest areas are rehabilitated to the extent of meeting indigenous requirements.

f. The delegates were impressed with the necessity for teamwork among experts in various technical fields in all land use considerations. They proposed that, wherever possible, the practices of having several specialized officers working together on one investigation should be adopted.

g. Many agricultural failures in the tropics are the result of applying temperate zone experience and research on soil management. Conferees pointed out that the physical properties of soils may be of greater importance than their inherent fertility status.

h. As a basis for the improvement of forestry practices on public and private lands, the meeting called attention to the need for (1) the adoption by each country of a sound national forest policy, (2) the enactment of suitable enforceable legislation to implement this policy, (3) the training of sufficient competent staff, (4) the initiation of systematic and comprehensive research on forest problems, and (5) the provision of programs to educate the people on forest policy and programs. The meeting recommended that investigation and research be directed toward the utilization of second class species to supplement and replace for special use the conventional species in short supply, and toward the use of the small dimension timber of all species as raw material for the cellulose industry.

i. The meeting, as a summary of all its deliberations, submitted the following fundamental principles:

(1) The first principle affirms that the basic facts concerning land, water, and other resources, their inherent characteristics, potentialities, and economic uses should be sought and compiled in a comprehensive resource-inventory before plans or decisions concerning their development are made.

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(2) The second principle affirms that the information obtained from resource-inventories should be the basis for planning the integrated development of a region and its varied resources.

j. The meeting believes that the application of these two principles offers the greatest promise for permanent regional developments and for their highest contribution to better living.

2. NR Report on Properties and Uses of Commercially Important Japanese Woods

a. Natural Resources Section Report No 147, Properties and Uses of Commercially Important Japanese Woods, was published in October 1951. The planning of this report, the original text, and the compilation of data were undertaken by Mr H. D. Bruce, formerly scientific consultant, Forestry Division. Tabular data were coordinated and checked by Dr R. A. Cockrell, forest research specialist. Final text and arrangement of the material were the work of Mr Laurence J. Cummings, Head, Forestry Branch.

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MINING AND GEOLOGY

GENERAL

1. The Mineral Industry of Formosa in 1951

a. A staff memebr of Natural Resources Section recently went to Formosa to examine the mineral industry of the island and make recommendations regarding development and improvement. He reported the following conditions and conclusions.

(1) An export business in minerals or mineral products from Formosa could reach substantial value.

(2) Principal obstacles are financial difficulties, lack of modern techniques, and lack of transportation.

(3) Formosa has substantial reserves of coal, limestone, pyrite, copper, and gold. All these can be produced in exportable quantities. In addition, there are lesser known reserves of many other minerals such as sulfur, asbestos, petroleum, clay, and manganese.

(4) Coal reserves are large, and coal is the most important mineral commodity produced in Formosa at present. Heavy use is made of local supplies for both transportation and manufacturing purposes. Keelung was formerly an important coaling station for foreign ships. Principal coal mining areas are in north central Formosa in the area south of Keelung. Most of the coal mined comes from the "middle seam" which is about 2 1/2 feet thick, but a "lower seam" is sometimes worked where the thickness averages about 12 inches. Usually the dip of the coal is between 20 and 45 degrees; consequently mines are not amenable to large scale mechanized mining methods. Miners work the seam with small hand picks and slide the coal down to main haulage levels in long baskets. The coal seams occur in sandstone and shales of Miocene and Pliocene age. Coking coal is treated in small brick beehive ovens and the coke used in chemical plants.

(5) Pyrite is used in Formosa for the manufacture of sulfuric acid necessary for fertilizer production and many other manufacturing processes. Residue from pyrite roasting makes a high-grade iron material for blast or open hearth furnaces after it is sintered. Formosa has ample reserves of pyrite for all fertilizer and chemical plants. However, much of the crude sulfide ore will require milling to raise the grade and separate the small percent of copper sulfide contained in these ores.

(6) Limestone is important as a raw material for cement and other products. Formosa can produce enough cement for all domestic uses and a large export trade when mining techniques are improved. At

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present a market exists for all cement that can possibly be produced. Formosa limestone is also used in sugar refining; it is not of the best quality for this purpose but can be used successfully. Possibilities for large amounts of agricultural limestone have not yet been investigated thoroughly, but a large consumption is indicated. Calcium carbide manufacture using limestone can be increased when sufficient power is available. A limestone formation extends almost the entire length of the island, and reserves are ample.

(7) Gold is one of Formosa's most important mineral products; although it has little industrial use it is helpful in financing programs of importance to the economy of the country and serving as a currency base. The principal gold mines are lode mines on the northeast end of Formosa and in some cases gold is mined from parts of the copper-pyrite deposits.

(8) Sulfur is produced in Formosa. It is used in the manufacture of fertilizers, insecticides, chemicals, textiles, and paper. The Pehtou volcanic-type sulfur deposits near Taipei are not amenable to large-scale mechanized mining methods. Known sulfur deposits are erratic and disseminated over a wide area, so that mining is confined to the rich spots. In several mines, fractures and fissures in the contact zone between sandstone and andesite are impregnated with sulfur. Hot springs and vents emitting steam and sulfur gases are plentiful throughout the mining area.

(9) The Japanese mined some metallurgical grade manganese ore in Formosa.

(10) Mica, asbestos, and graphite are known to occur in Formosa and have been mined to some extent.

(11) Petroleum production in Formosa has declined to a very small amount.

COAL

1. Coal Production in Japan

a. At present, a serious shortage of coal exists in Japan. It is caused not by any major reduction or shortcomings in mine production but largely by an unforeseen, unusual, and sudden demand for coal. Targets for coal production during 1951 were set up during April, and in almost every mining district the actual output has exceeded the planned target estimate as shown in table on page 39 by the September 1951 record.

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COAL PRODUCTION, SEPTEMBER 1951
(metric tons)

District	Plan	Output	Percent of Plan
Hokkaido	1,052,000	1,091,100	103.7
Eastern Honshu			
Joban	290,000	338,200	116.7
Others	23,000	21,700	94.3
Western Honshu			
Yamaguchi	227,000	269,000	118.5
Others	3,000	3,800	126.7
Kyushu	1,957,000	1,959,400	100.1
TOTAL	3,552,000	3,683,200	103.7

b. During the second quarter of 1951, about 11,051,800 metric tons of coal was produced in Japan and 543,038 tons imported. Largely owing to the long drought in mid-1951 and to a rapidly expanding industrial demand there was an unprecedented consumption of coal supplies for industry and thermal power. Production was not sufficient to meet this demand so that normal stockpiles were reduced to a two- or three-day supply. The major coal consumption season is approaching and, to make the situation desperate, a nationwide strike of coal miners threatened in October. Furthermore, as power is necessary to mine coal, a power shortage is a major problem to producers.

c. Fortunately the October rains somewhat alleviated the hydroelectric power situation and took some of the pressure off the thermal power plants. On 12 October a major strike was settled and a nationwide strike threat was avoided. The serious problem of meeting an increasing demand for coal, however, still remains.

d. Estimates of coal consumption for next year 1/ are about 47 or 48 million tons. Production goals for the 1951 fiscal year have been revised upward from 43 million tons to 45 million tons. To fulfill the 1951 goal means an increase of 12 percent in production over that in the first six months, which was 21,500,000 tons.

e. Economy and efficiency in coal utilization can do much to relieve shortages. For the long range program the following possibilities are suggested: utilization of lignites for power plants, reduction of dust coal losses in stacks (possibly by briquetting), and efficient gas making from low-grade solid fuels as in Germany.

1/ Japanese fiscal year, 1 April 1952-31 March 1953.

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f. Immediate difficulties that beset the coal operator are (1) lack of certain supplies such as mine timber, (2) financial trouble in obtaining funds to carry small operators over development periods, (3) loss in fine coals.

PETROLEUM

1. Present Status of Mobara Natural Gas Field, Chiba

a. At present the natural gas production in Mobara field, Chiba Prefecture, is the largest in the Pacific coastal area of Japan. The field is located in Nagao-gun about 50 kilometers southeast of Tokyo and some 20 kilometers southeast of the city of Chiba, the administrative center of Chiba Prefecture.

b. The development work of the Otaki Natural Gas Co has been carried out since 1937. The company holds some 80,000,000 tsubo of mining rights and has already drilled more than 100 wells with an average production of 650 cubic meters per well per day.

c. The drilling has been carried out wholly by the rotary system, and the depth range from 300 to 600 meters in most wells. There are several gas bearing zones. Gas is gathered by suction pumps, which are installed in four stations, and is conducted to the main storage tanks by a 6" pipe line.

d. The gas is carried by water, which also contains a considerable amount of iodine. The latter has been extracted economically by a simple method, and the monthly production is about one ton.

e. The gas is utilized for several industrial and domestic purposes such as glass manufacture, small iron works, a gas-driven railway train, and domestic uses. The largest consumer at present is the Hidachi Manufacturing Works which is located in the center of the producing area.

f. The amount of water and gas does not decline noticeably during first and second years but declines sharply after two years. The company recently adopted the tubing flow method instead of casing flow of gas.

g. According to the company's estimate the gas reserve of the area is calculated 31,800,000,000 cubic meters within the company's holding of 33 mining claims involving 27,587,000 tsubo in Chiba Prefecture.

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2. Exploration for Methane Gas in Southern Kanto Region

a. The success of the first exploration test well for methane gas in Koto-ku, northern Tokyo, in April 1951, drilled under contract by the Tomi Drilling Co for the Musashino Natural Gas Research Institute, has stimulated considerable interest in this new fuel source now available for use in the Tokyo area. Other companies are planning to explore for and engage in the production of methane gas in the southern Kanto region.

b. The success of the first well climaxed the efforts of geologists of the Geological Survey of Japan and of the Mining and Geology Division of the Natural Resources Section to encourage the drilling of this wildcat to test their belief in the existence of natural methane gas in the area northwest of Tokyo Bay. This belief was based on geological considerations, supported by geophysical evidence.

c. Since the discovery well was completed with a daily production of 1,300 cubic meters of gas, the Musashino Natural Gas Research Institute has drilled another well 600 meters south of the discovery location, which is now producing 1,800 cubic meters daily. An outpost well located about 10 kilometers northeast of the discovery well was also drilled to 700 meters but the lower gas horizon, at 500 to 600 meters in the first two wells, has not yet been reached and is somewhat deeper than anticipated. Drilling is now suspended at this location until the result of the intermediate well located between the Koto-ku wells and the present well is known. This intermediate well is now drilling at about 400 meters. Another exploitation well will soon begin drilling at a location about 1,100 meters southeast of the Koto-ku wells.

d. The recently established Showa Natural Gas Co, which holds leases in the Kawasaki area midway between Tokyo and Yokohama, drilled to 600 meters at Kawasaki, but the production of methane gas was only about 800 cubic meters daily. The small production from this well, however, is not regarded as discouraging because it appears that invasion of the producing formations by the drilling fluid has reduced the natural flow and the methods used in completing the well were not entirely satisfactory. After the specific mechanical reasons for the small production from this well are determined, another well will soon be drilled in this area.

e. In Chiba Prefecture the Otaki Natural Gas Co, which operates the Mobara methane gas field on the Boso Peninsula about 20 kilometers southeast of Chiba city, is planning an exploration test at Chiba city itself. Another company has begun drilling a test well to 500 meters at Futtsu, about 35 kilometers southwest of Chiba city, near the shore of Tokyo Bay.

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f. The Saitama prefectural authorities are planning to support the drilling of a test well at Soka, Saitama Prefecture, about 15 kilometers north of the Musashino Natural Gas Research Institute's successful wells at Koto-ku.

g. The group of widely spaced outpost wells, at Chiba city, Futtsu, Soka, and Kawasaki, was planned by the Petroleum Resources Development Promotion Council with the object of connecting the productive area of the Mobara gas field in Chiba Prefecture with the recently proved productive area in northern Tokyo, and to extend the limits of the productive area to the north and south of the present proved area at the northwest corner of Tokyo Bay. If these outposts are successful, the proved productive area in the southern Kanto basin will be much greater than that of Japan's largest methane gas field at Niigata, and the potentialities of this new fuel source for both transportation and industrial use, located in the most densely populated and highly industrialized area in Japan, will be enormous. Locations of the various wells are shown in the map on page 43.

h. The natural methane gas fields of Japan are quite different from the natural gas fields of the United States, where the gas is generally associated with or related to the occurrence of oil. The natural methane gas found in Japan has no direct relation whatever to the occurrence of oil, and the commercial accumulations of methane gas occur in solution in the saline artesian waters of large slightly warped basins or gently dipping monoclines of late Pliocene age. In contrast to accumulations of petroleum, which are always found at the highest structural level to which the oil and gas can migrate from its source, the greatest productivity of methane gas is generally found in the deepest and structurally lowest areas of these artesian basins. The natural gas produced from these saline artesian waters contains at most only a slight trace of heavy hydrocarbons and consists principally of methane (85 to 97 percent) with minor quantities of oxygen, carbon dioxide, and nitrogen.

i. When the artesian reservoir is tapped by drilling, the water flows from the well-head by virtue of the hydrostatic pressure exerted from up-dip. The methane gas is contained in solution in the waters of the artesian reservoir and, on reaching the surface, comes out of solution and separates from the water at atmospheric pressure to yield a somewhat greater volume of gas (at atmospheric pressure) than the volume of artesian water produced by the well.

j. Although the quantity of production from even the best methane gas wells in Japan is only a fraction of that usually obtained from gas wells in the United States, the production of this resource in Japan can be very profitable as is evidenced by the rapid development of the Niigata methane gas field by private enterprise during the past several years.

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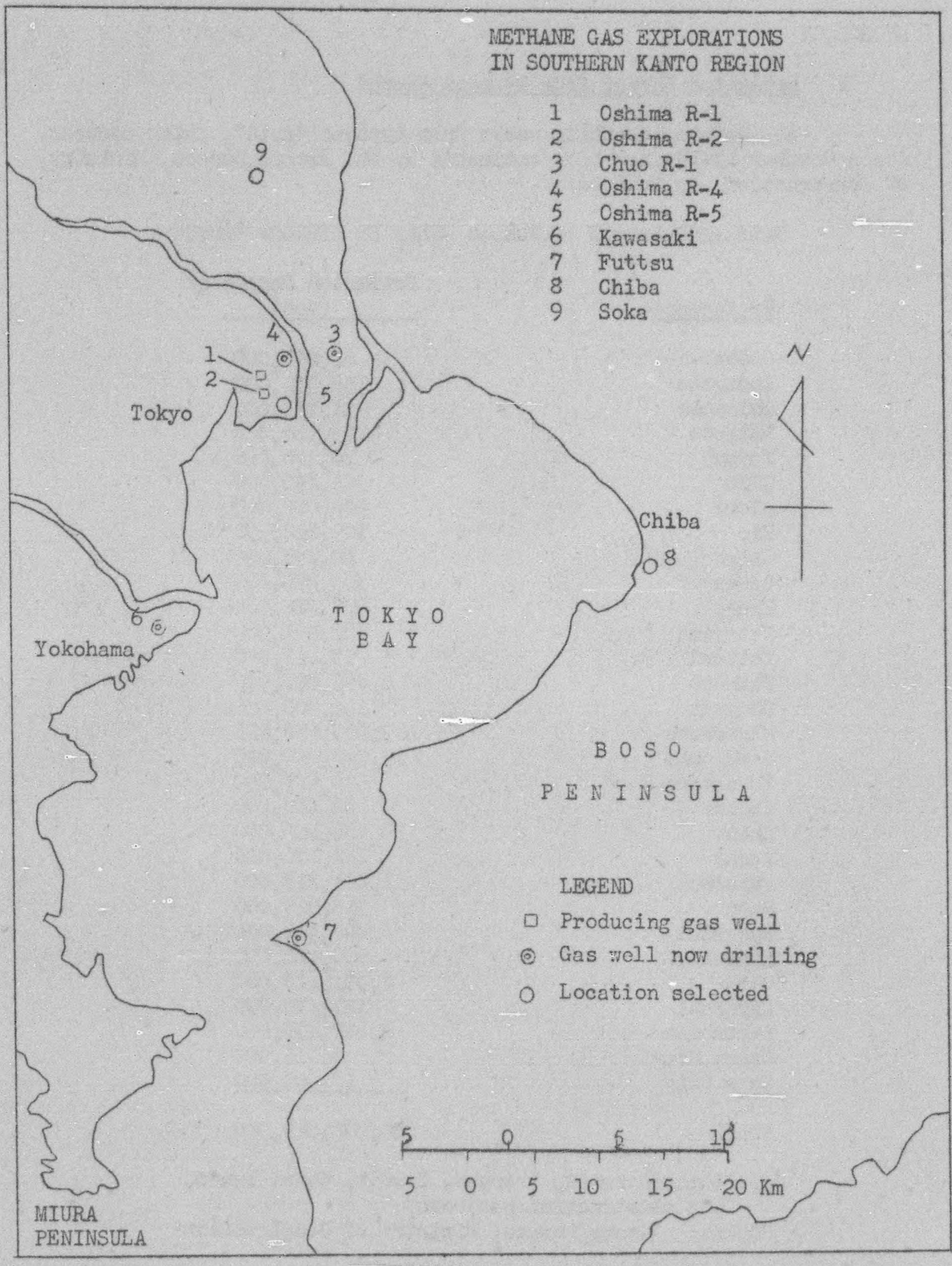

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HYDROLOGY

1. Estimated Damage from Typhoon "Ruth"

a. Damage to public works from typhoon "Ruth", which struck Japan October 14-15, has been estimated by the Rivers Bureau, Ministry of Construction, as follows:

ESTIMATED DAMAGE TO PUBLIC WORKS BY TYPHOON "RUTH"

Prefecture	Estimated Damage a/ (yen)
Chiba	61,200,000
Kanagawa	158,384,000
Shizuoka	31,735,000
Niigata	293,910,000
Toyama	10,150,000
Gifu	95,430,000
Aichi	909,000,000
Mie	709,842,000
Shiga	10,159,000
Osaka	365,878,000
Hyogo	307,218,000
Wakayama	502,051,000
Tottori	93,487,000
Shimane	1,050,000,000
Okayama	184,700,000
Hiroshima	3,003,692,000
Yamaguchi	11,700,000,000
Tokushima	636,629,000
Kagawa	52,416,000
Ehime	576,108,000
Kochi	282,176,000
Fuluoka	1,161,218,000
Saga	318,927,000
Nagasaki	200,312,000
Kumamoto	500,000,000
Oita	2,374,187,000
Miyazaki	581,470,000
Kagoshima	1,887,439,000
Osaka City	6,111,000
Kobe City	15,000,000
TOTAL	28,078,829,000

a/ Damaged roads, bridges, levees, coast lands, and construction projects.

SOURCE: Rivers Bureau, Ministry of Construction

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EDITORIAL AND PRODUCTION

1. Report Completed

a. Report No 147, Properties and Uses of Commercially Important Japanese Woods, October 1951.

2. Report in Preparation

a. Report No 148, Agricultural Program in Japan, 1945-51, October 1951.

3. Preliminary Study in Preparation

a. Preliminary Study No 67, Pelagic Fur Seal Research Off Japan in 1950, October 1951.

HUBERT G. SCHENCK
Lt Col CE
Chief, Natural Resources Section

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CONVERSION FACTORS
METRIC TO ENGLISH - JAPANESE TO ENGLISH

Metric To English

Weight

1 gram	=	0.035 ounce
1 kilogram	=	2.205 pounds
1 metric ton	=	2,205 pounds 1.102 short tons 0.984 long ton

Volume and Capacity

1 liter	=	2.113 pints
1 cubic meter	=	35.313 cubic feet
1 cubic meter	=	282 board feet
1 kiloliter	=	264.178 US gallons (6.29 barrels petroleum of 42 US gallons each)

Length

1 meter	=	3.281 feet
1 centimeter	=	0.394 inch
1 kilometer	=	0.621 mile
1 millimeter	=	0.039 inch

Area

1 square meter	=	10.764 square feet
1 hectare	=	2.471 acres

Japanese To English

Weight

1 koku rice	= 330.69 pounds
1 kan	= 8.267 pounds
1 momme	= 0.132 ounce
1 kin	= 1.323 pounds

Volume and Capacity

1 koku rice	= 5.010 66-pound bushels
1 koku wheat	= 5.029 60-pound bushels
1 koku naked barley	= 5.015 61-pound bushels
1 koku barley	= 4.995 48-pound bushels
1 koku lumber volume	= 120 board feet
1 koku log volume	= 80 board feet
1 koku liquid	= 6.370 cubic feet 47.654 gallons
1 koku solid volume	= 9.827 cubic feet
1 soseki koku stacked volume	= 9.827 cubic feet
1 go	= 11.008 cubic inches
1 shaku	= 0.610 fluid ounce
1 sho	= 0.4765 US gallon

Length

1 sun	= 1.193 inches
1 shaku	= 0.994 foot
1 bu	= 0.119 inch

Area

1 cho	= 2.451 acres
1 tan	= 0.245 acre
1 tsubo	= 35.583 square feet
1 se	= 0.0245 acre
1 square shaku	= 0.988 square foot

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NATURAL RESOURCES SECTION

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WEEKLY SUMMARY

No 307
21-31 October 1951

GENERAL HEADQUARTERS
SUPREME COMMANDER FOR THE ALLIED POWERS
TOKYO, JAPAN

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NATURAL RESOURCES SECTION

WEEKLY SUMMARY

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NATURAL RESOURCES SECTION
WEEKLY SUMMARY NO 307
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INFORMATION

1. Lt Col Hubert G. Schenck Ends Service as Chief of Natural Resources Section

a. On 31 October 1951 Lt Col Hubert G. Schenck ended his period of service as Chief of Natural Resources Section, General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. He had held the position since the establishment of the Section on 2 October 1945. Following his release from active duty with the army on 5 November, he will leave for Formosa to assume his new duties as Chief of the ECA Mission to China.

b. Effective 1 November 1951, Lt Col Harold B. Donaldson will become Acting Chief of Section. A member of the Natural Resources Section staff since June 1946, Colonel Donaldson currently is Chief of the Agriculture and Forestry Division.

2. Lt Col Schenck Receives Distinguished Service Medal

a. Lt Col Hubert G. Schenck, who ended more than six years of service as Chief of Natural Resources Section on 31 October 1951, will be awarded the Distinguished Service Medal by General Matthew B. Ridgway at a ceremony on 5 November 1951.

3. Final Issue of Natural Resources Section Weekly Summary

a. With this issue, No 307, publication of the Natural Resources Section Weekly Summary is being discontinued. For more than six years the Summary has served to record policies, operations, and information obtained by Natural Resources Section. No other Section in General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, has such a continuous record of work performed throughout the Occupation period.

b. The Summary was established a few days after the activation of Natural Resources Section 2 October 1945. The first issue covered the period of 13-20 October 1945. Originally the publication was planned as an operating record for the use of Section members: only 14 copies of the first issue were printed, with distribution limited to key personnel of the Section. With issue No 3, on 4 November 1945, distribution was extended to two other staff sections in General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. Subsequently the circulation was enlarged rapidly to meet the many requests from official agencies in the Far East Command and the United States, as well as from foreign missions. During most of its history, approximately 500 copies of the Weekly Summary have been distributed to official sources, of which 225 are sent to the Department of the Army at Washington, DC.

c. The Summary has served a number of purposes. Foremost of course was the objective of informing higher headquarters. The Summary

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has supplied a condensed, accessible record of Occupation policies and operations in the fields of agriculture, fisheries, forestry, mining and geology (including hydrology). It has been a readily available repository for data collected from Japanese sources on both current and historical aspects of these fields. Particularly useful during the years of most intensive operations by Military Government (later Civil Affairs) prefectural and regional teams, the Summary provided a speedy and regular channel for supplying these teams with information and interpretation of policy for implementation in the field.

d. To facilitate locating specific items among the vast amount of data published in the Summary, quarterly and annual indexes have been published and given the same distribution as the Summary itself. A final index, covering the period 1 January-31 October 1951, will be issued.

e. The historical value of the Weekly Summary already has been proved repeatedly. It has been a basic source of data for the historical record of the Occupation under preparation by the Civil Historical Section. Several published accounts of various aspects of the Allied Occupation of Japan have drawn heavily upon this periodical.

4. Statement to Japanese People by Departing Chief of Section

a. At the request of Kyodo News Service for a statement to the Japanese people on the eve of his departure from Natural Resources Section after more than six years as Chief of Section, Lt Col Hubert G. Schenck issued the following statement:

"The past six years have brought about a remarkable change from a wartorn and ruined Japan to a peaceful and relatively prosperous nation. Both hard work and painstaking planning have been required to effect this change, and much remains to be done. I have found much enjoyment and satisfaction in working closely with you to accomplish many of these improvements. To have to say "Sayonara" to the many Japanese friends I have gained is difficult for me.

"But as I regretfully say goodby, I say it with confidence in you, the citizens of Japan. You can face the future with optimism. It is true that many difficulties are ahead of you. These you will overcome, because you are an intelligent, vigorous, and industrious people.

"However, I sincerely hope that you will solve these problems without depleting the resources of the country. It can be done. The forests and fisheries if properly managed will supply your children and your children's children. Improved techniques will help to keep agricultural production at a high level. If you exploit the mineral deposits carefully, they will supply your industries for many years to come. On the other hand, failure to practice conservation will ruin the nation as surely as would war.

"You face social as well as economic hazards in the years ahead. Preservation of the many gains you have made toward a democratic Japan

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will require constant vigilance on your part as voters. Failure to meet this responsibility will return this land to feudalism or lead it into the sphere of militant communism.

"You have an inspiringly beautiful country. Guard it well!"

5. Bibliography of NR Publications During 1950-51

a. A bibliography of Natural Resources Section Reports and Preliminary Studies published during 1950 and 1951 is listed herein. This list supplements the bibliography published in 1950 in A Report on Japanese Natural Resources (Prepared in General Headquarters in 1948) which covered publications during 1945-49.

Austin, Oliver J. and Wilke, Ford, Japanese Fur Sealing: NRS Report No 129, Tokyo, Jul 1950.

Barry, R. J., Japanese Agricultural Credit and Financing: NRS Preliminary Study No 53, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

Bourgois, Francois, Japanese Offshore Trawling: NRS Report No 138, Tokyo, Dec 1950.

Brashears, M. L., Ground-Water Situation in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 51, Tokyo, May 1951.

Bruce, H. D., Cockerell, R. A., and Cummings, Laurence J., Properties and Uses of Commercially Important Japanese Woods: NRS Report No 147, Tokyo, Oct 1951.

Bushnell, Thomas M. and Ritchie, Thomas E., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Hokkaido: NRS Report No 110-H, Tokyo, Aug 1951.

Cahn, A. R., Oyster Culture in Japan: NRS Report No 134, Tokyo, Sep 1950.

Cahn, A. R., Clam Culture in Japan: NRS Report No 146, Tokyo, Sep 1951.

Caldwell, William E., Beneficiation of Japanese Ores: NRS Preliminary Study No 63, Tokyo, Aug 1951.

Cooper, John L., Development of Agricultural Cooperatives in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 36, Tokyo, Feb 1950.

Cossitt, Floyd M., Improved Forest Planting and Nursery Practices for Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 61, Tokyo, Jul 1951.

Croker, Richard S., Japanese Fisheries Administration: NRS Preliminary Study No 46, Tokyo, Mar 1951.

Culbertson, Raymond E. and Boulware, James H., Sweet Potatoes in Japan: NRS Report No 145, Tokyo, Aug 1951.

Cummings, Laurence J., Haibach, Donald J., and Wise, Harold F., Forest Area, Volume, and Growth in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 37, Tokyo, May 1950.

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Dodson, Joseph C. and Milligan, Clark C., Japanese Crop and Livestock Statistics, 1878-1950: NRS Report No 143, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

Dutton, Walt L., Management and Administration of Range Lands in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 60, Tokyo, Jul 1951.

Essene, John C., Accounting and Auditing Methods of Japanese Agricultural Cooperatives: NRS Preliminary Study No 65, Tokyo, Sep 1951.

Feast, Cleland N., Japanese Wildlife Administration: NRS Preliminary Study No 56, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

Furniss, R. L., Forest Insect Control in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 45, Tokyo, Feb 1951.

Gill, Tom, Forest Policy and Legislation for Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 49, Tokyo, May 1951.

Goldberg, Benjamin and Lucas, Leland M., Japanese Antarctic Whaling Expedition, 1950-51 Statistical Summary: NRS Preliminary Study No 62, Tokyo, Jul 1951.

Grant, Robert Y., Gold and Silver in Japan: NRS Report No 128, Tokyo, Jun 1950.

Grant, Robert Y., Important Gold-Silver Mines of Japan: NRS Report No 144, Tokyo, Aug 1951.

Hall, R. Clifford, Adaptation of Taxation to Japan's Forest Policy: NRS Preliminary Study No 57, Tokyo, Japan, Jun 1951.

Hasegawa, Hideshiro, Refractory Silica Resources of Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 44, Tokyo, Feb 1951.

Herrington, William C., A Program for Japanese Coastal Fisheries: NRS Preliminary Study No 48, Tokyo, May 1951.

Hersch, Joseph E. and Kidd, Robert L., Metallurgical Plants of Japan: NRS Report No 137, Tokyo, Dec 1950.

Hewes, Laurence I. Jr, Japanese Land Reform Program: NRS Report No 127, Tokyo, Mar 1950.

Heyne, E. G., Plant Breeding in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 52, Tokyo, May 1951.

Kircher, Joseph C. and Dexter, Albert K., Management of Private Coniferous Forests of Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 43, Tokyo, Jan 1951.

Kohler Ellis J., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Nagoya Area: NRS Report No 110-F, Tokyo, Apr 1951.

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Kraebel, C. J., Forestry and Flood Control in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 39, Tokyo, Jul 1950.

Leach, Corl A., Expansion of Dairy Goat Husbandry in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 55, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

Lee, Donald E., Fire Clay Resources of Japan: NRS Report No 130, Tokyo, Jul 1950.

Lee, Donald E., Whiteware Raw Material Resources of Japan: NRS Report No 135, Tokyo, Oct 1950.

Lee, Donald E., Bentonite and Bleaching Clay in Japan: NRS Report No 139, Tokyo, Jan 1951.

Lee, William D., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Hiroshima Area: NRS Report No 110-E, Tokyo, Nov 1950.

Lewis, John B., Coal Fields of Hokkaido, Japan (other than Ishikari): NRS Report No 133, Tokyo, Aug 1950.

MacAfee, Robert D., Coal Fields of Western Honshu, Japan: NRS Report No 132, Tokyo, Jul 1950.

Merriam, Charles S., Safety in Japanese Coal Mines: NRS Report No 140, Tokyo, Jan 1951.

Mortlock, Harry C., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Northern Honshu Area: NRS Report No 110-G, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

O'Brien Robert E. and Kohler, E. J., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Kyushu: NRS Report No 110-B, Tokyo, Feb 1950.

Park, Charles F. Jr, Iron and Manganese Ore Potential of Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 50, Tokyo, May 1951.

Pollard, Melvin, Japanese Mineral Resources: NRS Report No 141, Tokyo, Mar 1951.

Pollard, Melvin, Platinum Group Metals of Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 66, Tokyo, Sep 1951.

Presby, Sara D., Japanese Fishing Fleet Statistics, 1948: NRS Preliminary Study No 38, Tokyo, May 1950.

Raper, Arthur E., et al, The Japanese Village in Transition: NRS Report No 136, Tokyo, Nov 1950.

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Rich, Willis H., Fisheries Research Program of Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 42, Tokyo, Jan 1951.

Rowe, William H., Crop Insurance in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 58, Tokyo, Jul 1951.

Sasaki, T. and Watanabe, K., Glossary of Japanese Forestry Terms: NRS Report No 131, Tokyo, Jul 1950.

Sasaki, T. and Watanabe, K., Japanese Forestry Bibliography, 1940-48: NRS Preliminary Study No 40, Tokyo, Aug 1950.

Springer, M. Ellsworth, Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Shikoku: NRS Report No 110-D, Tokyo, Sep 1950.

Stine, O. C., An Economic Outlook Service for Agriculture in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 47, Tokyo, Mar 1951.

Terry, William M., Japanese Whaling Industry Prior to 1946: NRS Report No 126, Tokyo, Mar 1950.

Terry, William M. and Bourgois, Francois, Japanese Antarctic Whaling Expedition, 1949-50: NRS Preliminary Study No 41, Tokyo, Oct 1950.

Trayer, George W., Policy and Program for Forest Research in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 64, Tokyo, Aug 1951.

Van Cleve, Richard, Japanese Fresh-Water Fisheries and Water Use Projects: NRS Preliminary Study No 59, Tokyo, Jul 1951.

Wheeler, Ernest J., White Potatoes in Japan: NRS Report No 142, Tokyo, May 1951.

Whiteside, Eugene P., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Kyoto Area: NRS Report No 110-C, Tokyo, Jun 1950.

Wilke, Ford, Pelagic Fur Seal Research off Japan in 1950: NRS Preliminary Study No 67, Tokyo, Oct 1951.

Williamson, Mark B. (Compiler), Agricultural Programs in Japan, 1945-51: NRS Report No 148, Tokyo, Oct 1951.

Wilson, Maud, An Organization Plan for Farm Home Life Research in Japan: NRS Preliminary Study No 54, Tokyo, Jun 1951.

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b. Manuscrips currently in press include the following:

Grant, Robert Y., River Control and Utilization in Japan.
Ritchie, Thomas E., Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Japan, Summary.
Ino. T., Systematic List of Economic Aquatic Animals and Plants in Japan.
Hiyama, Yoshio, Systematic List of Fishes of the Ryukyu Islands.
McKernan , Donald L., Japan's Fresh-Water Fisheries.
Johnson, V. Webster, Land Use Problems and Policies in Japan.
Lowdermilk, Walter C., Water Resources and Related Land Use in Japan.
Roberts, Raymond, Economic Entomology in Japanese Agriculture.

6. Articles by Present and Former Staff Members Published

a. A large number of articles on aspects of Japanese natural resources have been written by present and former staff members of Natural Resources Section and have been published in various periodicals or separate form. Such articles include the following:

Ackerman, Edward A.
A Balance Sheet for Japan: University of Chicago Magazine, Dec 1949, pp 5-6; pp 20-24.

Japanese Resources and United States Policy, printed for use of the Committee for Foreign Affairs by the U. S. Government Printing Office, Apr 1948, pp 1-20.

Brown, Lindsey A.
Further Mechanization is Essential to Opening of Additional Agricultural Areas in Northern Japan: Implement Record, May 1948, p 21.

Coombs, H. A.
Dam Sites in Japan: Bull Geol Soc America, vol 61, no 12, part 2, Dec 1950, p 1453.

Collins, J. J.
The Appraisal of Ore Reserves at a Japanese Copper Mine: Econ Geol, vol 45, no 6, Sep-Oct 1950, pp 568-573.

A Summary of Horikoshi's Structure of Cupriferous Pyrite Deposits in Schist: Econ Geol, vol 45, no 5, Aug 1950, pp 480-481.

Summary of Kinoshita's Kuroko Deposits of Japan: Econ Geol, Jul 1950.

Espenshade, Ada
A Program for Japanese Fisheries: Geographical Review, vol 39, no 1, Jan 1949, pp 76-85, 9 figs in text.

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Fiedler, Reginald H.
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7. Japanese Translations of NR Publications

a. Natural Resources Section Reports and Preliminary Studies, in addition to their official distribution to United States and other agencies, have been supplied to the appropriate agencies of the Japanese government and educational system. In many instances these publications represent compilations of information not available from any Japanese source and have been highly useful for Japanese reference purposes. Other publications have served to channel to the Japanese suggestions and recommendations for improvement of various aspects of natural resources problems, many of which already have been placed in effect.

b. To increase the availability of this material, a considerable number of the publications have been translated into Japanese and published, usually by Japanese governmental agencies. This procedure has been followed especially for the reports of visiting expert consultants, many of which Natural Resources Section has published in Preliminary Study form. Implementation of the consultants' recommendations has been greatly facilitated by the availability of the material in the Japanese language.

c. Of especial significance to the Japanese was the translation and publication of A Report on Japanese Natural Resources (Prepared in General Headquarters in 1948). Four printings of this volume, for a total of 5,000 copies, have been made with Jiji Press as publisher (Weekly Summary No 300).

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d. Agricultural Reports and Preliminary Studies published in Japanese include the following:

(1) Report No 127, Japanese Land Reform Program

(2) Preliminary Study No 47, An Economic Outlook Service for Agriculture in Japan

(3) Preliminary Study No 53, Japanese Agricultural Credit and Financing

(4) Preliminary Study No 54, An Organization Plan for Farm Home Life Research in Japan

(5) Preliminary Study No 58, Crop Insurance in Japan

(6) Preliminary Study No 65. Accounting and Auditing Methods of Japanese Agricultural Cooperatives (Appendices already issued, remainder in process)

In addition, translation of Preliminary Study No 55, Expansion of Dairy Goat Husbandry in Japan, is virtually completed.

e. Translations of the following fisheries publications have been published:

(1) Preliminary Study No 31, Fisheries Cooperatives of Japan

(2) Preliminary Study No 42, Fisheries Research Program of Japan

(3) Preliminary Study No 48, A Program for Japanese Coastal Fisheries

In addition, the following are being translated, with publication expected within a few weeks:

(1) Preliminary Study No 46, Japanese Fisheries Administration

(2) Preliminary Study No 56, Japanese Wildlife Administration

(3) Preliminary Study No 59, Japanese Fresh-Water Fisheries and Water Use Projects

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f. The following forestry publications have been published in a Japanese translation:

(1) Preliminary Study No 39, Forestry and Flood Control in Japan

(2) Preliminary Study No 43, Management of Private Coniferous Forests of Japan

(3) Preliminary Study No 45, Forest Insect Control in Japan

(4) Preliminary Study No 57, Adaptation of Taxation to Japan's Forest Policy

(5) Preliminary Study No 60, Management and Administration of Range Lands in Japan

(6) Preliminary Study No 61, Improved Forest Planting and Nursery Practices for Japan

(7) Preliminary Study No 64, Policy and Program for Forest Research in Japan

g. In the field of mining and geology, Report No 44, Mineral Resources of Japan Proper, 1925-1949, has been published in Japanese, and translation of Report No 141, Japanese Mineral Resources, and Report No 50, Iron and Steel Metallurgy of the Japanese Empire, have been completed.

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AGRICULTURE

GENERAL

1. Report on Field Trip to Nagano Prefecture

a. The following report on a field trip to Nagano Prefecture was prepared by Wolf I. Ladejinsky, Agricultural Attache, Diplomatic Section:

On August 4, Agricultural Attache Ladejinsky and Mr Motonaga Ohto of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, set out from Tokyo for a week's trip to Nagano Prefecture. The purpose of the field trip was to investigate the recent elections of the local agricultural commissions--with special reference to the role of the Communists in the election--the status of the land reform, land consolidation, and land reclamation projects, and the economic position of the farmers. With that in mind, the Attache visited the villages of Kanae, Matsuo, Tatsuoka, Chikumachi, Shiojiri, and the reclamation settlements of Kikyogahara and Ohinata. He was fortunate in the assistance of so understanding a person as Mr Ohto.

Summary and Conclusions

1. Nagano is the most mountainous prefecture in Japan with special agricultural features imposed by landscape, soil, climate, and the human element. The mulberry bush is widely cultivated and Nagano is the silk center of Japan. Yields of rice and of other crops are among the highest in Japan, and from the point of view of diversified agriculture Nagano probably ranks all other prefectures.

2. The farmers of Nagano are perhaps the most literate among Japanese farmers, and are known for their independence, "progressiveness" and political-mindedness. The political history of Nagano and the silk industry have had much to do with the shaping of the differences that distinguish the people of this prefecture from those of most other prefectures.

3. Nearly 85 percent of the members of the agricultural commissions in Nagano Prefecture were appointed by the buraku (village subdivisions) chiefs, while the remaining 15 percent were elected through a competitive vote. The view held in certain Japanese and non-Japanese circles that this reflects an anti-democratic trend, a lack of interest in village affairs, and, in general, a reversal to a time-honored practice of "bossism", is not warranted.

4. The agricultural commissions are in the formative stage and their work are competence cannot yet be judged. Because of the multiplicity of their functions, and signs of inertness or "let down" after

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the highly stimulating land reform period, officials have expressed considerable fear over the ability of the commissions to carry out equally well the combined functions of the former land, adjustment, and agricultural improvement commissions.

5. Politically, Nagano is conservative, but with a strong dash of Communism of an uncommon variety. Out of a total of 5,738 agricultural commission members, 88 are members of the Communist Party, or 1.5 percent as against a national representation of 0.3 percent. The strength and danger of the Communists in Shimoina District of Nagano are not in numbers, but in their outward adherence to orthodox economic thinking, in the support they have given the land reform program contrary to the official position of the Communist Party, and in their being allegedly good farmers, good neighbors and hard workers for the welfare of the community.

6. The land reform has been carried out; the idea, however, that the reform has achieved all of its goals and that from now on it calls for a minimum of supervision or none at all is erroneous. In the main, farmers entertain little fear that the land reform might be legislated out of existence; the fear rather lies in the failure to maintain tolerable economic conditions. If such a development should come to pass, it would by itself, without any recourse to anti-reform legislation, undermine the reforms.

7. Farm leaders make frequent references to agrarian reform as distinguished from land reform. The importance of the latter is not minimized, but it cannot take the place of the numerous improvements in virtually every field of the farm economy which must take place in order to increase the agricultural output. The agrarian reform is presumed to be the sum total of all that effort in the coming years.

8. Land consolidation is an exchange among farmers of scattered plots of land, grouped together into more efficient production units. The task is as urgent as it is difficult to accomplish. Only technical knowledge, careful planning, clear understanding of the economic gains resulting from it, and above all, ability to overcome traditional attachment to a plot of land, can insure a degree of progress not yet achieved.

9. Land reclamation as a means of increasing the cultivated acreage and output is a well established practice in Japan. The one reclamation project in Nagano referred to in this report is an outstanding example of that type of activity carried on under favorable conditions.

10. Rural Nagano presents a picture of relative well-being, but one-third of the income is derived from non-agricultural sources. The one to one-and-a-half acre farmer of Nagano cannot make both ends meet from agriculture alone even in conditions of good prices, ownership of the land, and of a well diversified farm economy.

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11. Few farmers view the future with optimism. They doubt whether current agricultural prices and the overall level of economic activity will be maintained, and fear a decline in their standard of living. They expect continuous financial support from the Government in the matter of price subsidies, all types of land improvement, and better credit facilities. The support a Japanese Government may expect from rural Japan will depend on the degree of economic aid furnished by it. As one farmer put it, "we support those who support us".

Nagano: The Agricultural Element

Mountainous Nagano. Nagano is a landlocked prefecture some 100 miles northwest of Tokyo. With its famous Japan Alps it lies in the midst of the mountainous complex in the center of Honshu. Every Japanese prefecture has its more than generous share of mountains, but Nagano is the mountainous prefectures; one is never out of close proximity of six, eight and even 10,000 feet elevations. This landscape explains why only 12 percent of the total area of Nagano is under cultivation. To appreciate the prefecture's types of farm management it is necessary to look up as well as down. On the trip from the city of Matsumoto to the city of Nagano, striking views were unfolded of terraced rice fields, and above these, of terraced fields of mulberry and of other upland crops. The terraces rose at least 1,500 feet high, and the vivid impression of the fine art of Japanese farming was inescapable. The mountainous character of Nagano explains yet another feature--80,000 cho 1/ or 53 percent of the total cultivated acreage are upland (dry) fields. There are very few prefectures in Japan with such a high ratio.

High Rice Yields. Following the all-Japan farm pattern, rice is the principal crop. From the point of view of output, Nagano with its 71,000 cho under rice is much below such volume-producers as Niigata with 177,000 cho and Yamagata with 93,000 cho. But the average yield is 2.5 koku 2/ per tan 3/, or the highest in Japan with the exception of Yamanashi. In the Nagano valley due north of Nagano city, the yields of four koku per tan are the highest in Japan and probably in the world. Good soil, favorable climatic conditions, and the degree of know-how--high even for Japanese farmers--explain these yields.

Mulberry Crop and Silk. The truly characteristic feature of agriculture in Nagano is the mulberry crop. It occupies 32 percent of all the uplands as against a national average of one percent. The silk worms feed on the mulberry and spin the cocoons, which are Nagano's principal cash crop. It is this crop that gives Nagano the premier position as Japan's cocoon and raw silk producer, and the title of "silk

1/ One cho equals 2.471 acres.
2/ One koku equals 5.01 bushels (66 pound bushel or 330.69 pounds).
3/ One tan equals one-fourth of an acre.

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kingdom". The concentration of the mulberry crop in Nagano reflects in a measure the relative disproportion of suitable rice land and the abundance of slope land. Mulberry does not require irrigation, and is soil tolerant, growing fairly well in infertile, thin, acid or sandy soil. Even some of the alluvial-flooded mountain valleys are composed of steeply inclined, fan-shaped terraces not suitable for rice culture but well suited for the mulberry. But in Nagano's Kawaji and Seinaiji sections, one sees acre upon acre under mulberry and on level ground, a rare sight in any other part of Japan. The typical feature of a sericultural district is not only the mulberry; it may be seen in that all chimneys of the factories (filatures) located in the very midst of the source of supply, and in the structures of the farmers' houses. Needing much space to rear the silkworms, the farmers frequently have two stories to their dwellings; and they almost always have a roof ventilator so that the air from the charcoal-heated silkworm rooms may be carried off.

The 221,000 farm families of Nagano cultivate a total of 162,000 cho or 0.7 cho per family. Virtually every holding has some mulberry acreage, and most everybody "talks" silk. Fully half of the prefectural assemblymen are in one way or another connected with cocoon raising, silk reeling or silk trading. The great reliance upon this crop ultimately processed for the world market, causes the farmers to develop a high appreciation of world silk prices. It is in Nagano that many a farmer can startle the visitor with his knowledge of the raw silk market quotations of recent date. Particularly in 1930, when the mulberry acreage was a record of 73,000 cho and in 1941 when it was 63,000 cho in comparison with the 28,000 cho of today the living standard of Nagano farmers was closely tied to the silk market of New York. Nevertheless, the dependence still is great and the farmers are very much worried now lest the recent declining trend of silk prices should continue. But what is worth stressing here is that this long-established contact with the West, accompanied by periods of considerable prosperity followed by periods of great depression, has had a marked effect on the economic position and mental outlook of Nagano's farmers.

Diversified Agriculture. In addition to the high rice yields and the special place of the mulberry crop, agriculture of Nagano is characterized also by its diversity. Neighboring Niigata Prefecture is strictly single crop (rice), but Nagano has a variety of crops not to be found in any other prefectures with the exception of Hokkaido. Rye, oats and hops are among such crops. Nagano ranks first in Old Japan (i e, exclusive of Hokkaido) in the production of rye and millet, and third in buckwheat, and livestock is becoming an increasingly important part of the farm economy. Only Aomori Prefecture surpasses Nagano in the production of apples. Recent developments in the production of seed-potatoes in the high altitude of this prefecture holds out much promise for Japanese agriculture elsewhere.

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Nagano has been in the forefront of the movement of making small farms bigger, i e, more productive, by actively increasing the livestock numbers, especially in the dairy branch. Before the war (1936-40) Nagano has only 1,100 milk cows, whereas by 1950 the number had increased seven-fold; between 1947 and 1949 the percentage increase was 123, while the rate of increase for the country as a whole was only 27 percent. Draft cattle increased from 19,000 to 40,000 and sheep from 5,000 to 25,000. The carefully developed dairy industry plan of Chikumachi village calling for the increase of the number of milk cows from 75 to 200 is one of the many similar plans currently undertaken throughout the prefecture. The importance of this effort cannot be gainsaid, for Japanese agriculture has grossly neglected the livestock field.

Such, in brief, are some of the typical agricultural features of Nagano.

Nagano: The Human Element

Nagano People Are Different. Not only has Nagano distinguishing agricultural features; its human element, too, is commonly said to be not quite of the regular Japanese mold. The people of Nagano are allegedly imbued with the spirit of independence, and great individualism; they are sharp-witted, highly literate, "progressive", keen on discussion, and politically minded. A Japanese friend went so far to say that even the women of Nagano are different, the burden of his argument being that they are, as he put it, "practically as good as men". Intellectually, the people of Nagano are surely among the elite of Japan. It is said that a successful and good play in Tokyo, for example, is no guarantee of success in the rest of the country. To gauge the trend, a wise theatrical producer will inaugurate the country run not in Osaka, and not even in Kyoto, but in Iida City (Population 50,000) of Nagano Prefecture. If Iida places the stamp of approval, the rest of the country is likely to do likewise. In Nagano, in Tatsuoka village, the writer came across an appreciation of the population problem and how to deal with it that would do credit to most any urban center of Japan, while in the nearby Sarashina village the articulate farmer Yasuo Tsukada held forth at great length on farming as a daily experiment, "combining human ability and the infinite variety of nature's elements". And he was not an exception.

Topography, Climate and Intellectuals. Inquiries during the trip brought forth all manner of explanations, some of which may or may not be valid. There is, to begin with, the element of topography: "We are surrounded with high mountains and we are in the habit of holding our heads high, looking up--not down", said a young man with the pride of a Texan in his native state. The climate was cited as another factor: "Our winters are cold and evenings are long; we drink tea, read books and newspapers and discuss national and international affairs". Nagano as a summer and winter playground was mentioned as yet another factor.

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Japanese writers, artists, scholars and political leaders who congregate in the resorts of Nagano, have exercised considerable influence on the political and intellectual life of the prefecture.

Perhaps more important than the influence of topography, climate and of the intellectuals is the political, economic and social structure of Nagano and the deeply felt influence of the silk industry.

Historical Background. According to one theory, the Shinano Region, somewhat larger than the present day Nagano Prefecture, was a mountain-fastness of strategic importance in relation to Edo (Tokyo), the capital of the Shogunate (1602-1868). The Shoguns were careful not to entrust Nagano to one powerful "daimyo", or lord of the domain. Instead, Nagano was parcelled out into a great number of small fiefs ruled over by constantly clashing chieftains; and arms and brains were pitted against each other in the quest to survive. The relations between the minor "daimyo" of Nagano and their subjects were closer, and the support and loyalty of the common people were more keenly felt. For these reasons the people presumably were less subjugated and enjoyed more independence than was usually the custom in other parts of Japan.

Social Structure - Middle Class. Big landlords, so typical of the pre-reform next-door Niigata, were never a feature of Nagano. In the Shimoina District visited by the writer, out of 9,272 landowners who sold land under the reform, only three had more than 30 cho each, while those who owned more than 10 cho each numbered only 42. This did not preclude widespread tenancy (42 percent of the cultivated land), but the rural society was essentially middle-class, far from being submerged by a dominating landlordism on the one hand, and acquiescing tenantry on the other. In Niigata, unversity education was for the sons of the Shirases, the premier landlord of the prefecture, and the sons of the lesser landlords. Even high school education was not easily obtainable by the sons of the working farmers, unless by the brightest under the sponsorship of a benevolent landlord. Not so in Nagano, which is known throughout Japan as the "educated" prefecture.

Education - A Basic Need. This observer was amazed to find many well-stocked book stores in villages, let alone in cities of any size. The prefecture boasts the greatest number of primary and middle schools, and more farmers' children have attended both than those of any other prefecture. The physical appearance of the schools, the pride with which the village fathers talked about making them bigger and better, and the frequent references to education as a basic need of the community--all this was not a common experience in visits to other prefectures. The new ¥10 million school in construction in the village of Hirooka was considered a prime necessity; the question about "affording" it, in the face of a rather difficult financial reclamation problem in which the village is involved, brought the reply that "we don't economize on education". The result is a degree of literacy that has had much to do with a state of mind that distinguishes Nagano from most other prefectures.

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Silk Industry. The other important factor working toward the same end is the silk industry already referred to. Farmers, traders, economists and sociologists, politicians and officials all seem to be of the same mind on this point. Through the production and sales of cocoons the farmers of Nagano become commercially-minded at an earlier stage than most farm groups of Japan. The cash income from the sales of cocoons was at relatively high levels for more than a generation prior to the depression of the 1930's. In the process there came new experience, new knowledge, and the drive for education and betterment.

Consequences--Significant and Insignificant. The consequences assume all manner of form, some good only for a smile, others for serious thought. Farm girls of Nagano provide an instance of the first; many of them work in the filatures located in or near the cities of Matsumoto, Okaya and Ueda, and they seem adept at bringing back to the villages the "city-airs". The latest wrinkle in that category is well described in a Tosuno village song:

See the girls in the field,
Planting rice, planting rice!
Sleeve holders catchingly red,
"Permanents" topping each head.

The political climate of Nagano illustrates the other side of the picture. The politicians, for example, do not simply get the vote for the asking or by order; they must work hard to get it, and, on occasion, they must pay for it. The familiar saying in Nagano that "our silk brokers buy cocoons in season and votes off season" is instructive. Other brokers probably do the same in other parts of Japan, yet politically Nagano is not quite typical of a predominently agricultural prefecture. It is conservative but with a difference, the difference being the Communist tinge. In the last election to the House of Representatives (lower house of the Diet) held in June 1949, the Communist Party polled 13.6 percent of all the votes cast in Nagano as against a national average of 9.8 percent. The Communist vote in this prefecture was surpassed only by essentially urban prefectures such as Osaka (20 percent), Tokyo (18.5 percent), and Kanagawa (15 percent). During the June 1951, elections to the House of Councillors (upper house of the Diet), the Communists of Nagano secured 7.4 percent of the vote compared with a national vote of 3.7 percent. Despite the fairly large vote, Nagano sent to the House of Representatives only one Communist, and failed to elect any to the House of Councillors. Nevertheless, the Communist Party is of some importance in Nagano, and that constitutes yet another feature that distinguishes it from most other prefectures of Japan.

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Local Agricultural Commissions

Competitive and Non-Competitive Elections. Nagano in the first week of August was only two weeks past the elections of local agricultural commissions. The two principal features of the event are that only 15 percent of the commissions came into being through competitive elections, and that 88 Communists are represented on the commissions. Both facts received much notice in the public press and are viewed with alarm by the pro-reform and anti-Communist elements, the first on the ground that it is indicative of great apathy on the part of the farmers, and the second on the ground that the Communists have penetrated rural Nagano in considerable force. Inquiries revealed that conditions surrounding what one farmer aptly called "the invisible elections" are much more complex than meets the eye, and that oversimplified conclusions are not warranted.

It is undeniable that in politically-minded Nagano, the limited use of the ballot is disturbing. Of the five villages visited, in only one, Tatsuoka village, was the commission truly elective; in the other villages elections were not held since the number of candidates did not exceed the number of which a commission is made up. How did that come about?

Character of Non-Competitive Election. Farmers were at first rather reluctant to discuss this matter and behaved as if they suffered from a guilty conscience. Gradually, however, as they became more relaxed, talked and answered questions more freely, the common pattern of pre-election "agreements" to nominate 15 candidates for the 15 member-commission was quite apparent. The nomination of candidates was on a strictly buraku or sub-village level. If a village has five buraku of approximately the same size, each buraku furnishes three candidates; where for one reason or another negotiations between buraku or within a buraku fail, the result is a competitive genuine election. The exact nature of the "deals" and who takes the initiative in executing them is not clear to this writer. But this much was ascertainable: the nominations are seldom a one-man-boss job; discussions in which many participate and unofficial elections of the candidates between buraku are often the case. It is interesting to note that this type of voting is done not on an individual, but on a family, basis. Of course, the underlying principles of the new constitution and of laws dealing with elections assume the individual as the basic unit of public life; in reality, the family unit, particularly in the village, still holds sway, if for no other reason (and there are many more) than that the food collection quotas and the permissible holding under the land reform are determined on the family basis. It seems that the unofficial elections of the character described are a compromise between the new legal principles and the old established facts of life in rural Japan.

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Judging by the proportion (85 percent) of non-voting villages, it would appear that it was not too difficult to agree on a slate of candidates. The explanation lies in a number of factors, and one of them is the present essentially classless character of the village. The land commissions replaced by the agricultural commissions were based on class distinction; landlords, tenants and owner-cultivators. The completion of the reform, as a result of which 90 percent of the farmers became owners, helped to erase much of the economic line of demarcation between those groups. There still are differences, chiefly of culture, heritage and know-how, but they are not sufficiently compelling to carry over into the agricultural commissions the old economic class categories which have now largely disappeared. Since there was no clash of distinct interests, it was not difficult to agree on candidates. In Mr Orto's opinion, the farmers have thereby exhibited a "territorial" consciousness rather than class consciousness; they wished the candidate to represent their buraku rather than classes, or ex-classes to be exact.

Old Practice and Significance. Nor is the buraku nomination practice new. In the election of agricultural land commissions held in December, 1946, out of the 40 commissions in the district of Shimoina, only 12 commissions were elected through the use of the ballot, as against seven in July, 1951. From a Western point of view, in a good many instances those elections were undemocratic in form; one might argue, however, that they were quite democratic in substance since the candidates thus selected truly represent the buraku. Viewing in retrospect the outstanding work of the land commissions, it may be concluded that the farmers succeeded in mobilizing the best elements the village had to offer, even though the majority of the members of the commissions were nominated for their jobs rather than elected. With the land reform completed and the decline in interest in crop quotas, the farm issues in the summer of 1951 were surely not as burning as they were throughout 1946-49. The fact, therefore, that there is a greater tendency away from competitive elections is understandable, but it does not follow that the farmers are not mindful of their interests or less ready to protect their gains.

The widespread assumption that the agricultural commission elections revealed hardly anything more than great farmer-indifference is not borne out by yet another feature of the same event. Where competitive elections were held, more than 80 percent of the qualified voters took the trouble to cast ballots. This was the case not only in Nagano but throughout Japan. In the above mentioned Tatsuoka village, 83 percent of the voters appeared at the polls. The mayor of the village told this writer that the vote would have been at least 10 percent higher if the polling places were open at six a.m. rather than at nine a.m. The high percentage of votes actually cast, under the disadvantageous "bankers" hours imposed on the farmers, speaks well for their keen interest in the agricultural commissions.

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Causes of Non-Competitive Versus Competitive Elections. Thus far the emphasis has been in the nature of non-competitive elections. The question why the farmers preferred this type to that of the competitive remains to be answered. In village after village the search for an explanation brought to light the following:

(1) Farmers were tired of elections; in the spring of 1951 they took part in four different election campaigns: That of mayor, village assembly, prefectural governor and prefectural assembly. By the time the agricultural commission election rolled around, the megaphones calling the farmers to yet another election campaign had lost much of their appeal.

(2) The elections were held at a time of the year when the farmers of Nagano (as most farmers of Japan) were quite busy. Many a farmer indicated that if the election were held in late fall or in the winter the feeling that "we have had enough of this electioneering business" would not have been present, and the chances of a real election would have been much better.

(3) The job of a commissioner can be an exacting one, both in terms of time and effort. A village master put it in these words: "A man who thinks of himself cannot and should not take on such a chore; this is one only for those who are concerned with the affairs of the community". The villagers preferred, therefore, to select people willing to make this contribution, and as a reward, insure their election.

(4) The problem of "face" entered strongly into the picture. In Kanae and Chikumachi villages, the number of candidates was 16 and 17 respectively, and elections seemed imminent. Actually, they did not take place, the extra candidates having agreed to take their names off the slate. They did that rather than risk defeat. They would have stood for election if the number of candidates had been considerably above 16 or 17. Defeat shared by a large group would have meant a more bearable loss of face. Whereas in Tatsuoka village an agreement could not be reached, election was keenly sought for no one wished to fail.

(5) Farmers wished to elect commissioners in a "peaceful" way rather than through an election campaign with its inevitable charges and counter-charges. This may not make such sense to a westerner, but the fact is that the closely-knit village is not in favor of heated campaigns with local people fighting each other. For the same reason, Japanese bring their troubles to court only as a last resort. This explains also why the farmers so readily agree to "cease-fire" talks when the number of candidates exceeds the number of people to be elected. The attitude is quite different when the elections are of a national or prefectural character; since local people rarely figure as candidates the heat of such election campaigns does not affect the peaceful relations in the community.

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(6) A commissioner's remuneration is nominal--the average pay per year is ¥2,000 for the central government and ¥3,000 from the village treasury. The plea for a more reasonable remuneration was frequent.

Such in the main are the reasons for preferring non-competitive elections. They are quite plausible for Nagano--and for the rest of Japan as well.

Composition of Agricultural Commissions. Who are the members of the agricultural commissions, and what are the commissions doing or planning to do? A good many of them are new to their jobs, i e, they have never been associated with the agricultural land commissions, the adjustment commissions (which handled crop collection quotas), or the improvement commissions (concerned with extension matters). And it is the agricultural commissions which replace and consolidate into one body the functions hitherto performed by the three mentioned bodies. The proportion of the non-experienced to the experienced for Nagano as a whole is difficult to state, but the situation in the villages covered on this trip is informative in this respect. Approximately 40 percent of the members belong to the first category. The other 60 percent is made up of former members of the abolished commissions. In Chikumachi village five of the 15 were new, and of the remaining, six were former members of the land commission. This was an unusually high representation not found in other villages. The common pattern is three to four former land commission people, and two to three former members of the adjustment and improvement commissions. In Kanae village, two recently depurged individuals are commission members, while in yet another village one woman was elected to membership. No one among the farmers seemed to be in the least concerned about the re-emergence of the ex-purgees; mindful of the mechanical character of the purge in the villages, this observer does not view with alarm this readily anticipated development.

In the course of the trip, mention was made about the inexperience of some of the new members of the commissions. This is not in itself a bad feature; an admixture of the old and the new is all to the good. Like their predecessors on the land commissions, for example, the new members, too, may be expected to learn from experience, and thus widen the leadership group. For the greater part they are not village elders, but relatively young people in their late 30's or 40's, who essentially represent the better elements of the village. For this reason the concern about the "inexperienced" versus the "experienced" should not be taken seriously.

Commission Functions Not Clear. Much more to the point is that the commissions do not quite know what they should do. The functions of the replaced commissions were quite clear; this is not the case with the agricultural commissions. They are starting out at a time when the heroic period of reform is at an end and the farmers' other chief interest, compulsory food deliveries, has lost its sharp edge. This is not

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to say that the farm community is lacking in problems; thay are indeed numerous, but because they are of the familiar, long-range, ever-present kind related to agricultural production, land improvement, land consolidation, et cetera, there is the justifiable fear that the commissions might "take it easy". The prevalent idea that these problems have always been with them and that they will not be solved in a man's lifetime can be a deterrent to vigorous action. The chairman of the agricultural commission of Tatsuoka village, Mr Shimodaira, well understood this likely drawback. The prefectural officials are aware of it, too, and at the time of this visit they were in the midst of planning a series of "pep-talks" throughout the prefecture intended to impart to the commissions something of the urgency and enthusiasm so often found among the members of the land, adjustment, and improvement commissions, particularly the former.

It will take more than preaching and "guidance". In addition to close collaboration among the farmers, and the know-how, the fulfillment of the commission tasks call for huge expenditures. The farmers' own ability to furnish them is limited, and government subsidies must of necessity play a large role. Whether they will be secured is a moot question at best. But even under favorable conditions, progress in raising agricultural production, improving irrigation facilities, and consolidating the fragmented holdings is bound to be slow, and the enthusiasm generated by a cause such as land reform cannot be anticipated. This is not to decry the role of the commissions; they can be of inestimable value if they focus attention on what should be done, establish the priorities, and mobilize the means to carry out what is realizable. In early August it was too soon to judge their activities which did not go beyond one or two organizational meetings.

The Communists and the Agricultural Commissions

Numerical Strength of the Communists. The election or nomination of candidates for the agricultural commissions includes a total of 88 Communists. How serious is their penetration? In relation to the national total, Nagano alone furnished 19 percent of all the Communists on the commissions. The percentage of the Communists to the total number of commission members for the country as a whole is 0.3 percent; the respective figure for Nagano is 1.5 percent. This explains the earlier remark concerning political conservatism of Nagano mixed with a dash of Communism.

The total number of commissions in Nagano is 383 and the Communists are represented on 67, a third of whom are located in Minami-Saku, Shimo-ina and Suwa districts, or three out of a total of 16 districts. This concentration--if such it may be called--is not accidental. Inquiries on the spot indicate that Communists here did not follow the party line of obstructing the implementation of the land reform program. Whether

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this was done in disregard of the line or by special absolution from above, this writer is not prepared to say. It seems that their energetic support of the reform has much to do with their good standing in the community.

What Rural Communists are Like. Shiojiri village is a case in point. This writer met with the agricultural commission which counts among its members two Communists. In answer to his question as to whether any Communists were present, two members raised their hands and with no trace of uneasiness stated that they were Communists. There was no sign that the 13 conservative members were in any way embarrassed by their two colleagues. The latter were in their late 30's, healthy-looking, well-dressed and well-spoken. Their holdings, it appeared later, compared well with the average of one-half of one cho, and their education appeared to be quite above the average. Clearly, there was nothing "downtrodden" about them, and one could not help wondering why they were Communists. But since they so proclaimed, the next question related to agricultural policies they advocate.

The answer to this particular query did not betray anything that could mark them as Communists at all if they had not stated their political affiliation earlier. They stood pretty much for the same things to which most welfare-minded farmers subscribe. They emphasized the familiar better irrigation, better yields, better roads, effective land consolidation, ampler credit facilities, et cetera. As to the cornerstone of the Communist agrarian policy, which is land nationalization and collectivization of agriculture, they disclaimed any interest whatever. Why, then, membership in the Communist Party? The Liberal Government, they said has no abiding interest in improving farm conditions; whatever support it does render is based on political considerations. A Communist Government, on the other hand, is the only one that could and would presumably create the conditions the agricultural commissions are striving to bring about, it was contended.

The purpose of attending the meeting of the Shiojiri commission was not to engage in a debate with the local Communists, but to see what manner of people they are, what their views are, and to learn, if possible, how they came to represent the community on the commission. As to this last point, the explanation does not lie in the strength of the Communist Party as such, but in the land-tenure pattern of Shiojiri, in the support these particular Communists have given the village in meeting a basic pre-reform issue and the great issue of the reform itself.

Before the reform, Shiojiri village had a total of 522 farm families, of whom 217 were completely tenants, and 127 part-tenants and part-owners, or, combined, 70 percent of the total; 72 owner-cultivators and 72 landlords, mostly small and resident, who cultivated some but rented out the greater part. The cultivated holding per family was very small: 70 percent of the households worked less than one-half of one cho of land.

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In the year after the Surrender, during the acute food shortage, many a landlord wished to take back part or all of the tenanted land to insure his own food supply and to escape some of the talked-about provisions of the forthcoming land reform. In Japanese postwar agrarian history, Shiojiri is widely known of its successful resistance to the designs of the landlords. Evictions were prevented and the reform was completed at an early date. In a private talk with the village master after the commission meeting, he stated that in those days the few local Communists contributed more than their share to the common reform effort, although the party was officially violently opposed to the program. They behaved then and behave now the way most farmers do; their views on agricultural policies voiced during the commission session are the same as they express on all other occasions. He added that they were good neighbors and good farmers. The political views of these same Communists are evidently of much less moment among the farmers than their professed orthodox economic views and active participation in village affairs. The latter, after all, is what the farmers are chiefly interested in. Under the circumstances, the election of the Communists to membership on the commission was not unnatural.

Land Reform

The land reform in Nagano has been an accomplished fact since December of 1949, when the last plot of purchased land was recorded in the village register book. As a prefecture of very small landlords and minute holdings and a wide-awake citizenry, it is not the most typical of places to study the application of the reform and its consequences. Nevertheless, Nagano offers a good example of how the problem was dealth with and the reaction of the people to the accomplishment.

Land Reform in Matsuo Village: Many a village in Nagano can serve as a good example of the shift in the ownership status. The following table dealing with the changes in Matsuo village is typical.

Land Ownership Before and After Land Reform, Matsuo Village

Land	Before Reform		After Reform	
	Area (cho)	Percentage	Area (cho)	Percentage
Owner-cultivated	159	41	340	88
Tenant-cultivated	226	59	45	12
Total	385	100	385	100
Farmers	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Number**	**Percentage**
Owners	174	25	270	41
Chiefly owners, partly tenants	169	25	344	52
Chiefly tenants, partly owners	167	25	43	7
Tenants	174	25	0	0
Total	684	100	657	100

(Cont'd)

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Land Ownership Before and After Land Reform, Matsuo Village (Cont'd)

Owners of Rented Land	Before Reform		After Reform	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Residing	159	48	148	100
Absentee	170	52	0	0
Total	329	100	148	100

Absentee ownership completely disappeared, as did the group of tenants only; 93 percent of the farmers own all or more than half of the land they cultivate. The remaining 45 cho of tenanted land are rented from 148 owners, or three tan per owner. These figures and particularly the data in the above table show how far the reform had to reach in order to satisfy the tenant needs. What they do not show is the difficulty of accomplishing the transfer and how it was done.

Methods of Carrying Out the Reform. Shimoina Gun (district) and the Kanae, Tatsuoka, and Matsuo villages, where the writer spent a good deal of time, are famous throughout Japan for planning their own successful land program campaign. The leaders went to the trouble of recording the momentous event in a volume 553 pages long, so that, as Mr Ryoichi Kubota, Chief District Officer, wrote in the preface, "...the generations to come may cherish the historic change and maintain it for time eternal". That this was more than mere rhetoric was revealed in the talks with the farmers and officials, including Mr Kubota. This writer noted once again something that should be a truism by now: The land reform idea did not come as a surprise to Nagano; the Occupation did not spring it full-blown on an unsuspecting countryside. In Nagano, for example, the question of how to reform the land was subject to much discussion before the Surrender. Immediately upon the enactment of the law the Shimoina Nogyokai 4/ adopted a resolution which threw much light on the position of the farmers with respect to the reform and their determination to carry it out. The resolution was as follows:

> "Although the land reform law is a half-way measure, we will support it instead of criticizing it, and with confidence that the land reform will be the starting point of the Agrarian Reform. Through our organized effort we will develop a

4/ The Agricultural Organization Law of 1943 combined the agricultural societies (Nokai) and the industrial cooperatives (Sangyo Kumiai) into a single monopolistic association called "Nogyokai", in each village, town, and city. Membership was compulsory for all farmers. This system of agricultural organizations was completely dominated by the Government.

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campaign in order not only to carry out the land reform program and the democratization of the rural community, but also to attain better farm management. Our campaign aims are as follows:

"(1) Encourage land owners to sell more land than the law requires.

"(2) Protect the right of cultivation by preventing evictions.

"(3) Encourage collective rather than individual bargaining between tenants and landlords in cases where tenancy will continue.

"(4) Strictly observe the retroactive purchase provision of the law. 5/

"(5) Encourage the sale of forest and unreclaimed land. 6/

"(6) Purchase of land from the landlords without delay even if the sales plan is not completed.

"(7) It is for the tenant to decide whether or not he wishes to buy the land; in case he does not wish to buy, he should cultivate the land, renting it from the Government.

"(8) Every farmer should watch carefully the operations of the land commissions.

"(9) The exchange and consolidation shall be carried out simultaneously with the application of the land reform.

"(10) Cooperative cultivation of the land shall be encouraged."

It is significant to note that this declaration was prepared by the members of the "Nogyokai" which, along with all the other similar farm organizations, was later dissolved 7/ on the group that they were landlord-ridden, ultra-conservative and an arm of the Government to prosecute the war. There is evidence that the "Nogyokai" was all of that in most cases, but Shimoina evidently belonged to the exceptions. The pro-reform

5/ Although the land reform legislation was enacted on October 21, 1946, the land subject to purchase was based on the land ownership categories as of November 23, 1945. This is the date of a proposed bill for land reform tha Japanese Government independently announced.
6/ Forests and unreclaimed land are not subject to the reform.
7/ Law 133, enacted on November 19. 1947, caused the dissolution of the "Nogyokai" on August 14, 1948.

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elements must have been very strong judging by another step taken by this same "Nogyokai". In November, 1946, it organized an Agricultural Land Reform Encouragement Committee, the work of which was taken over in October, 1947, by the Shimoina Agricultural Reform Council organized by the members of the 40 land commissions. The council concentrated on group studies of the land reform provisions; lectures, conferences and printed material bearing on the reform; land survey groups ready to render service upon the call of a member village, and sponsorship of group-trips to other prefectures to study their reform progress.

This self-imposed activity went far beyond the guidance from either the national or prefectural authorities. Few government officials thought at that time that the reform was a half-measure; the idea was a strictly native product, and, as will be indicated in a subsequent paragraph, it still persists. What is worth noting at this point is that this kind of dedication made it possible to deal successfully with the molecular landlords and the three tan tenants. The following speaks for itself: a total of 4,800 cho was purchased from 9,272 owners and sold to 16,900 tenants. The ratio of owner-cultivator land and tenanted land changed from 56:44 to 88:12. The outstanding achievement of Shimoina is not in the purchase of the 4,800 cho, but in inducing the landowners to sell voluntarily 880 cho which they could place in many other prefectures, but Shimoina is a case in itself; in no other part of Japan did the voluntary sales amount to 18 percent of the total sales, and this was done largely by small landowners hard hit by the reform. This writer had occasion to comment on this phenomenon 8/, but it may be explained here again in the words of many a landowner: "The reform is not good for me as an individual, yet it is good for the community". Another feature characteristic of Shimoina is the degree of land consolidation accomplished while the reform was being carried out.

The administrative cost of the program throws a revealing light on the price of the land. The total expenditure in Shimoina amounted to ¥30 million, of which ¥23 million was contributed by the national treasury and ¥7 million by the villages of the district. This represented an average of ¥625 per tan, or ¥75 more than the average price of a tan of paddy (irrigated land) and upland (dry land). This does not mean that the administrative expenses were too high, but rather that the price of land was much too low.

Able leadership and the support it received from the rank-and-file were at the bottom of this successful work. And it was not Communist leadership either. Messrs Sanhichi Haryu, currently member of the Upper House and Chairman of the Agricultural Committee of the House, and Kunio Fukushima of Kanae village, were active members of the Young Liberal Group, first organized in Shimoina as far back as 1921. It was a social movement group advocating universal suffrage, better living standards for the tenants, land purchases through government subsidies, and,

8/ Misdes No 908, dated January 6, 1951.

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finally, opposition to the Peace Maintenance Law, designed primarily to suppress "subversive" movements such as the one in Shimoina. The group as an organized force had disappeared with the outbreak of the war, but many of its members have survived, and so have the ideas. Little wonder that when the reform came the veterans applied themselves with zest to the realization of the dreams of their youth.

Results and Future of the Reform. What of the consequences and the future of the reform in Nagano? In Shimoina, as in the rest of Nagano, the tenants have acquired the land. No evidence is available that indicates that they are selling the land even though a handsome cash profit could be made. Here and there a tan or two of land changes hands, but it is safe to say that, for the time being, the new owners aim to hold on to the land they have. The windfall in the form of land which they received practically as a gift, hardly falls into the category of "easy come--easy go". The economic and psychological benefits are undeniable, although they are not easy to estimate in the rush of a quick trip. They should not be over-estimated, however, for in Shimoina, for instance, the purchased acreage per tenant is less than three tan. On the social side, the tenants of Nagano have always participated in village affairs, and their role is stronger now than ever before.

Neither the articulate Mr Kubota nor the farmer-leaders met on this trip have any illusions concerning the reform as a cure-all. Mr Kubota is of the opinion that "the land reform is a democratic revolution that liberated the farmers from semi-feudal economic and social ties". On the other hand, he emphasized that since the reform signifies above all the transfer of land ownership to the tenants, it is "only the first step toward the modernization of Japanese agriculture". Mr Kubota spoke for many when he told this writer that Japanese agriculture is entering a new stage--"from land reform to agrarian reform in general", and that ownership of land on so small a scale urgently demands that. His idea is to build on the foundation provided by the reform; what he was in effect saying was well expressed in a poster, in the village office of Matsuo: "May our agricultural production multiply the size of our holdings". And this is what the often referred to agrarian reform aims to achieve.

The future of land reform is tied up with the accomplishments along such lines. Its more immediate future is dependent upon the economic conditions in Japan as a whole and in the countryside. In the course of the field trip very little fear has been expressed about legislating the reform out of existence. Much has been said, however, regarding economic conditions and their effect on the program. In virtually every village the refrain was the same: if Japan is not hit by a lasting economic depression and rural conditions remain what they are now, the new owners will keep the land; if the reverse is true, the compelling temptation to dispose of the land for the sake of immediate needs might become irresistible, restrictions on the sale of land notwithstanding.

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Land Consolidation

Consolidation Difficulties. The holdings of a Japanese farmer are broken down into a large number of plots scattered in all directions. In the village of Matsuo the average plot of land is only one-tenth of an acre in size. This is common in Nagano and beyond Nagano, and this phenomenon is quite old. The Japanese have always been cognizant of its adverse effects on farm management, and efforts to consolidate the small plots into large ones have never ceased. The results, however, have been negligible; traditional attachment to a piece of land and the differences in the quality of the soil--to mention these two factors only--have always stood in the way of exchanging plots among farmers and consolidating them into fewer and more manageable plots.

The reform changed the situation little. The land reform legislation recognized the existence of the problem, but it could do no more than require the land commissions to "consider" the possibility of land consolidation. If the latter were made a condition of land transfer, few transfers would have taken place. The problem at that time was to buy the land from the landlords and sell it to the tenants as quickly as possible.

Methods of Consolidating Land and Results. Some land commissions did more than consider the possibility, and those of Shimoina District have succeeded in making a good beginning. The total number of plots exchanged was 5,484, the area involved 200 cho, or four percent of all purchased land under the reform, while the number of households affected was 2,443.

The commissions have developed an elaborate method of dealing with this task. The first step was the creation of a Land Consolidation Committee, made up of buraku representatives. The committee then proceeded with the work of examining the possibilities of land exchanges between buraku and within buraku. The findings served as a basis for a consolidation plan; after its formulation, a farmer would submit to the committee a writen pledge to the effect that he accepted the plan. The schems offered the farmers was based on the investigation of the productivity of each plot so that a fair term of exchange could be determined. In the case of Matsuo village this presented no problem because a land survey of this kind was carried out not many years back. In addition, a ratio of paddy to upland was arrived at on the basis that each farm holding called for six units of the former to four units of the latter. The proportion of double-cropped to single-cropped fields was also taken into consideration. Finally, the exchange of different types of land was based on the yield of the respective plots. The standard yields were set as follows: Single-crop paddy field, 3.6 koku of brown rice per tan; double-crop land 3.2 koku of brown rice and 3 koku of barley, or 2 koku of wheat per tan; upland fields, 2 koku of wheat and 380 kan of sweet potatoes; or in case of mulberry fields, 8 kan of cocoons. 9/

9/ One koku equals 3.267 pounds.

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The complexity of the purely technical problem is quite obvious; even more difficult is the task of persuading the farmers to make the exchange and thereby give up habits and the justifiable or unjustifiable prejudices a farmer develops with regard to a given piece of land that he and his people before him have cultivated over the years. The enormity of the Land Consolidation Committee's job with respect to this aspect of the problem becomes apparent if only the following is noted: In Matsuo village, in order to consolidate 32 cho of land, a total of 622 exchanges of ownership took place; over 800 cases of other types of exchanges were recorded in order to consolidate another 44 cho of land. The results of consolidation in the 11 buraku of Matsuo village are shown in the table below, while a more graphic presentation of one consolidated farm holding is given on the page following.

Number of Scattered Plots Before and After Land Consolidation, Matsuo Village

	Before Consolidation			After Consolidation		
Buraku	Largest Number in One Farm	Smallest Number in One Farm	Average Number Per Farm	Largest Number in One Farm	Smallest Number in One Farm	Average Number Per Farm
Kami Mizo	22	6	12	7	1	3
Misai	29	3	11	6	1	4
Mizuki	13	2	10	3	1	2
Shimizu	22	7	13	4	1	3
Akira	19	4	10	8	1	2
Shiro	24	6	12	7	1	4
Hachiman	26	4	14	8	1	4
Shirota	26	7	11	9	1	3
Kega	17	3	8	4	1	4
Arai	19	2	7	8	1	2
Jisho	33	6	7	12	1	3
Village avg.	25	4	10	7	1	3

In summary, it may be said that the consolidation work in this village and in Shimoina District as a whole is an exception rather than the rule in so far as the other prefectures of Japan, including Nagano, are concerned. Yet, this is one important branch of farm management improvement that calls for only very modest expenditures. In Matsuo village the cost amounted to less than ¥2,000 per cho, chiefly as remuneration for the members of the Land Consolidation Committee. The real problems, as indicated above, lie elsewhere, and it will take all the technical knowledge, drive, persuasiveness, and appeal to the community spirit of the farmers and their economic-mindedness to reverse the course of fragmentation of the Japanese farm holdings.

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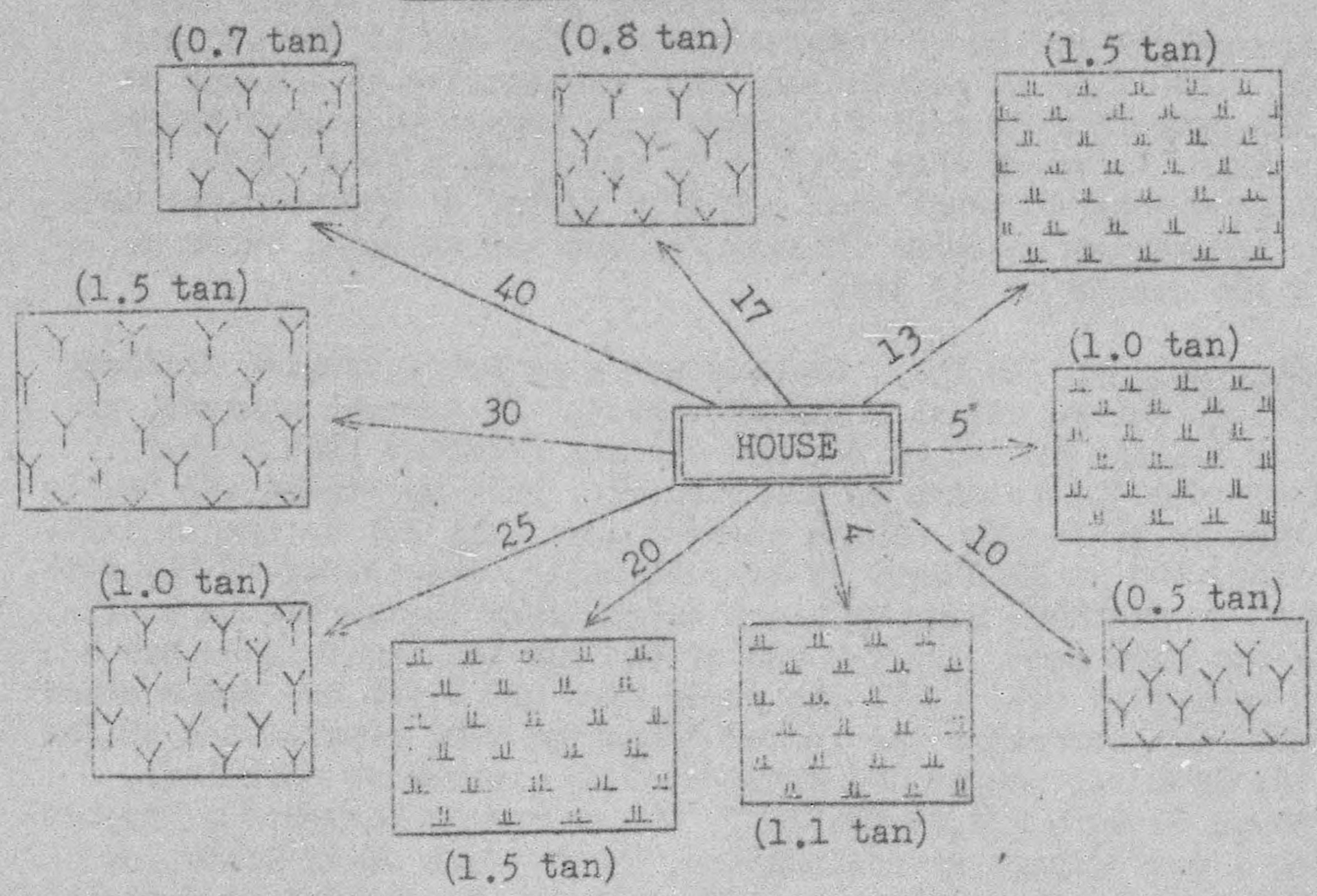
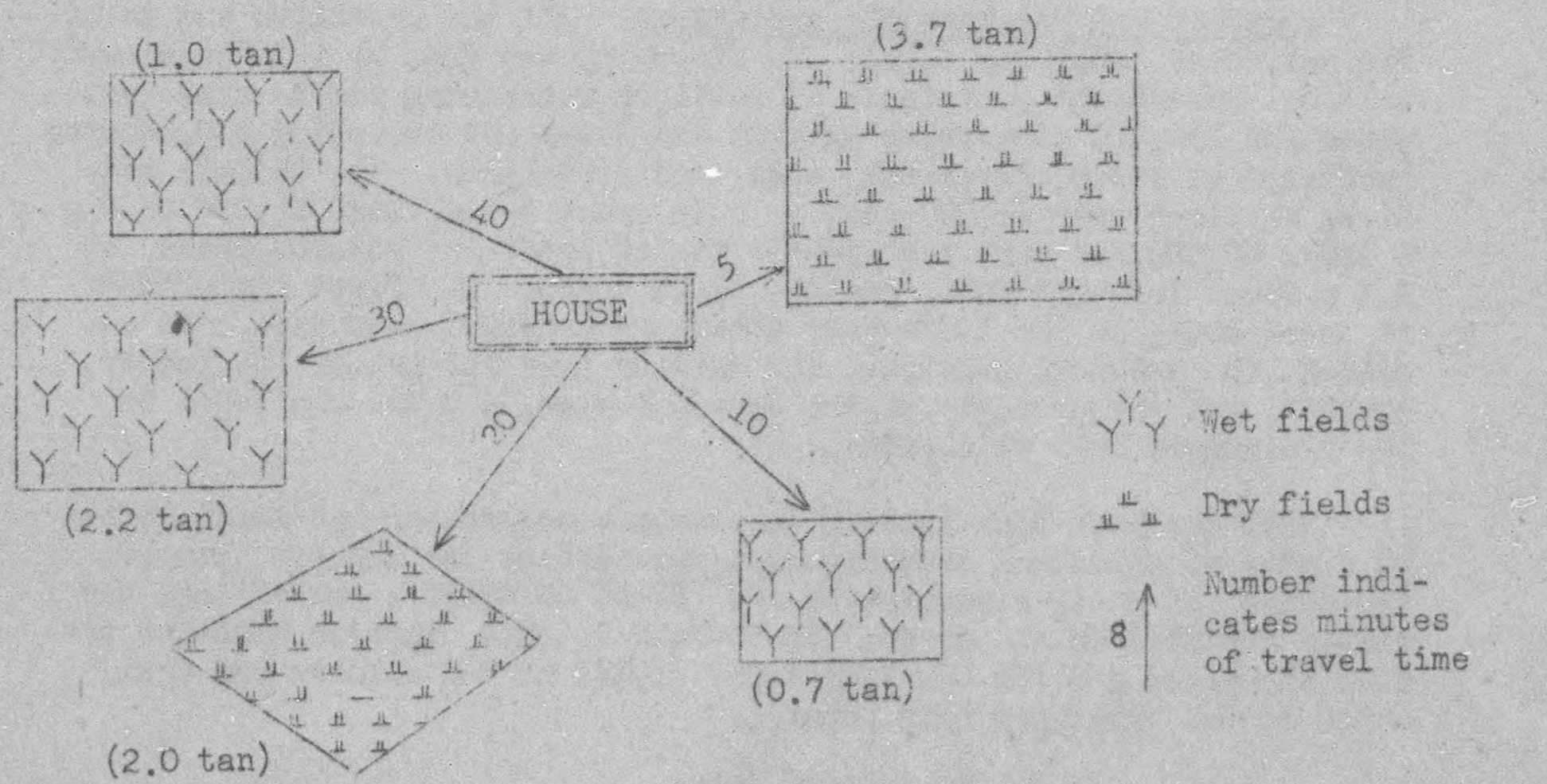
EXAMPLE OF RESULTS OF LAND CONSOLIDATION IN MATSUO VILLAGE, NAGANO PREFECTURE

BEFORE CONSOLIDATION



AFTER CONSOLIDATION



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Land Reclamation

Land reclamation in Japan is an old agricultural device, and since the turn of the century no Japanese Government failed to pay attention to the need for reclaiming land, thus adding to the cultivated acreage. With the tremendous influx of repartriates at the end of the war and the general steep rise in population, land reclamation as a means of reducing the growing food deficit became more urgent than ever before. The writer hopes to treat this subject in detail at a later date; at this point he wishes to touch upon one of a number of post-war projects in Nagano, the rather uncommon Ohinata reclamation village, where he stopped in the course of his trip.

Ohinata Village. In 1917, Ohinata was a poverty-stricken mountain village with no future and an unenviable past. By general consent, so Mr Aoki, the village master of the new Ohinata informed this writer, the community decided to give up the struggle, pull up stakes and create a new village in Manchuria. Three scounts were sent out to find a suitable location, and in 1918 most of the community, consisting of 216 families, moved to Southern Manchuria and established themselves in a village under the same name. By the end of the war the expatriates had a prosperous community with 1,000 cho under rice and 1,500 cho under other crops. After the surrender the former Ohinatans were repatriated to Japan. In the process, nearly 400 members of the community were lost, mostly through disease and starvation. The survivors launched a project of creating a new village by reclamation, at the foot of Mt Asama, on 200 cho of forest land turned over to them by the Government at a nominal rental.

Economic and Non-Economic Assistance. All the newcomers had to offer was their labor and skill; the financing was done by the Government. National government assistance to settlers reclaiming remote areas provides for ¥50,000 as housing subsidy and loans not exceeding ¥60,000 for purchases of tools, livestock, seed, and fertilizer. The Ohinata settlers received only ¥3,000 each to help erect a dwelling, ¥1,000 to dig a well, ¥2,500 for each reclaimable tan of land, and ¥43,500 loans, at 3.5 percent interest rate, payable in 20 years. The first installment is to commence in the sixth year after the original loan date. In addition, the settlers were paid for cutting down the trees; the lumber, however, was the property of the Forest Bureau, and was available to the reclaimers only at a price.

What may have been lacking in economic assistance was supplemented by a note of spiritual encouragement provided by the Emperor himself. The plight of their repatriation and effort to build a new village was widely reported in the press. On October 7, 1946, Emperor Hirohito visited the place and for New Year's Day (1947) he had written and dedicated to the villagers this poem:

At the foot of Asama
Where heavy winds from the mountain blow
My fellow people returned and strive
How honorable they are!

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The poem is suitably framed and prominently displayed in the village office. Listening to the account by the farmers of this particular event, no visitor can escape the impression that in the final assessing of the pioneering at Mt Asama the Emperor's touch was not without its value.

Reclamation Progress. Four years later, on what was once an expanse of woodland, there now stands the Ohinata cooperative village, made up of 70 families and as many dwellings. Everything about the place appears to be half-finished, but the most impressive feature is the energy displayed in creating so much in so little time with limited resources. The briefing given to the visitor was not a recital of hardships, but rather a statement of achievements in terms of food, shelter, and the reasonably good outlook immediately ahead.

To date, the economic basis of the village is 140 cho of reclaimed forest land. The stumps are still very much in evidence; lacking mechanical stump-pullers, it will be years before they will be rid of them and all of the land fully utilized. The soil is mainly volcanic ash, very acid, and demands heavy application of lime to neutralize the acidity. All of the land is under upland crops, of which wheat, barley, and soybeans are the principal ones. Feed crops for animals, and specialized vegetable crops for the market are given much consideration. The land lies in relatively high altitude, and one section is at a 3,000 feet elevation. Climatic conditions are good, damage from insects is negligible, and yields for 2.5 koku of wheat, 3 koku of barley, and 1 to 1.5 koku of soybeans per tan are good indeed. With no rice grown at all, the diet of the settlers has undergone a serious change: they eat rice once instead of three times a day, and what they get by way of this traditional staple is through the sales of soybeans. Meat and dairy products are of some importance in the diet now and are expected to be more so in the future. At the moment, Ohinata has 20 milk cows, 16 draft animals, 70 goats, 212 pigs, 18 sheep, 450 rabbits, and 500 chickens.

Management and Ownership. Ohinata differs significantly from the old and new villages of Japan, both by the appearance of the fields and the type of management. The eye accustomed to small, scattered fields will find none in Ohinata. The land is cultivated in large blocks and is jointly owned; the same is true of the warehouse, the sawmill, the food processing plant and the other principal items of equipment. The type of ownership and working of the land necessitated a system of distribution quite unusual in Japan. Roughly half of the produce is distributed among the 70 families according to the number of mouths; the remainder is sold and the proceeds divided among the working population in accordance with a point system, which entitles a man to ten points and a woman to eight points for the same type of work. Yet Ohinata is not a version of Soviet collective farms, but a free association of former individual land owners who believe that in conditions of limited resources and broken-up families they can achieve more by pulling together. Surprisingly enough, this reclamation settlement resembles closest the kibutz (cooperative) type of settlement so prevalent in Israel.

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The Outlook. The leaders of the community viewed the future with optimism. The days when they subsisted mainly on snakes and frogs and with hardly a roof over their heads are gone. The bitter memories of repatriation from Manchuria have given way to the urgencies of building a new community. The once broken-up families are rapidly expanding: the widowers found (or were given) wives; in the same manner the widows found husbands, and the numerous orphans who survived the trip from Manchuria were adopted by the newly reconstituted families. According to the village leader this was one of the first tasks the community faced and solved. Most everything else is, of course, far from solved. The fields are full of stumps, the 70 dwellings for the 70 families will need improvement to bring them up to the average Japanese farm home standard, the village office has been hastily thrown together, and so has the sawmill, the flour mill, and the "miso" and "shoyu" processing establishments. The village leaders were most apologetic for the roads leading to the village, to the fields, and the roads within the village. Above all, Ohinata has no school, and the children have to trudge quite a distance to the nearest school. The village has 18 radios.

Nonetheless, the inescapable impression is that Ohinata has turned the corner, and is set for bigger things. The immediate concern is to reclaim the remaining 60 cho of land and to acquire title to the 200 cho. No difficulties are anticipated on either count. The last 60 cho will fall under the axe more readily than the first 60 cho four years ago. The Government is asking for the land ¥2,500 per cho or a total of ¥500,000. If the fall cabbage crop is up to expectations--it was threatening with drought in the first week of August--the community will pay cash for the land. Once the land is acquired, each family will be given ownership-title to an equal share of the acreage, but there will be no physical division of the land, joint cultivation and distribution of the produce will continue.

The more difficult matter is to induce the Government to sell another 100 to 200 cho of the nearby national forest land. This is an important prerequisite to the type of the economy envisaged by the leadership of Ohinata. The central idea is to develop a system of diversified, commercial farming, with livestock as the main source of income. Mr Aoki was of the opinion that Japanese farmers rely too much on muscle and not enough on brains, hence the failure to venture into new fields. Merely raising crops, he felt, would never provide the membership of this reclamation cooperative with anything like the amenities they came to enjoy (and expect) in Manchuria where land was plentiful. Animal husbandry seemed to be the answer. Aside from a larger acreage, Ohinata must somehow find the capital to add to its livestock, and a good cow costs from ¥100,000 to ¥130,000.

These and other future problems of the rising new community will have to be met, and Mr Aoki and his co-leaders do not despair of a solution. Their confidence stems from the solid foundation laid in the past

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four years, based on the experience, knowledge and purposefulness with which the Ohinata settlers endowed their work. The village motto--"we can stand hardship if we cooperate sincerely and work together" has proven itself, and this settlement may well be on the road to achieving the type of farm economy its leaders are after. But it should be noted that Ohinata is not the average, run-of-the-mill reclamation project. The human material there, the type of land, its location--all these are better than those usually obtainable in most reclamation projects in Japan. Another point worth mentioning is that even if all reclamation settlements were so many Ohinatas, they could not solve the country's food deficit and materially reduce rural population pressure. These problems may be only alleviated, but under Japanese conditions this is in itself of inestimable value.

Economic Conditions

Reasonable Well-Being. In no community visited on this trip did the average holding exceed 1.5 acres. Despite the small acreage, the economic position of the farmers seemed to be in reasonably good shape. Available information, even if mainly non-statistical, points that way.

Farmers habitually complain of bad times, but in August, in Nagano, the complaints were born of the fear that current conditions might not last long. In most cases they conceded that they are better fed, better dressed, have more money to spend, and that more farmers have added to the capital value of their farms than in many years past. The usual weathervane of depressed farm conditions in Japan is the burden of heavy indebtedness and taxation, and lack of farm credit. At the present time indebtedness in Nagano is not a problem, taxes are not considered high, and credit is obtainable at reasonable interest rates.

Non-Agricultural Income. Three factors explain the situation of comparative well-being. The first one is the high price of cocoons, which is the farmer's principal cash crop. The second factor is the high yields, and the good income enjoyed by those who raise livestock (including chickens) and have a plot of land under fruit trees. Finally, the income derived from non-agricultural occupations. This is of utmost importance to the farmers since not less than a third of total income comes from that source. This factor serves to underline the marginal character of Japanese agriculture. Farmers cannot make both ends meet from agriculture alone even under favorable yields, price and land-ownership conditions if the holding is only 1.5 acres. Another acre of land (and a head of livestock) make a difference as illustrated by the case of farmer Yasuo Tsukada.

Farm Balance Sheet. Mr Tsukada owns seven tan and rents three tan of land, or a total of 2.5 acres. His is a diversified farm, but the main sources of income are derived from the sales of milk and cocoons.

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He is among the few farmers who keep books and do not scratch their heads concerning basic data on income, taxation and such. In the current crop year he expects to get from the farm most of his food for a family of five (including three young children) and the cash income from these products:

Milk	¥85,000
Eggs	20,000
Cocoons	55,000
Rice	15,000
Wheat	10,000
Apples	10,000
Apricots	10,000
Total	¥205,000

The cost of fertilizer and other items of production will run into ¥30,000; feed for the livestock, ¥25,000 and taxes, ¥20,000. Farmer Tsukada estimates his net cash income from agriculture at ¥130,000, and practically none from other sources. The labor force on the farm is the farmer himself, his wife and the cow which is used for draft purposes only occasionally. He has enough to keep him busy on his own farm and current income covers his needs. The principal prop of his economy is the cow, and this, incidentally, was given to him by his brother.

Fearful of the Future. Tsukada is much better off than the average farmer. He has begun his second five-year plan to create a model farm, the plan to include both fields and home. Yet he is uneasy about the future economic conditions. In his case it is a question of maintaining prices at present levels; in the cases of the 1.5 acre farmers it is a question of prices and availability of a non-farm source of income. Most of the farmers met on this trip were alive to this situation. They know the consequences of large numbers of people trying to eke out a living from a small acreage; Tatsuoka village, which selected and equipped eight families for the founding of a new reclamation settlement in Oita Prefecture, Kyushu, is not an exception. This form of group emigration is not new to Nagano farmers because they did it on a much larger scale in the depression of the 1930's.

The real concern of the farmers, therefore, is not that they must rely heavily upon income from other sources, but that those sources might dry up, and that the present balance can be easily upset by a downward trend in economic activity. Prospects of this kind are always disturbing to farmers; particularly so now that the farmers have tasted of better times and something of the Greater Expectations. What was once a luxury to many a farmer is a necessity now. In the effort to hold on to the gains, the economic issue might become a first rate political issue. Since the end of the war, the farmers have received a good deal of financial support from the Government and they expect more of the same. When asked, as this observer has repeatedly, what will happen in the event the Government is no longer in a position or willing to furnish that support, the answer was that "we support those who support us".

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2. Publication of Agricultural Programs in Japan

a. Natural Resources Section Report No 148, Agricultural Programs in Japan, 1945-51, was published in October 1951. This report was prepared by members of the Agriculture Division under the direction of Mark B. Williamson, former Chief of the Division. It comprises a general background description of technical assistance operations and methods in agriculture during the Occupation, a background chapter on Japanese agriuclture, and separate chapters on each of the major agricultural programs in which the Agriculture Division has participated. The report is expected to be especially useful to American Government, international, and private agencies interested in technical assistance to agriculture throughout the world.

LAND TENURE, RECLAMATION, AND IMPROVEMENT

1. Fifth Anniversary of Land Reform Law

a. Sunday, 21 October 1951, marked the fifth anniversary of promulgation of Japan's land reform legislation (Owner-Farmer Establishment Special Measures Law, No 43, 21 October 1946, and Agricultural Land Adjustment Law, No 67 of 1938 as amended by No 42 of 21 October 1946).

b. As of the fifth anniversary, the original intent of land reform law, transfer of ownership rights in agricultural land to those who actually till the soil and guarantee of fair tenancy practices for those who remain as tenants, had been largely fulfilled. One-third of Japan's agricultural land had been transferred from landowners to former tenants, Two-thirds of all Japanese farm families had been able to acquire title to some agricultural land, and the remaining tenants, now about five percent of all farm families, had been freed from the oppressive burdens under which they formerly struggled.

c. One major task remains. Permanent legislation geared to the needs of a normal agricultural land market must be enacted. The essential principles are now embodied in Cabinet Order No 288 (See Weekly Summary Nos 256, 257, and 262), but this order was issued pursuant to a Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers directive and its status after ratification of the Japanese Peace Treaty cannot be predicted. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry is now completing a draft of a new Agricultural Land Law, combining the essential features of the Owner-Farmer Law, the Agricultural Land Adjustment Law, and Cabinet Order No 288, and replacing them. It is now contemplated that this Bill will be submitted to the Diet at its next regular session, beginning in December 1951.

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FOOD POSITION AND COLLECTION

1. Collection of 1951 Rice as of 20 October 1951

COLLECTION OF 1951 RICE AS OF 20 OCTOBER 1951
(1,000 metric tons brown rice equivalent)

Crop	Delivery Quota	Collected Amount	Percent Quota Fulfilled
1951 a/	b/	665.6	b/
1950 c/	4,326.4	702.2	16.2
1949 d/	4,481.8	529.5	11.8

a/ As of 20 October 1951
b/ No delivery quota has yet been decided
c/ As of 20 October 1950, includes substitutes.
d/ As of 20 October 1949, includes substitutes.
SOURCE: Food Agency, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

CROP PRODUCTION AND REPORTING

1. Production of Certified Seed Potatoes

PRODUCTION OF CERTIFIED SEED POTATOES
1936-44 AVERAGE, 1945-51
(1,000 metric tons)

Years	Production of Certified Seed Potatoes
1936-44 Average	113
1945	97
1946	188
1947	183
1948	217
1949	208
1950	159
1951 a/	146

a/ Estimate
SOURCE: Agricultural Production Section, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.