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◆PEOPLE'S CHARTER ON ODA (Official Development Assistance)◆

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In June, 1988, just before the Toronto Summit of seven industrialized nations, the Japanese government announced a new mid-term "aid" plan. According the announcement, the amount of government aid (ODA) for the next five-year period (1988-92) would exceed 50 billion US dollars, and would be double the amount for the preceding five years. The estimated amount of Japanese ODA to the Third World in 1989 was to exceed 10 billion US dollars. This means that Japan has now become the biggest donor country, exceeding the United States. In general, "aid" from the rich countries to the poor countries is believed to be a "good thing." But can we really say that is true?

There were two big scandals involving Japanese aid in 1986. One was the Marcos Scandal and the other was the JICA (Japan International Cooperation Agency) corruption case. After the "Recruit Scandal" in 1988, Japanese journalists became more willing report about the "dirty" side of Japanese ODA. Japanese people also have become more aware of ODA matters. However, the Japanese government, LDP politicians and the business circle who are the caretakers of "aid" are still not so keen to respond seriously to the criticism of the people. Moreover, they are very much reluctant to respond to the people of the recipient countries who very often become victims of the "aid."

We feel that we should pay more attention to the political or strategic side of Japan's ODA. The Japanese government has used aid not only for business purposes but also for some strategic purposes in order to avoid criticism from the other donor nations, particularly the US. The US government is now asking that Japan should participate in "burden sharing" in the field of world strategy. In this regard, we should note the Multilateral Assistance Initiative (MAI), Philippine Assistance Plan (PAP), which is a plan for a huge amount of aid to the Philippines initiated by the US and World Bank. The US government is hoping that Japan will participate in this plan, particularly through shouldering a big portion of money because of its huge trade surplus. This plan is dangerous because the Japanese government might wind up being indirectly responsible for part of the costs for maintaining the US military facilities in the Philippines.

As mentioned above, a number of Japanese people have begun to be aware of the fact that Japan's ODA, which comes from taxpayers' money, contains some grave flaws and problems, and to consider the need for fundamental changes. In 1986, after the Marcos Scandal, some concerned citizens and scholars organized a group named REAL (Reconsider Aid! Citizens League) which was the first people's organization in Japan to research and monitor Japan's ODA. This group has been strongly urging the government to legislate a "Basic Law on ODA."

Several drafts and memoranda on the bill (written by) the opposition parties or citizens have been made public, but the bureaucrats and the ruling LDP have rejected or neglected them. Such drafts and memoranda are as follow.

• On January 29, 1975, Senator DEN Hideo and other Diet members submitted a "Bill to get the Diet's Approval for the Overseas Economic Cooperation Programme" to the House of Councillors.

• On May 21, 1987, The Komei-To (a party) submitted a bill on the "Basic Law on International Development Cooperation" to the same House.

• In 1986, Prof. MURO Osamu, Towa University, published several principles and viewpoints to be included in such a law.

• On June 21, 1989, the Japan Socialist Party submitted a bill to the House of Representatives (Lower House), entitled the "Basic Law on International Development Cooperation."

• On August 15, 1989, PP21 ODA Workshop '89 discussed a "People's Charter on ODA" and the "Basic Law on the Japan's International Development Cooperation" (drafted by Japan Study Team of the PP21 ODA Research Group).

Some council members of ARENA (Asian Regional Exchange for New Alternatives), myself included, discussed and proposed international joint research on Japanese ODA in December 1987 at Chiang Mai. This proposal for joint research was welcomed by Japanese researchers at Pacific Asia Resources Center (PARC) and REAL. In May 1988, about 30 Japanese individuals appealed to people's movements, organizations and individuals to join the People's Plan for the 21 Century: Alliance of Hope (PP21). The main purpose of PP21 was that various groups and persons of the people's movements not only in Japan but also those of other Asian and Pacific nation gather, share their experiences and draft a grand design for the people's alternative society. From the end of July until the end of the August 1989, a series of people's conferences and cultural events were held and performed throughout Japan under the aegis of PP21. Participants from abroad totalled 260 persons.

Under the auspices of PP21, ARENA, PARC and REAL organized an action research group on Japanese ODA in which more than 30 Japanese researchers and 6 foreign members from Indonesia, Philippines and Thailand participated. An interim workshop was held in Tokyo on 14 and 15 August 1989. For this workshop, the Japan Study Team and some other Japanese members drafted a "People's Charter on ODA" and the "Basic Law on the Japan's International Development Cooperation" because we felt that we should seek for an alternative way of "aid". We also believe that the people or the people's groups, not the governments, are the most important actors in "giving aid and receiving aid actions." Unfortunately people are forgotten in this governmental "aid" action. So we drafted "People's Charter on ODA" as follows. This Charter expresses our fundamental philosophy or ideas concerning Official Development Assistance. We welcome your comments and criticism. (Please contact to: PP21 ODA Research Group, 504 Parkside Yamaguchi, 2-4-3 Hongou, Bunkyou-ku, Tokyo)

People's Charter on ODA

We regret the fact that present Japan's Official Development Assistance (ODA) does not always bring about benefits to the lowest-income groups in recipient countries for their efforts toward improvement of life and self-reliance. We further regret that

1) ODA has caused increased debt to people in many recipient countries;

2) it has sometimes brought about destruction of life and environment, trampled on tradition and culture, promoted corruption among recipient countries, and played a reinforcing part in such recipient government as under militarism or with infringement upon human rights; and

3) while in Japan most process of formulating and decision-making of ODA has been handled by some statesmen, government officials and private companies, structurally allowing them to make their own profits and bring collusive relationship and corruption. Therefore, we hereby make a conception of what ODA should be and suggest as follows:

1. The sole reason for ODA's existence should be that it is a means for equalizing enormous economic imbalances existing between the South and North; dissolving the relation which the North has economically, socially, and culturally deprived of material and moral properties originally owned by the South; and enabling both sides to build a mutually even, equal, and self-dependent relationship. In the future, contribution shall be given to make the recipient people free from the 'donor-recipient' relation.

2. ODA shall be intended for the economically poorest and politically and socially most restrained areas and peoples, i.e., lowest-income nations, lowest-income groups, primary inhabitants, women, children, handicapped people, refugees, or unsettled people, etc.

3. ODA shall have certain guidelines which leads to break the existing structure in which lowest-income and most restrained groups have been deprived, and to realize economical, social and cultural independence. Therefore, it must not enhance further dependence on ODA in recipients.

4. ODA shall have no aspects in which donor's materialistic culture and mentality is unilaterally forced upon recipients, and shall respect their own traditional and cultural value. In execution of ODA, it is essential to make an agreement between donor and recipient peoples on the civil level.

5. ODA must not be formulated and implemented by such limited people among donor and recipient countries as statesmen, government officials, and private companies. Active participation with peoples in both countries shall be assured under an established system.

6. ODA shall keep such principles as peace, defense of human rights, democracy, and environmental protection. It must not cause to extend hostilities, strengthen infringement of human rights, and destroy of democracy or the environment.

7. ODA shall be formulated and implemented with an agreement confirmed by recipient people and shall have long-term prospects for continuous growth. Primary assessment of the program, monitoring and evaluation during the course of implementation and assessment after completion shall be fully carried out so that lessons can be fed back into future projects. Those evaluations shall reflect the recipient people's opinion and be according to fair assessment by independent third parties within both donor and recipient countries.

8. ODA programs, projects, and budget shall be approved in the donor's parliament through full and detailed assessment after, which shall be fully and widely reported both in donor and recipient countries.

9. Any information on ODA shall be open to the public.

10. ODA shall be carried out not only in inter-government relations but also through various sectors, such as non-governmental organizations. Particularly, the relationship between NGOs of which acitivities are intended for self-reliance in recipient countries should be highly regarded.

◆TROPICAL RAINFORESTS AND JAPAN: PROFITS VS. RESPONSIBILITY◆

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A first-time visitor to Japan is likely to comment on a number of things — the hustle and bustle of the cities, the crowded trains and shopping malls, the immense number of consumer goods available everywhere, the juxtaposition of ancient temples and modern fast-food chain stores, and the cleanliness. Surprise is often expressed over the orderliness of society; trains run on time, restaurant employees are generally polite and efficient, and multiple purchases made at the many gift and souvenier shops are wrapped with great care in individual sheets of paper, and then placed together in one bag. The average visitor also tends to show interest in what is generally referred to as the Japanese appreciation of nature, as expressed in much of the traditional art, architecture, and in the exquisite gardens. If, however, our traveler is exposed to the normal everyday business of Japanese life, the image of the nature-loving Japanese may change, for our bewildered traveler is now likely to comment on the extremely high noise level in the cities, and on the lack of greenery. In time, one begins to wonder whether all the packaging is really necessary, and many visitors inquire as to what becomes of all those disposable chopsticks (about 20 billion a year, according to one environmental group)[1]. Still further consideration of the problem will lead one to the question of why a country with 70% of its area devoted to forestland is the destination for more than half of the world's total tropical timber exports. There is no easy answer to this question, and one will not be provided here. Instead, in the following pages, an attempt will be made to put the problem in perspective through focusing on Japan's involvement, both direct and indirect, in deforestation in Southeast Asia.

Tropical Moist Forests

More than 99% of the world's vegetation by dry weight is located on land; of that, more than half is located in tropical or semitropical regions, including more than 900 million hectares (2.2 billion acres) of rainforest, cloudforest and swampforest known as 'tropical moist forest'. This belt of tropical moist forest stretches over a total of seventy countries; Southeast Asia and Oceania have about 23% (250 hectares), 58% falls in Latin America (640 million hectares), and the remaining 19% is in Africa (210 hectares).

Tropical moist forest, defined as the regions of broad-leafed trees located between the Tropics of Capricorn and Cancer (23°26") in Southeast Asia, Africa, and Central and South America, can be divided into two groupings: approximately two-thirds consists of rainforest, while the remainder is moist deciduous forest, containing trees which shed their leaves annually. Here we are concerned primarily with rainforests, but as the distinction is significant, let us look briefly at the differences between the two groups.

Rain forests, composed of trees which do not shed their leaves, are concentrated in Southeast Asia, principally Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines, some Pacific Islands, particularly Papua New Guinea, the lowland Amazon regions, and the Congo Basin. These areas differ climatically from deciduous moist forest regions in that they receive more rainfall; rainforests get between 4,000-10,000 mm of rain per year, while moist deciduous forests receive only about 1,000-4,000 mm annually. Under the lush rainforest canopy there is perpetual twilight, for natural gaps in the tree cover occur only rarely, and seedlings grow in the nutrientrich litter which covers the forest floor. The soil remains constantly moist, and the temperature is consistantly higher in rain forests than in moist deciduous forests (27°C as opposed to 81°C).

Deciduous forests, consisting primarily of monsoon forests in Burma, Thailand, Cambodia, parts of Indonesia and Malaysia, northeast Australia, parts of West Africa and South America, subtropical rainforests in Central America and the Caribbean, coastal mangrove, high altitude "cloud" forests, riverine and swamp forests, are more open to sunlight than tropical rain forests. The undergrowth is less dense, and they contain fewer species of plants and animals.

Tropical rain forests are a treasure trove of life. Conservative estimates suggest that at least 40 to 50% of the world's plant and animal species exist in rainforests, which average 50-200 species per hectare, as opposed to about 10 to 20 species per hectare in temperate forests. Indonesia, for example, has 3,000 varieties of trees, and while one can consider oneself lucky to find ten different varieties of trees per hectare in temperate climates, in the rainforest one can find as many as 100 to 150. There are 13,000 varieties of orchid alone, and the giant jungle trees can grow as high as three or four hundred meters. Moreover, rain forests contain many plants used in the manufacture of modern medicines, for example those used in treating leukemia.(2)

Rain forests are also alive with animal life, many species of which have yet to be classified and/or defined. In the African rainforests, 40% of the mammals live in the treetops, and about 2/3 are noctural, rarely exposing themselves to the hungry lenses of scientists' cameras. Scientists in Peru have reportedly identified as many as 410 different species of birds in just one hectare of rain forest, and it is believed that no fewer than 220 species of mammals dwell in the rain forests of Southeast Asia.

Existence in the rain forest is based on a very intricate system of interdependence among the flora and fauna. As there is little wind under the forest canopy, most of the trees must rely on bats, birds, and insects to spread their pollen. Often, a species is completely dependent on one particular species for pollination as, for example, in the case of the 40 species of Central American fig trees, each of which relies on a different pollinator. One implication of this fragile system of interdependencies means that while the variety of life found in tropical rain forests is abundant, the density is very low, and many species are found only in one area or region. For this reason, destruction of a single area of rain forest can result in the extermination of an entire species. At the same time, as many species are reliant on wide-ranging species for pollination or food, the reduction of large forest areas to small reserves can also be devastating.

Another seeming contradiction in rain forests is that in spite of the lush vegetation and abundant animal life, most of the soil is poor and virtually sterile, serving merely as a surface for the dense litter on the forest floor which enables the recycling of nutrients and supports the lush growth of the rain forest. When the forest area is cleared and the soil exposed to the rain and sun, most of the nutrients are wasted; carried off in the smoke of the fires used in clearing, blown away by the wind, or washed away by the rain. Moreover, since much of the soil is high in iron and aluminum, it becomes brick-hard when exposed to the sun. This process, called laterisation, is irreversible, and once it occurs, the soil can no longer support vegetation. Once the soil is cleared, it no longer absorbs the torrential rains which fall in the rain forests, so that even the building of roads through the forest can have devastating effects, causing flooding and upsetting the delicate balance of life under the canopy.

Life in the rain forest includes another important grouping — human beings. The indigenous peoples of tropical forest regions have existed for centuries in harmony with their natural environment, using, but not degrading, the forest resources, and developing complex societies dependent on the forest for their survival. Many of these peoples, often living deep within the rain forests, remained isolated from the rest of the world long after their less fortunate indigenous brothers and sisters had been devasted by unknown diseases or massacred at the hands of colonizers set on taking over indigenous lands. Today, many indigenous peoples still dwell in the rain forests, and remain culturally and physically dependent on the forest for their survival. It is thus important to stress that deforestation not only has environmental implications, but also poses a threat to the very survival of the indigenous peoples of the rain forests, people who are generally minorities in the countries which claim them as citizens, and who have very little say in the disposition of their lands.

As is clear from the above, rain forests contain a wealth of life, human and otherwise, and modern science is still far from penetrating their many mysteries. Today, one of the most important aspects of tropical rain forests under scruntiny is the role they play in forming the world's climate and atmosphere. Water evaporated from rain forests returns to earth as rain; deforestation is contributing to the devastating cycle of floods and droughts which afflicts many countries of the parts of the world known as the Third World. Moreover, the reduction of forest lands is leading to a build-up of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, which in turn is believed to contribute to global warming and to affect not only local rainfall, but global weather patterns as well.

Today, tropical moist forests are disappearing at an alarming rate. Where once the earth had as many as 1.5-1.6 billion hectares of tropical moist forests, now fewer than 900 million hectares remain, and in the past fifty years, it is estimated that the total amount of tropical forest has diminished by half. We are now in the process of destroying what little remains of our tropical forest heritage at lightening speed. Every minute of the day, roughly 40 hectares of tropical forest disappears, the victim of commercial logging, overexploitation for fuel wood, overgrazing, fires, and clearing for large-scale agriculture or development projects. It is now estimated that if this deforestation continues at its present rate, by the end of the century less than one-sixth of the present total area of tropical moist forest will remain.(3) Those last few traces would be located in the Zaire Basin, the western half of Brazilian Amazonia, some spots in South America, and parts of the island of New Guinea.(4) Little or nothing would be left of the tropical moist forests of Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines, the principle sources of imported tropical hardwoods for Japan.

Deforestation in Southeast Asia: Japan's Role

Deforestation is a global problem, and it would be both hasty and erroneous to pin the blame for the destruction of tropical rain forests in Asia and elsewhere entirely on Japan. At the same time, Japan has played an important role in the destruction of those forests through direct logging and/or importation of raw timber and through its financing of large-scale development projects either directly or through institutions such as the Asian Development Bank. These projects have led to widespread destruction of tropical moist forest for infrastructure programs such as the building of dams or roads or for development as agricultural land. In addition, Japan has contributed to the devise of tropical forests, through its highly wasteful patterns of consumption of forest products, and through its drastically insufficient reforestation program.

In 1988, the Japanese Ministry of the Environment chose "Japan's Role in the Preservation of the World's Environment" as the theme for its annual White Paper on the

Environment. The White Paper suggests that slash and burn agriculture is responsible for 45% of the current reduction in tropical forests, and that the remaining 55% is due to clearing for agricultural purposes, use for fuel, and over-grazing. It then goes on to explain that the sources of destruction vary from region to region, and suggests that in Asia, slash and burn agriculture accounts for 49% of the damage, migration and settlement of lands accounts for most of the rest, and that "in the islands of Southeast Asia, commercial logging is the primary indirect cause."(5)

There is little question that the Ministry of the Environment is correct in its assertion that the main causes of deforestation presently come from sources other than logging. Clearly increasing populations in tropical moist forest regions have put great strains on the forest environment, and have led to the clearing of forest land. Generally this is done through slash and burn techniques, and while at first the soil supports beans, bananas, and potatoes, or grazing animals, it is soon drained of its nutrients, and would-be farmers find themselves having to move on after a year or two. The procedure is repeated, and the forest gradually disappears. The problem is multiplied when Third World governments, often with the assistance of Japanese consultants, apply for loans or other forms of bilateral and/or multilateral aid (Japanese ODA is handled on an application basis) for the clearing of land for use in agriculture, cattle raising, or large-scale projects such as dams or roads. As has already been explained, the building of roads can be disastrous for the ecological balance in rain forests, and agricultural endeavors tend to encounter great difficulties due to the poor soil, and the flooding which occurs after the trees are cut. Moreover, these projects often involve the removal of indigenous peoples from their lands, or else result in making conditions in adjoining areas so difficult so as to leave the inhabitants little choice but to move.

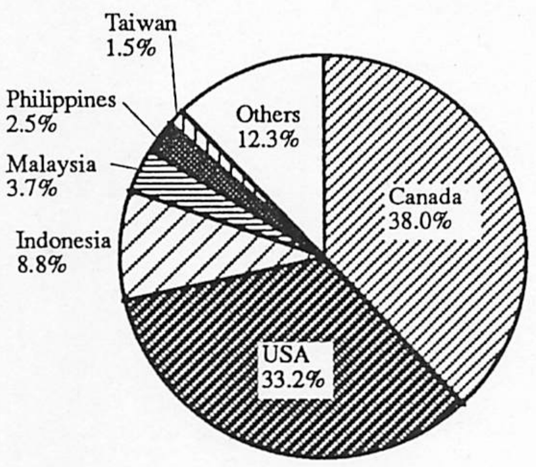
It is thus clear that logging is not the only concern. At the same time, even if we leave aside the problem of how logging can be a "primary indirect cause" of deforestation, there is no question that the intensive commercial logging and clearing which began in earnest about twenty years ago has greatly contributed to the destruction of tropical forests, nor is there any doubt that Japan has contributed greatly to that destruction. For example, statistics from the government of the Philippines reveal that between 1960 and 1984, a total of one billion cubic meters of logs were exported, of which 65% went to Japan. While in 1960, 60% of the area of the Philippines was forestland, by 1985 that figure had been reduced to 20%, but exports of wood products continue today, although in reduced form.(6) In spite of this, the Philippines still account for 2.5% of the total world tropical hardwood raw timber exports, and of this 1% goes to Japan.(7)

Japan, however, is not the only guilty party. One popular metaphor used to describe the growth of commercial logging in tropical forests does so on the basis of three groups, classified according to destination and function. The "chopstick connection" characterizes the Japanese use of tropical hardwoods, while the "hamburger connection" refers to the vast areas of South and Central America cleared by the United States in order to raise cheap beef for its growing hamburger industry. Finally, the "coffin connection" has been used to describe the use of imported timber from West Africa to make coffins in Europe. In the past 20 years, imports of tropical timber by industrialized countries have increased sixteenfold, and of this, pulp for paper accounts for ten percent. Japan accounts for roughly half of the total, Europe a third, and the United States the additional twenty percent. In contrast, in spite of the fact that more than half of the world's forests and three-fourths of the world's population are located in the developing world, the total consumption of finished wood products such as paper or plywood in the developing countries is only 14% of the total. Moreover, "the amount of wood necessary to make the paper consumed by one Japanese person in one year is equivalent to that used for fuel in the same period by people in developing countries."(8)

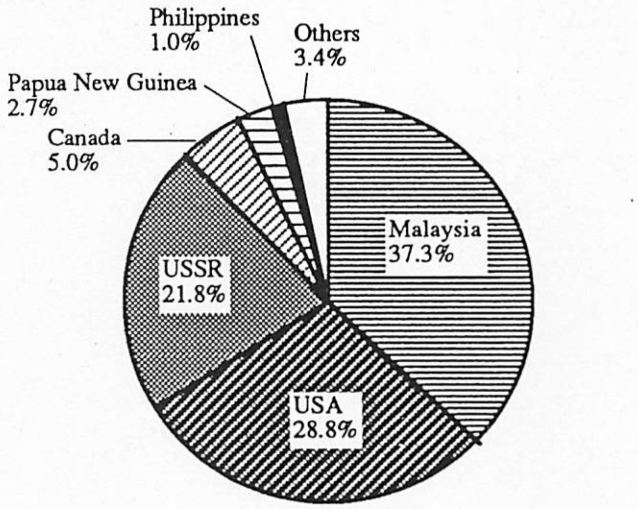
There is an inherent danger in statements like the above; accusations that they cloud the issue can not be entirely ignored. At the same time, framing the problem in this way is useful because it focuses attention on one root cause of deforestation — the over-dependence of people in industrialized countries on forest products. In order to examine this issue further, let us look at the figures available on tropical timber use, keeping in mind that these figures refer to wood from tropical moist forests, both deciduous and rain forests. The bulk of tropical moist forest timber comes from savannahs, but Japan uses primarily that from rain forests, thus when the figures for rain forests alone are separated out, the rate of destruction and use generally becomes much higher.(9)

As is clear from the above, Japan is the destination for more than half of the world's tropical hardwood exports in raw timber, and accounts for 8.8% of the world total for pro-

Fig. 1 Major Source of Japanese Wood Imports 1986 (Source: Japanese Ministry of Finance, *Trade Statistics*, 1986)

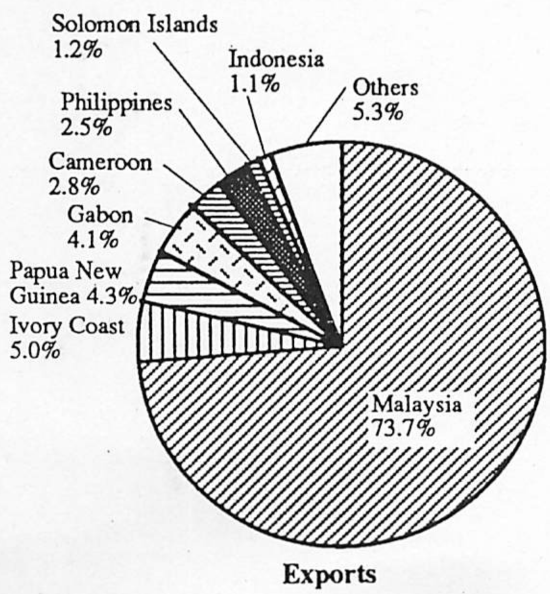


Processed
(Total: 5,520,000m3)

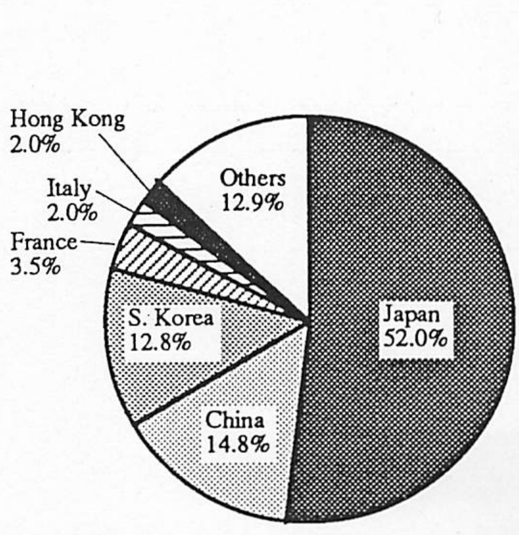


Logs-sawn, veńeer
(Total: 28,930,000m3)

Fig.2 Tropical Hardwoods - Logs (Total: 26,830,000m3)



Exports



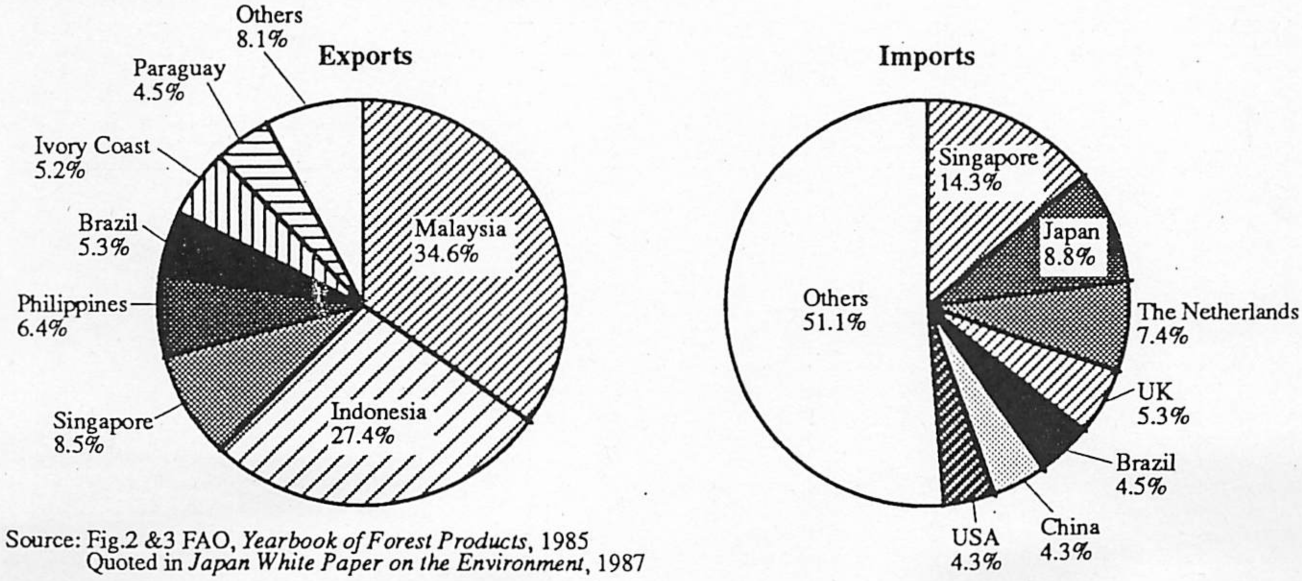
Imports

cessed timber. The Japanese government and logging companies justify this ratio by suggesting that 8.8% is really a very small percentage of the total, and Japan, being a country greatly lacking in natural resources, has to rely on imports for nearly everything. In addition, commercial logging provides an important source of foreign exchange for developing countries, and the Japanese government asserts that it is acting in accordance with the wishes of Third World governments, and that it is responding to their needs. Finally, it is suggested that domestic demand in Japan is such that imports are necessary, as domestic supplies are not sufficient. Nowhere is the suggestion made that other sources be found to supply that demand, or that lifestyles be changed to reduce it.

None of the above arguments are untrue; all maintain a certain internal consistancy and logic. They also are examples of a tendency for Japan to justify its actions on the basis of the performance of others, rather than on a firm moral/political (not to be confused with economic) stance of its own. It would seem to this writer that the problem is not one of who uses how much, but much more one of whether such use in in fact necessary. This is particularly important in light of the problem of the peoples displaced by deforestation, and to much more fundamental questions such as who stands to profit from deforestation in any of its many forms, and who is certain to lose. There is little question that in the long run, everyone will lose. What is less clear is who is profitting in the short term. This writer suggests that while slash and burn agriculture may be the major cause of deforestation in Southeast Asia today, it is in large part a result of the over-exploitation of forest and other resources in the past; any attempt to justify commercial logging by indicating overall percentages must take into consideration the problem of who owns the land, and where those people currently engaging in slash and burn agriculture would otherwise live. Many of those people are in fact "environmental refugees" who were forced to leave their homes in the first place by the depletion or destruction of the resources necessary for their survival.(10)

Assuming that an important reason for continued imports of tropical hardwoods to Japan is domestic demand, it becomes important to consider how the wood is used once it arrives. About 80% of imported raw tropical timber is used to make plywood, of which about 55% goes to make the wooden frames used at construction sites for pouring concrete. These frames are generally used at most two or three times and then discarded. Another 30% is used for cheap, essentially disposable 'do-it-yourself' furniture. The preferred source for plywood is the giant lauan

Fig.3 Tropical Hardwood — Processed (7,920,000m³)



Source: Fig.2 &3 FAO, *Yearbook of Forest Products*, 1985
Quoted in *Japan White Paper on the Environment*, 1987

trees of the dipterocarp family (dipterocarpus palembanica). There are about 500 varieties of dipterocarp, of which about 380 are found only on the Malaysian penninsula. Like most tropical plants, however, these trees are not found in concentrated areas. While in Japan, loggers can expect to get between 700 and 1,000 trees per hectare, in Sarawak, the average number of usable dipterocarp falls to about ten for the same area. Moreover, a loss rate of about 20% can be expected due to insects and other defects. Thus loggers do their work selectively, taking only the best trees (those with an average diameter of 80cm and height of over 40 meters). This 'selective logging' is in theory the most environmentally sound method. Unfortunately, however, by the time access roads are made and the trees are taken, irreparable damage has been done to the forest.(11)

Tropical moist forest products are also used in Japan for making paper products such as newsprint, or the cardboard for cartons. In addition, mangroves are used to make high quality paper for art prints, calendars, etc. The destruction of the mangroves is related to another area of over-consumption in Japan — shrimp. As a natural habitat for shrimp is mangroves, and as many breeding farms are located in mangrove areas, the reduction of these areas is resulting in a reduction of shrimp and shrimp production.

Japan's Response

The problem of deforestation has not gone completely unnoticed in Japan, although there is a significantly lower level of interest than one would find in most other industrialized countries. One reason for this is that until recently, the concern of environmentalists in Japan has been turned inward; Japan had more than its share of environmental disasters in the 60's and 70's, a result of rapid economic growth, little emphasis on environmental protection, and very densely populated cities with little open space in between. While there are still many domestic environmental concerns in Japan, attention is turning outward, and NGOs such as the Japan Tropical Forest Action Network or the Group to Think about Asian Tropical Forests, whose slogan is "Rather than planting two trees, let's act to stop the felling of one precious tree," have begun to achieve some recognition. In addition, partly in recognition of the important role Japan plays in the timber trade, the headquarters of the International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO) has been located in Yokohama. While ITTO has a very difficult task in balancing business and environmental interests, and is lacking in funds, its very presence has helped to draw attention to the problem of tropical forests and to increase local concern. At the same time, a survey of ten Japanese newspapers, including two major dailies and a timber specialty paper, using a Japanese news database revealed only 47 articles relating to "tropical forests" between 1988 and June, 1989, and all of those were in the same newspaper. It seems that flourocarbons and acid rain in Europe and North America get much better coverage than the destruction of tropical rain forests in Asia.

Many Japanese, including many members of the Peace Studies Association of Japan, are very concerned with protecting the world from a repetition of the experience of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Yet it is now often said that if the world is not destroyed by nuclear war in the next thirty years, it will be destoyed by environmental destruction instead.(12) The Japanese government talks of its contribution to the protection of the natural environment, and Japanese people are beginning to take notice of environmental problems abroad, as well as at home. At the same time, plans for the building of an airport which would destroy unique coral in Okinawa were shelved, only to be replaced by an alternative site in a different location but with similar environmental constraints, and other plans call for the building of an airport for the US Navy on Miyakejima, a small and ecologically unique volcanic island off the coast of the Izu Penninsula. Like the sites of Japanese environmental abuse in Southeast Asia, these sites are out of the range of vision of the great Japanese urban centers. Yet if there is a single lesson to be learned from Hiroshima, Nagasaki, Chernobyl, Three Mile Island, or Minamata, it is that environmental contamination is at best difficult to contain, and does not discriminate in the selection of its victims. It has been suggested that Japan can help the cause of international environmental protection by sharing its excellent pollution control technology. This is of course an important contribution. It is hoped, however, that Japan will make an even greater contribution, through working to develp an "environmentally friendly" society, both within its own borders and beyond.

NOTES

1. It is unfortunate that more Japanese do not ask this question. According to the "Waribashi wo Kangaeru Kai" (The Group to Think about Disposable Chopsticks), about 60% of Japan's disposable chopsticks are made from imported wood, mostly from Korea and Canada, or are imported in finished form. There are chopstick factories in Thailand, Papua New Guinea (destroyed in a fire and presently not in operation), Philippines, Taiwan, USA, China, and South Africa. At present, about 0.2% or 2 billion/year of the chopsticks in Japan are made from tropical hardwoods, although it is difficult to know the exact amount because wood for chopsticks is imported as part of that for paper manufacture.

2. World Wildlife Federation Panda Series *Tropical Moist Forest* (Japanese version), Earthscan (International Institute for Environment and Development) "Tropical Moist Forests — Earthscan Briefing Document No 32;" "Chikyu no Kankyou wo Kangaeru Kai" Hakaisareru Nettairin — Mori wo Owareru Jumintachi (Group to Think about the Earth's Environment. The Disappearing Tropical Forests: Residents Chasing after the Woods) Iwanami Booklet No. 115.

3. Ishi, Hiroyuki; Chikyu Kankyo Hokoku (World Environment Report, Iwanami Shinsho 33, 1988, p.90)

4. The World Commission on Environment and Development. *Our Common Future*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987, p.151

5. Ministry of the Environment. *White Paper on the Environment, 1988*, pp.50-51

6. Kitai, Hajime: Nettairin to Nippon — Sokoni Gyoushuku Saretamono ("Tropical Forests and Japan: The Underlying Significance"), *Sekai*, January, 1987

7. *White Paper*, op cit, p.94

8. Ishi, op cit, pp.94-96

9. Mainichi Newspaper, Nettairin Hozen to Nippon no Sekinin ("Protection of Tropical Forests and Japan's Responsibility), 4 June 1985

10. cf. for example Ishi, op cit, p.21ff

11. Taurin wo Hakaisuru Takubatsu to Kaibatsu (Selective and Unselective Logging which Destroys Rain Forests), JATAN Resource Series 1, pp.9-11

12. Ishi, op cit, p. iii

◆THE PRESENT-AGE INDUSTRIALIZATION AND THE INFORMAL ECONOMY◆
— A Note on the Case of the Asian NIEs —

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One of the most salient features of industrialization in the developing world today is that the size of the so-called informal sector(1) has not necessarily been made smaller along the process of industrial growth. It is reported in the ILO's comprehensive survey that not less than half of economically active population in the developing world is at present engaged in such informal economic activities as petty-trading, scavenging and so on(2). If we add to this 'street children' who are not usually classified as economically active, the scale of the informal economy in terms of employment amounts to still larger. This aspect of the present-age industrialization contrasts with the experience of the modern-age industrialization in the developed world in which an absolute as well as a relative decline of the informal economy took place(3). Though it has been thus far argued, especially in the dualistic school of development, that the Asian Newly-Industrializing Economies (ANIEs) have not faced the problem of an expanding informal sector because of their industrial sector's huge capacity of labour absorption, this is actually not exceptional for those economies as will be discussed in detail in the following. The main purpose of this note is to explain tentatively the structural background of such present-age industrialization with a vast multitude of informal activities, through a brief critical review of precedent discussions concerning the relationships between the industralizing process and the informal sector.

There remains, in fact, a problem of conceptual ambiguity, and it is therefore not easy to give a quantitatively exact definition to the informal economy. However, very small-scale establishments with less than 4 workers and the self-employed are chiefly focussed on here as its important constituents, both of which are not sufficiently enumerated in the official statistics of developing countries. Though the share of such workers in the total working population is a little bit smaller in the newly-industrializing economies,it is still remarkably high if compared to those of the developed economies while at the same stage of industrialization. For instance, it is calculated that the employment ratio of very small-scale establishments in the Japanese manufacturing sector noticeably decreased from 61% in 1920 to 15% in 1959. The similar phenomenon is also observed in the same sector of other developed economies as well as in the other sectors of Japan such as retailing, whole saling and service activities(4). On the contrary, for example in the case of the Republic of Korea that is analyzed to have been rapidly industrialized throughout the 1970s, the same ratio in the manufacturing sector is still more than 30% in the 1980s. This is almost the same as the figure in the 1960s according to my own estimate on the officially published Labour Statistics and the Mining and Industrial Statistics. Moreover, the fact that the same employment ratio reaches over 70% in its tertiary sector in the 1980s can not be neglected.

Not a few pieces of evidence supporting these are also obtained from other reports on the Korea's informal economy. It is pointed out in the paper of Bai that the share of the informal sector in terms of employment had been gradually rising since the 1960s and reache 32.1% in 1981 in the urban areas(5). Huh estimated in the early 1980s that the ratio of the unpaid family workers and the self-employed to the total labour population came up to 46.0% in the urban region(6). Cho and Koo also drew a conclusion from their sample survey in 1980 that at least 37% of married women in Soeul were earning incomes through a variety of informal activities and that the percentage of those with a formal income opportunity amounted to only 5%(7). It is clarified, though not comprehensively but in some reports and papers, that the size of the informal sector is also still considerable as for other ANIEs(8).

These findings offer a significant doubt about the validity of the developmentalist argument that the ANIEs have not faced the problem of a large bundle of informal economic activities because of their rapidly-promoted labour-intensive industrialization. It is certain that their capacity of industrial labour absorption has been extremely large in comparison with other developing economies, but on the other side, it is indeed questionable whether or not it has been sufficient to absorb the increasing potential industrial labourers, most of whom were pushed out from the rural agricultural sector. Related to this, more attention should be paid to the fact that the statistical substantiation of such a developmentalist argument concerning the ANIEs' labour absorption capacity is, almost without exception, based on the industrial statistics that cover only the establishments with more than 5 workers. Very small-scale economic activities are entirely out of their framework of analysis from the beginning. The above-mentioned facts on the Korea's informal sector can be rather taken as proofs that the underlying assumption attached to the previous developmentalist thinking of industrializing economies, namely that this sector will disappear as industrialization is promoted, is false. It may be even said that the growing industrial sector in those economies has intertwined structually with a multitude of informal economic activities.

Well, why do such a number of informal labourers remain to exist even in the labour-intensive newly-industrializing economies? This problem has not been tackled fully in the precedent works, whether they take a developmentalist approach or a dependency one. In the developmentalist dualistic view, the informal sector is considered to be the result of a temporary maladjustment of the industrial labour market, and is, as stated above, supposed to disappear ultimately with industrial growth. So the structural background of its co-existence with a bundle of informal activities has never been thoroughly investigated. On the other hand, the direct relationship between the formal industrial sector and the informal sector has been studied in the dependency school, but it has been mostly characterized as exploitative. This view may be appropriate in such a case an push-cart peddler of noodle who buys materials produced in a formal sector factory at a higher price and sells its processed goods at a cheaper rate to formal sector employees. However, it does not sufficiently explain the reason why a considerable scale of the informal sector is conserved as a whole under such a relationship of exploitation. In other words, the informal sector is not an entity of a marginal and minor appendix to the industrializing process. Its relation with the formal sector is never generally and unexceptionally a direct one of exploitation, and the function it plays in the process of industrial development is considered to be pluralistic. Though it is beyond the auther's ability to answer this question exactly, I would like to refer to two points in the next concerning the reason why not a tiny scale of the informal sector remains to exist in the present-age industrializing process. But, before that, it should be reconfirmed that the problem of the informal sector is not merely one of employment opportunity as is usually treated in the developmentalist school, but rather relates closely to the structural feature of the present-age industrialization.

(1) It is almost a common understanding in most of ANIEs economic analyses that their remarkable industrialization has been highly dependent on a large amount of overseas demand for their light industrial goods. Without such a demand from the outside, especially that from the developed world which at present proceeds to the stage of post-industrialization or deindustrialization, the ANIEs, as typically exemplified in the case of the Republic of Korea, could not have enjoyed a macro-economic high growth through an enormous volume of export of low capital-intensive industrial goods. This means that what kind of production of goods industrialization is started from and/or focussed on has not been determined from a standpoint of living standard and demand of domestic people in those economies, but basically from that of external market or their comparative advantage. Under this mode of export-biased industrialization which has not involved any development of sectors primarily oriented for the domestic market of basic consumer goods, informal economic activities necessarily found their grounds of existence in order to meet at first the people's demand for basic cheaper goods. Of course, people's demand for comparatively expensive goods standardized for export would have remarkably increased and their expectation for such a role of the informal sector would have become smaller, if their level of income was generally and substantially ameliorated along with industrialization. But, as the recent democratization in the Republic of Korea shows, the actual result of new industrialism is that only a few labourers who are known to have struggled for 'the revolution of tie-wearing workers', have ben-

efited from such a mode of industrialization, while there still exists behind these upper-class labourers of the formal sector a vast majority of relatively poor workers including slum-dwellers who have never participated directly in it. As is indicated inthe Huh's report of the early 1980s that slum-dwellers amounted to not less than one-third of the whole population in Soeul, the fruits of its seemingly splendid advancement of industrialization were not fully 'trickled down' to lower-class people, and there created not a small volume of demand for basic cheaper goods among them, which was not appropriately met by the formal industrial sector. Here we can see one reason why informal economic activities have not noticeably disappeared in the 'splendid' industrializing process of the Republic of Korea.

In this connection, it may be also well understood that most of such poorer economically active people do informal activities. That is, suppliers of goods and services of the informal sector are generally at the same time demanders of them, and poorer people form some kind of completed informal economic circle within themselves. This also partly elucidates why a considerable scale of the informal economy continues to exist even in the ANIEs irrespective of their remarkable capacity of industrial labour absorption.

(2) Demands for the informal sector's goods and services were not limited to those from people whose basis of daily earnings is on it. Because of their low wage level, not a few of the employed in the formal industrial sector have also enjoyed the benefits of cheapness of them. As pointed out by Portes, this indicates that the informal sector had a role of 'cheapness of life' of industrial workers(9), which made it possible for employers of formal establishments to reduce their employment cost and accumulate rapidly their capital stock. Considering the 'condensed' nature of capital accumulation in the newly-industrializing process, Portes's hypothetical explanation seems to be more applicable to the ANIEs. That is to say, besides a massive amount of financial influx from the outside, they rather needed the informal secter in order to accomplish their high-pace capital accumulation. This may be also helpful, especially in the case of Republic of Korea, in understanding the reason why the self-financing capability of the industrial sector is recently heightened in spite of the fact that the standard of living of poorer labourers has not generally and substantially been made better.

Someone may insist that the above-mentioned argument is in contradiction to the fact that the average real wage level of formal industrial workers has been rising in many of industrializing countries. However, it is also to be noted that the labour's relative share of the total added-value has been slightly decreasing, and that the wage inequality among them does not tend to be improved in those countries. That is, employers are considered to have taken a strategy of keeping the wage level of non-skilled workers comparatively low in order to maintain the labour's relative share not to rise in accompany with a rapid increase of highly-skilled workers' wages. It is difficult to make some conclusive remarks here, because the situation of stratification among the labour population is not yet explored in depth (whereas the strikes for higher wages by upper-class formal labourers have so far been shed light on by many works). But this kind of labourer polarizing policy may result in weakening of labourers' bargaining power towards the employers, and because of that the capital accumulation for the next stage of heavy industrialization can be smoothly promoted. Anyway, it is not denied that labourer stratification in the formal industrial sector is occurring under the condition that the informal sector plays such a role as to garantee poorer workers a cheaper life.

It can be said from the examination above that the conservation of informal economic activities is one of the structural features of the present-age industrialization in that they consist of an indispensable part of the mechanism of industrial capital accumulation. As not a few researchers of the dependency school pointed out, in the case where establishments of the formal industrial sector keep such a direct exploitative relationship with those in the informal sector as buying latter's goods for their industrial inputs at an unreasonably low price, the direct relationship between them in itself is an important element of capital accumulation. But, as stated earlier, this explanation is not sufficient to elucidate the reason why a multitude of informal economic activities which do not have any direct relationship with formal industrial establishments have remained to exist. Because the informal sector is, as Amin once suggested, occupied more and more by very small-scale subsistence-oriented tertiary activities(10), the argument concerning the 'cheapness of life' function is more persuasive for comprehension of the background of such present-age industrialization with a bundle of informal activities. The dependency school argument on a relationship of exploitation between two sectors is rather appropriate in making out the dissolution process of traditional relatively small-scale industrial establishments, which are usually conceptualized as non-formal. However, it does not properly interpret the conservative nature of very small-scale informal establishments.

In relation to the above-mentioned two points, I would like to add in the last a brief comment on the view that the informal sector takes the role of a safety valve of employment. This interpretation postulates that the informal sector is substantially a body of the industrial reserve army, so that it absorbs layed-off workers in a period of industrial depression while supplying additional labour forces to the formal industrial sector in a prosperous period. It is thus argued that the size of the informal sector fluctuates according to the macro-economic conditions. According to a thoroughgoing study made by Sumiya(11), this kind of role was taken by the sector of 'other small-scale miscellanious activities' in the pre-war period of Japan. However, it seems difficult to apply this to the developing world for the reason that the size of the informal economy in terms of employment is, especially in a period of prosperity, not responsive to the macro-economic business fluctuation, as briefly shown above in the case of the Republic of Korea. Rather it is structually embodied in the mechanism of capital accumulation as its vital and integral part. This is another example which indicates that the role of the informal sector in the industrializing process today is different from that in the historical experiences of the developed world.

NOTES

(1) Though the informal sector is often confused with the traditional sector of small-scale establishments, it is actually questionable to identify the former with the latter. It is certain that the nature of informal economic activities is quite similar to that of traditional small-scale activities, but their basis is not necessarily on the traditional economy but on unevenly industrialized economy without a relative increase of formal employment opportunities, as typically shown in the case of scavengers, whose basis of livelihood is mainly on collecting and selling scrapped 'industrial' goods.

(2) Sethuraman,S.V.(ed.), *The Urban Informal Sector in Developing Countries* (ILO, 1981).

(3) As for other structural characteristics of the present-age industrialization, see the following Japanese paper:Nishikawa, Jun,"Exploring the Conditions of Development in the NIEs", *The Economist*, Jan. 17, 1989. The Argument of Castells and Portes that self-employment did not decline with industrialization in Latin America but remained essentially constant contrary to the experiences of the advanced countries, is also of value for reference. (Portes, Alejandro et al.(eds.), *The Informal Economy* (The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1989), pp.15-17)

(4) The same ratios as to the manufacturing sector of other developed countries are as follows. Germany: 55%(1982), 22%(1925), 15%(1950), Austria: 31%(1930), 13%(1954), Switzerland: 13%(1950). And the ratio of establishments employing less than 10 workers as for the whole industry in the U.S.A. is 14.1% in 1965. The figures in the other sectors of Japan are, for example, 35.6% in 1975 for the retailing and wholesaling secter, 20.9% in the service sector of

the same year.(Sourses: ILO, *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* (various years), and others)
(5) Bai, Moo-Ki,"The Structural Change in the Labour Market of the Republic of Korea", *Korean Economic Journal* (Soeul National Univ.), Vol.21, No.4 (1982).
(6) Huh, Suk-Yeol,"The Employment Structure in the Urban Squattered Areas", *Korean Social Studies*, No.1(1983).
(7) Cho, Uhn & Hagen Koo,"Economic Development and Women's Work in a Newly-Industrializing Country: The Case of Korea", *Development and Change*, Vol.14, No.4(1983).
(8) See, for instance, the contribution by Ng Sek-Hong & Victor Fung-Shuen Sit on very small-scale establishments in Hong Kong(*Labour Relations and Conditions in Hong Kong* (Macmillan, 1989), Table VIII.2).
(9) Portes, Alejandro,"The Informal Sector and the World-Economy: Notes on the Structure of Subsidized Labor" in Michael Timberlake(ed.), *Urbanization in the World-Economy* (Academic Press, 1985). See also Portes, Alejandro & John Walton(eds.),*Labor, Class and the International System* (Academic Press, 1981).
(10) Amin, Samir, *L'Accumulation a L'Echelle Mondiale* (Antropos, 1970)
(11) There are many works done by Sumiya concerning this matter. See, for example, his Japanese book entitled *Labour Problems in Japan* (Univ. of Tokyo Press, 1967)

◆1989 SPRING SESSION OF THE PSAJ◆

— Peace through Economic Cooperation in the North-East Asian Region —

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As one session of PSAJ spring conference held on June 3-4 1989 at Niigata University, it had the symposium on "Peace through Economic Cooperation in the North-East Asian Region." The six speakers of the symposium were as follows:
(1) Jun Nishikawa (Waseda University): Introduction — Peace and Cooperation in the North-East Asian Region, (2) Zheng Lizhi (Fudan University, China): Economic Cooperation in the North-East Asia and China, (3) Aleksandr I. Simachev (Office of theSovietTrade Representative in Tokyo, USSR): The North-East Asian Economic Region and the USSR, (4) Shin Huigu (The Association of Korean Social Scientists in Japan,DPRK/Japan): Peaceful Reunification of Koreaand Cooperation in the North-East Asian Region, (5) Kim Youngho (Kyengbuk University, ROK): Some Observations on Economic Cooperation in the North-East Asian Region, (6) Twu Jawyann (Niigata University, China-Taipei/Japan): The idea of Economic Cooperation in "the Region Surrounding the Japan Sea."

Prof. Pak Munhoi (The Association of Korean Social Scientists, DPRK) made a comment on peace problems in the North-East Asia and the Korean Peninsula.

Introducing the subject of the symposium, Prof. Nishikawa emphasized that the North-East Asian region had a dual characteristics, high economic growth of Japan, NIEs and some of ASEAN countries on the one hand and high military tension in the North-Eastern Pacific and the Korean Peninsula on the other. He defined the agenda of the symposium, (1) the prospects of the on-going dialogues between ROK and DPRK, (2) the present and future of the Chinese "Open-door economic policy" and Sino-Soviet economic relations after the summit meeting of Gorbachev and Deng Xiaoping in May 198[illegible] (please note the symposium was held on June 3, the day before the incident of the Tiananmen Square.), (3) the significance of the economic relations within the North-East Asian region, (4) the impact of the global detente upon the region.

Prof. Zheng explained the Chinese continuing reform in the economic policy in this ten years. "The North-East Asian economic Zone," by Prof. Zheng's definition, covered Japan, the Korean Peninsula, the Russian Far East and north-eastern part of China including Shantung Province (which was promoting trades with ROK). This region, he said, had the advantages of historical interconnectedness and of economies complementary to each other, but at the same time it had the disadvantages of the sharp differences in political system and the level of economic development. He preferred a soft pass, the gradual extension of bi-lateral economic relations, to a hard pass, rapid formation of multi-lateral framework for economic integration.

Mr. Simachev introduced the Soviet constructive thinking under Gorbachev and its peaceful initiatives in the Far East. He added the increasing participation of the USSR in the regional trade and emphasized the great potential and opportunities for economic cooperation between the Soviet Far East and the other countries of this region. Dr. Shin reported that DPRK was still kept remained under the outdated containment policy such as severe COCOM restrictions and was segregated from normal international economic regulations much more strictly than the other socialist countries. By Prof. Kim the North-East Asian economic region was defined as the contact area of the Big Four, namely USA, USSR, China and Japan, and the Korean peninsula was the keystone of the success in building this economic region. If the Big Four searched for their hegemony over the region, he said, the Korean peninsula would become the focus of global instability. Prof. Kim proposed an alternative idea that the Big Four should choose an anti-hegemonic policy and establish the buffer zone in this region. If so, he went on, you could expect drastic increase of trades and business chances in this zone. To the success of this enterprise, he added, the peace and reunification of Korea should be attached vital importance.

Prof. Twu proposed the idea to vitalize "the Economic Cooperation Zone among the Districts Surrounding the Japan Sea", which included Busan, Womsan, Chungjim, Nakhodka, Vladiostok and Niigata. These districts, he said, had long been peripheral areas in each countries, but had enormous potentialities for future development if they could strengthen their solidarity beyond national borders.

◆ PEACE RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS IN JAPAN(6) ◆

— Utsunomiya Disarmament Research Institute —

The Utsunomiya Disarmament Research Institute was established by Dr. Tokuma Utsunomiya in September,1980, in partial fulfillment of his campaign pledge during the election of the House of the Councilors in July of the same year. Dr. Utsunomiya, an extraordinary statesman known especially for his efforts towards restoration of Japanese diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China after World War II, left the Liberal Democratic Party in the fall of 1976, in protest strongly against its corrupt plutocracy. Since then, he has energetically continued his activities for disarmament and peace as an independent member of Parliament. In the election of 1980, he won against a certain hawkish candidate who held once an executive position of the Self-Defence Force of Japan, getting support from numerous voters for his public pledge to promote nuclear disarmament. The foundation of the Institute was one of his concrete practices to fulfill it.

Purpose

Though the word 'research' is attached to the formal name of the organization, the Institute is also involved in the disseminating activities of thoughts on global peace and disarmament. Its main objectives are (1) studying general political and military situations in the world and exploring the conditions for eradicating international tensions and armed conflicts in every part of the globe, (2) conducting researches of the influences who benefit from militarization and wars and scheme intentionally and tacitly to promote such miserable dangers, and (3) expanding networks of solidarity transnationally with citizens and their organizations of anti-war and anti-militarization that move in opposition to the scheming influences mentioned above.

Organization and Staff

The Institute is a non-profit private organization, and keeps independence even of the secretarial office of Dr. Utsunomiya. It does not get any financial support from the outside, and its running expenses are based on the subscription fees of its monthly magazine.

The Institute also maintains close cooperative relationships with the nonpartisan organization of the Japan Parliamentarians' Association for International Disarmament, and the Japan Committee of 22 for the Nuclear Disarmament, which is composed of 22 Japanese specialists in the issues concerned.

Though the number of the Institute's full-time staffs is only 6 excluding the Director, not a few conscientious researchers and journalists in Japan as well as abroad support its activities voluntarily on a part-time basis.

Director: UTSUNOMIYA Tokuma

Full-time Staff:

YOSHIDA Yoshio (Editor in Chief), AKANEGAKUBO Kimio, HIGUCHI Ryoichi, MADONO Yohko, TAKEUCHI Hiroko, HIRUMA Toshifumi

Activities

In addition to the editorial works of its periodical magazine, the Institute is usually engaged in such activities as (1) collecting information and materials comprehensively on the military, political, economic and socio-cultural issues which are significant for the advancement of disarmament researches, (2) lending to the general public photo-panels for exhibition, video tapes on the A-Bomb sufferings in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and collected books and materials on disarmament, free of charge as a rule, and (3) maintaining intimate relationships with private organizations and citizens' movements against any war and militarization through, for instance, an exchange of publications.

In order to arouse public opinion towards general and complete disarmament, the Institute has also sponsored a number of open symposia and lecture meetings jointly with other affiliated bodies.

Publications

The Institute publishes the monthly magazine, *Gunshuku Mondai Shiryo* (Materials on Disarmament Problems). Since its first publication in October, 1980, the number of issues has already reached over 110. Each number contains suggestive as well as informative articles and comments on the problems of disarmament and peace, including testimonies of A-bomb survivors in Hiroshima and Nagasaki. They are not only written by the staffs but frequently contributed by leading and well-known authors. Though the authors are mostly Japanese, many important papers have been also contributed from abroad by such prominent authors as George F. Kennan, Mark O. Hatfield, John K. Galbraith, and Kim Dae-Jung. All pages of the magazine written in Japanese, some noteworthy articles of the Director translated into English are available upon request. Those are:

Some Thoughts on Disarmament

My Disarmament Mini-Thesis

Remember the Tragedies of Hiroshima and Nagasaki— 200,000 Innocent 'Death-Bound Criminals' were Executed—

Article 12 of the Potsudam Proclamation and Article 6 of the San Francisco Treaty — In Search of Peace and Independence —

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◆MAIN ACTIVITIES OF THE PSAJ IN 1989◆

The 1989 Spring Session was held on June 3 and 4, 1989 at Niigata University, Niigata City under the main theme of "Designing Transnational Joint Plans for Peace." For details, see Nakamura's article in this issue.

The 1989 Fall Session, whose main topic was "Peace and Human Rights Today," was held on November 11 and 12, 1989 at Keisen Women's College, Tokyo. In conjunction with the session, a symposium on "Peace and Scientists" was convened under the joint auspices of the PSAJ and the Science Council of Japan at the same location on November 11.

On November 11, 1989 the PSAJ held memorial services for the late Professor BAMBA Nobuya, who was president of the PSAJ when he died suddenly of heart disease on October 6, 1989.

On November 11, 1989, the General Conference of the PSAJ was held at Keisen Women's College and new council members were elected. On the following day the newly elected council members met and elected Professor OKAMOTO Mitsuo as the new president of the PSAJ. The term of service for both the council members and the president will extend until November, 1991.

NEWS

Visiting Japan?

It may be possible to arrange a meeting with Japanese peace researchers during your visit. Please advise the Overseas Liaison Committee of your plans as far in advance as possible.

Newsletter Networking

The annual PSAJ Newsletter is available free of charge to all those interested in the activities of the Association. In order to promote global networking of similar newsletters, it would be appreciated if information on the availability and contents of the PSAJ Newsletter could be included in any newsletter you know. Information on the availability and contents of overseas newsletters can be included in our bi-annual Japanese newsletter.

Recent Publications

Heiwa Kenkyu (Peace Studies) — Annals of the PSAJ

Short English summaries of the articles are included in each issue. Each issue is available from Waseda University Press, 1-103 Totsuka-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160, Japan. The price of each issue is ¥2,200.

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