SUPPORTING

LAND OF JAPAN AND HISTORY OF WATER RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Reference Document

1. Overview of Japan

1.1 Land

Japan is an archipelago extending from north to south, with a land area of approximately 378,000 km² spread across the subarctic and subtropical zones. The vast majority of Japan's land area is mountainous, with forests occupying approximately two-thirds of the country's land. The mountainous terrain is rugged, and only 30% of the land area is inhabitable (Figure 1.1).

1.2 Population

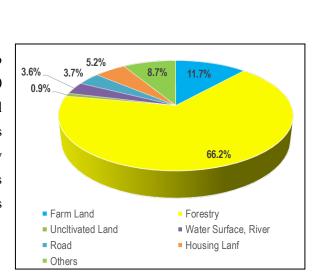
Japan's current population is estimated at 126,127 thousand (October 2019), and Figure 1.2 shows the population trend. Japan's population peaked at 128 million in 2008 and has been on a downward trend since then. Approximately 50% of Japan's total population lives within 50 km of the urban centers of Tokyo, Nagoya, and Osaka (located in the alluvial plain) (approximately 6% of the total land area).

In addition, due to aging, the average life expectancy of Japanese people is currently estimated at 81.25 years for men and 87.32 years for women (2018).¹

1.3 Precipitation

Japan is located on the eastern edge of the Asian

Monsoon region, one of the world's heaviest rainfall areas recording annual average precipitation of 1,668 mm (average from1986 to 2015), which is about 1.6 times higher than the world (land area) average annual precipitation of about 1,065 mm, according to the Food and Agriculture Organization's (FAO) AQUASTAT database. The annual average precipitation in each region is shown in Table 1.1. The precipitation and temperature at various locations in Japan are shown in Figure 1.3.



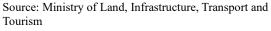
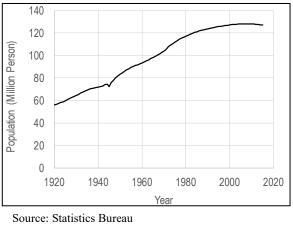


Figure 1.1 Land Use in Japan



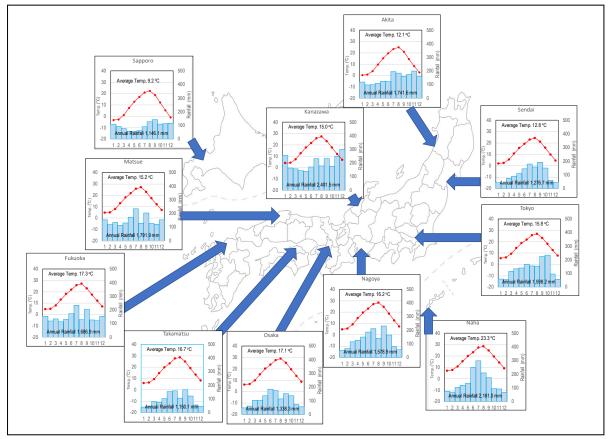


¹ Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, Simplified Life Tables.

					(Unit : mm/year)
Region	Precipitation	Region	Precipitation	Region	Precipitation
Hokkaido	1,148	Hokuriku	2,333	Kyusyu	2,299
Tohoku	1,652	Kinki	1,791	Okinawa	2,086
Kanto	1,608	Chugoku	1,694		
Tokai	2,037	Shikoku	2,202		
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Table 1.1 Annual Average Precipitation by Region

Source: 2019: Current Status of Water Resources in Japan, MILT



Source: Prepared by Project Research Team based on Data from Japan Meteorological Agency

Figure 1.3 Monthly Precipitation and Temperature in Japan

1.4 Water Resource Potential

Japan's water resource potential is approximately 420 billion m³/year (average from 1986 to 2015: "average water resource potential"). During periods of low rainfall, which occurs approximately once every 10 years, the water resource potential is approximately 290 billion m³ (drought year water resource potential), or 69% of the average water resource potential.

The ratio of drought-year water resources potential to average water resources is lower in the Kinki, Sanyo, Shikoku, Kyushu, and Okinawa regions and larger in the Hokkaido, Tohoku, Kanto, Tokai, Hokuriku, and Sanin regions. Water resource potential per person is lower in the Kanto Coastal Area, Kinki Inland Area, Kinki Coastal Area, Sanyo, Kitakyushu, and Okinawa than entire Japan, and larger in Hokkaido, Tohoku, Tokai, Hokuriku, Sanin, Shikoku, and Southern Kyushu.

According to FAO AQUASTAT data, water resources potential per person in Japan is about 3,400

m³/person/year, which is less than half the world average of approximately 7,300 m³/person/year.

1.5 Water Use and Government Agencies

In 2016, nationwide water use (on an abstraction basis) was 80 billion m³/year, with urban water use at approximately 25.9 billion m³/year and irrigation water use at approximately 53.8 billion m³/year. Figure 1.4 shows the water use trends in Japan.

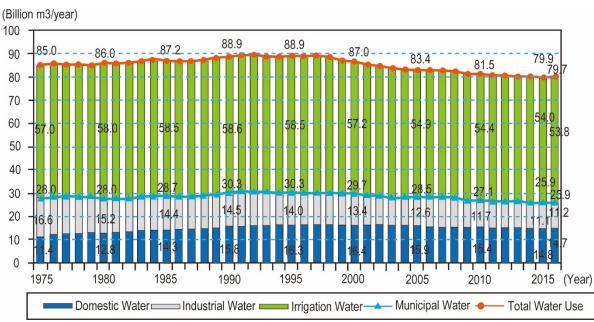


Table-1.2 shows the relevant administrative agencies for these water uses.

Note: 1. Preparation by Water Resources Department, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT)
 2. This value is based on the amount of water intake, as estimated by the Water Resources Department, and includes

the amount of water returned to rivers after use.Industrial water is the amount of fresh water supplied to factories with four or more employees. However, this does not include water used in public utilities.

- 4. For agricultural water, the values for 1981–1982 are 1980 estimates, values for 1984–1988 are 1983 estimates, and values for 1990–1993 are 1989 estimates.
- 5. Sometimes the totals do not add up due to rounding.

Source: 2019: Current Status of Water Resources in Japan, MILT

Figure 1.4 Water Use Trends

	Tap Water	Industrial Water	Irrigation Water	Power Generation
National Level	Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare	Economy, Trade, and	2	Ministry of Economy, Trade, and Industry
Prefecture Level	Water supply business to municipalities may be conducted	Implemented industrial water supply project		
City, Town, and Village Level	Implemented a project to supply water to each household			
			Farmers associations manage water supply	

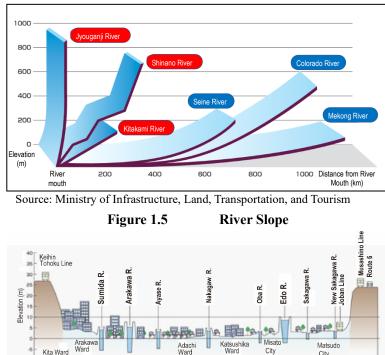
Table 1.2 Water Use and Government Agencies

Note: If the water supply source is a river, the user must obtain permission from the river administrator. Source: Project Research Team

1.6 River

Japan is an island nation with a few plains and several steep mountainous areas, and the country is narrowly divided by a series of small rivers. The Tone River, the largest river in Japan, has a basin area of 16,840 km² and accounts for only 4.5% of the total land area. In Japan, only four rivers (Tone, Shinano, Ishikari, and Kitakami) have a basin area of more than 10.000 km^2

Comparing the longitudinal slope of rivers, the longitudinal slope of Japanese rivers is steeper than that of continental rivers (Figure 1.5). This is due to active localized rising



Source: Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transportation, and Tourism Figure 1.6 Location of the Edogawa, Arakawa, and Sumida **Rivers in Tokyo**

City

City

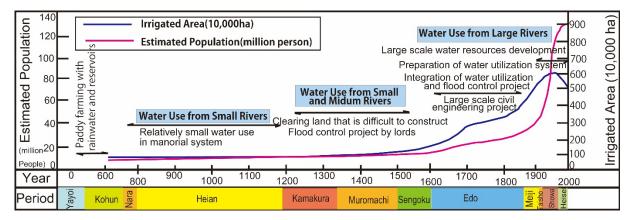
and sedimentation caused by orogenic movement, similar to rivers on islands and peninsulas of the Asia-Pacific. The major rivers in Asia, such as the Yangtze, Ganges, Indus, and Mekong Rivers, also have steep gradients because of the steep mountainous terrain caused by orogenic movements in the upper reaches, but the gradient from the origin to the river mouth is extremely gentle owing to the wide alluvial plains formed in the middle and lower reaches by the confluence of many branch rivers. Rivers in Japan are similar to the upstream branches of continental rivers, and river water flows immediately into the sea. Therefore, the scale of the alluvial plain is small, and the river becomes a rapid stream. As the population and assets are concentrated in the alluvial plain formed in the middle and lower reaches of the river, flood protection measures are extremely important because once a flood occurs, the destructive power of the river is high and flood damage is enormous. As shown in Figure 1.6, many rivers in Tokyo flow at elevations higher than the city center, which tends to increase the damage caused by flooding.

Kita Ward

2. History of Water Resources Development and Management in Japan

2.1 Ancient Times

Paddy rice, the staple food of Japan, was introduced via tropical Asia during the early Yayoi period (around the 3rd century BC). Rice cultivation is believed to have spread gradually northeastward from Kyushu and across all regions. Paddy fields have been chosen for wetlands in the lower reaches of rivers, coastal sandbars, and deltas. However, to protect paddy fields from flooding and to increase crop yields as much as possible, people have to rely on flood protection and water utilization technology. With the spread of rice cultivation, paddy fields have been developed in various areas, and civil engineering technologies for flood protection and water utilization have gradually developed. Figure 2.1 shows the changes in population, irrigated area, and water use.



Source: Partial excerpt and revision of Farmland and Water in Japan Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries

Figure 2.1 Changes in Population and Cultivated Area

Japan's first recorded water resource development project²

In Kadoma City, Osaka Prefecture, Manda Levee is believed to be the first recorded river improvement work in Japan. Emperor Nintoku established the capital at Namba in 313 CE, after which Yodo River improvement works began. According to the Chronicles of Japan, during the 11th year of Emperor Nintoku's reign, the Manda Levee (flood control project) was constructed at the end of the Yodo River, and excavation works of the Namba no Horie (present Tenma River) began. The Namba no Horie was constructed to prevent riverbed aggradation and drainage improvement of farmland areas by preventing sediment inflow from upstream regions.

2.2 Yamato Period (4th century to early 8th century)

During the Yamato period, continental culture (Chinese culture) was introduced along with Buddhism, and irrigation water use technologies, such as ponds, were brought from the continent, and this initiated the development of civil engineering technology in Japan. During the Sui and Tang Dynasty (618–907

 $^{^2\,}$ History of Modern Japanese Civil Engineering, Second Edition, Takahashi Hirosi

CE), monks who traveled to the continent (present-day China) to study brought not only Buddhism but also continental culture and civil engineering technology directly to Japan.

Performance of Gyoki

Gyoki (668–749 CE), a Japanese Buddhist priest of the Nara period, built flood protection facilities and ponds to secure water in the Kinki region. Gyoki's projects were implemented by a large number of civilians (Gyoki's group) called the Aribasho, who sympathized with Gyoki's desire to execute projects to save people in need.

Irrigation ponds that remain today are the Kumeda, Sayama, and Konyo. A spillway and levee were constructed around 730 CE to prevent floods from entering arable lands on the left bank of the middle and lower reaches of the Yodo River further downstream.

In addition to Gyoki, Kukai, a monk who studied in China, also implemented civil engineering projects in various areas, mainly irrigation ponds, including the Mannoike Pond.

2.3 Heian Era to Muromachi Era (Early 9th Century–Late 15th Century)

Civil engineering began to decline in Japan around the 9th century, peaking during the 10th century and continuing into the 11th century, when there was a blank period for civil engineering projects. The reason for this decline is attributable to decentralized government power, and it became difficult to execute large-scale civil engineering projects because of the change in agricultural land development from the Ritsuryo system to the manorial system, and no new power emerged even though the ruling class lost power during the late Heian period, when monks executed civil engineering projects.

2.4 Warring States Era: Azuchi–Momoyama Era (16th Century)

The distinguished warlords during the Warring States period—a period marked by civil war and social upheaval were leaders of civil engineering projects. First, they responded to the expectations of their subordinates by constructing civil engineering projects in their respective territories and understanding them was the foundation for the surviving warring states. Flood protection projects have been conducted to protect farmland. Warlords, famous for their civil engineering projects, are listed below:

- Takeda Shingen (Kofu City area): The Kamanashi River and its tributaries, which are violent rivers, frequently flood the Kofu area. In response, the waterways were stabilized, and the momentum of the water was controlled. Levees (Shingen-tsutsumi) were built to protect against small-and medium-scale flood risks, while hazy levees were built to allow floodwaters to overflow during large-scale floods and return to the river afterward. Consequently, agricultural damage in the Kofu area was reduced.
- Sasa Narimasa (Toyama City and surrounding areas): Major floods occurred at a point called Mazeguchi on the Joganji River. At this point, a levee (Sasa levee) was constructed to change the direction of the river flow, which later reduced flood damage.

- Kato Kiyomasa (Kumamoto City area): Kumamoto City was prone to flooding because of the three rivers flowing in the area. Flood damage was reduced in Kumamoto City by straightening the Shirakawa River and connecting the Tsuboi River to the Iseri River through the inner moat of the castle. Weirs and irrigation channels were constructed for irrigation.
- Narutomi Hyogo (Saga Prefecture): The Chikuri Levee (hazy levee) was constructed on the Chikugo River to reduce flood damage on the Chikushi plain further downstream.

Flood protection strategies were carefully developed considering the characteristics of each river, and individual flood protection technologies, such as levees, were developed. Several flood protection structures were developed in each area during this period.

2.5 Early Modern Period (Edo Era) (early 17th century to late 19th century)

During the Edo era (1603–1868)—a period of peace with no civil wars for approximately 270 years the country steadily accumulated social capital through various civil engineering projects. Civil engineering projects focused on flood protection, agricultural water utilization projects, and land reclamation projects to expand agricultural productivity. During this period, the farmland area increased from approximately 15,000 km² at the beginning of the Edo era to approximately 33,000 km² by the end of the period.

In the early Edo era, public water supply projects were implemented in many cities. Especially, during the Edo period (present-day Tokyo), when the population was rapidly increasing, water demand could not be covered by water supply from springs and wells. The first public water supply project in Japan was the Kanda waterworks. During that period, many public waters supply systems were constructed for irrigation purposes in local cities.

2.6 Meiji Era and before World War II (late 19th century to early 20th century)

(1) Meiji Era

Although the Edo era was closed to the rest of the world following a prolonged period of national isolation, Christian civilization had a considerable influence on Japan from the Warring States period to the early Edo era. Even during the period of national isolation, Japan was exposed to the influence of Western civilization through Dejima in Nagasaki. The Japanese had mere desk knowledge of Western technology and industry, however, with the advent of a new era, it was only natural for Japan to attempt to fully adopt modern science and technology. The national government hired a large number of foreign engineers to teach science and technology and train the Japanese people.

In the early Meiji era, adoption of most modern technology was dependent on foreign engineers; however, by the mid–1880s, Japanese students who had studied in Europe and the United States began to return to Japan, and Japanese engineers trained by foreign engineers began to appear on the scene. Foreign engineers could implement many technological activities.

During the early Meiji era, low-water channel works on rivers were an important measure to maintain

river routes for boat traffic and drainage systems for irrigation. The Japanese government hired a Dutch engineer Van Doorn, who taught the importance of regularly observing river water levels and installing water level markers. Water levels were mainly observed using water level markers, but in a magazine published in 1890, there was a record regarding the use of a self-registering water level measuring device at Niigata on the Shinano River. In 1881, a self-registering tide gauge imported from the Netherlands was installed on the Kiso River. It is conceivable that the water level observation system has improved since the mid-Meiji era.

In the context of meteorological observations, in June 1875, Joynell conducted regular observations thrice a day, and the Tokyo Meteorological Monthly Report and Annual Report were published in 1876. The importance of meteorological and hydrological observations has been passed on from that period to the present.

Under the national government, the River Law was enacted in 1896, and the Ministry of Home Affairs³ promoted flood protection projects, such as levee embankments, dredging, and floodway construction, on important rivers throughout Japan. According to the River Law, the governor of each prefecture was the river administrator. (However, since the governor was elected by the national government, the law actually reflected the will of the national government), and land within the river area was considered public land.

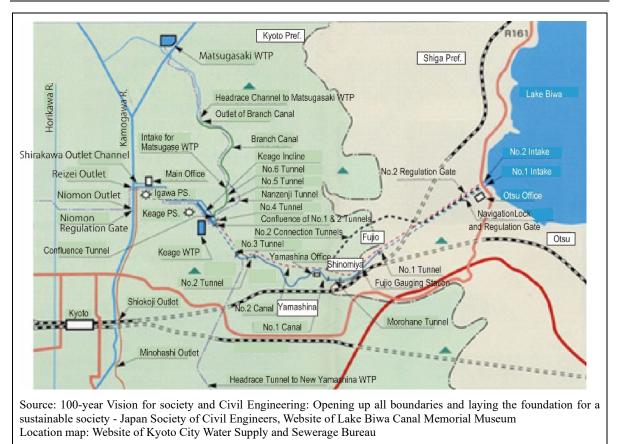
In the case of water rights, used irrigation water was recognized as a traditional water right. As for new water users, water supply, and power generation, it was difficult to acquire new water rights due to a lack of surplus water.

The Lake Biwa Canal project was introduced as a water resources-related project during this period.

Lake Biwa Canal Project

In 1881, to restore Kyoto, which had been declining with the capital being relocated to Tokyo, the governor of Kyoto Prefecture, Hokuto Kitagaki, decided to develop the Lake Biwa Canal as the most effective way to promote industry. It was a comprehensive development project comprising a multipurpose project for irrigation, water supply, industrial water supply, shipping, and hydroelectric power generation. This project was the first major civil engineering project in Japan that was implemented entirely by Japanese engineers, with Sakuro Tanabe as the chief engineer.

³ During the era of the Imperial Constitution, the Japanese administrative body was responsible for domestic and civil affairs. After the war, it was dismantled and abolished by order of the General Headquarters (GHQ).



(2) Taisho Era until the pre-World War II period

A major policy for flood protection was established during the Meiji era, and some large projects were steadily promoted across major rivers. The Okozu diversion project was introduced as a representative project.

Okozu Diversion Project

The Okozu Diversion Project is a 10-km-long man-made waterway that runs from Okozu—where the Shinano River comes closest to the Sea of Japan—to the Teradomari coast, where the floodwaters of the Shinano River flow into the Sea of Japan, protecting the Echigo Plain from flooding. The Okozu Diversion Project is a diversion channel, a wash weir, a movable weir, and a

fixed weir.

Since the Edo era, residents of the neighborhood had petitioned against the construction of this diversion facility, but it was not permitted. At the beginning of the Meiji era, the national government began construction of the facility, but it was suspended in 1875. When an



unprecedented flood occurred on July 22, 1896, following the break of the levee embankment called

"Yokota-giri," the national government decided to resume construction in 1907. The modern water diversion technology had been established through the Yodo River improvement work that had been carried out since 1895.

One of the features of the Okozu diversion is that the river width downstream was narrower than upstream. As the area near the river mouth is mountainous, the amount of excavation was reduced. However, from a hydraulic perspective, since the river width is narrowed, the river gradient is made steeper to increase the flow velocity for the required discharge.

Source: Shinano River Okozu Diversion Canal, one of the largest spillways in Japan, Kiyoshi Hirata Consultant Vol.238 Japan Construction Consultant Association Photo: Shinano River Office, MLIT

However, in terms of water use, it was difficult to develop surface water for new water rights, and ground subsidence had begun to occur due to excessive pumping of groundwater as a source for urban water supply.

In addition to floodways and river shortcuts, such as the Okozu Diversion project mentioned above, river engineering technology was used to construct large dams in the upstream areas. As a forerunner, there was a boom in the construction of run-off type power plants in the Taisho era (1912–1926). Droughts were plentiful in the upper reaches of Japan's rivers, providing favorable conditions for run-off type hydroelectric power generation. In the Taisho era, the electricity demand grew rapidly owing to growing industrialization, and the hydroelectric power business grew rapidly. In 1924, the Oi Dam (53m high) was completed on the Kiso River system, marking the beginning of the era of large dams.

During the Showa era (1926–1989), the Komaki Dam on the Shogawa River (80 m high) was constructed in 1929, the Teishakugawa Dam on the Takahasi River (62 m high) in 1931, the Tsukahara Dam on the Mimi River (87 m high) in 1938, the Tateiwa Dam on the Ota River (67 m high) in 1939, and the Miura Dam on the Kiso River (83 m high) in 1943. Large dams were constructed successively, and the business of hydroelectric power generation and dam construction technology showed steady development.

(3) After the End of World War II

1) Revival Period (1945–1955)

Amid land devastation and economic turmoil, Japan, which has limited natural resources, had to rely on the effective use of domestic resources and land development. From the end of World War II until the Ise Bay Typhoon in 1959, Japan experienced a series of natural disasters that left more than 1,000 people dead or missing. The cost of damage was greater than 5% of the national income. The Makurazaki typhoon in September 1945, the Nankai earthquake in December 1946, the Kathleen typhoon in September 1947, the Fukui earthquake in June 1948, the Aion typhoon in September 1948, the floods in western Japan in June 1953, and Typhoon No. 13 in September 1953 left a huge mark across the country. Typhoon Aion in September floods in western Japan in June 1953, and Typhoon

No. 13 in September left large traces of damage throughout Japan. Due to inadequate disaster prevention and mitigation systems, damage to Japan's land and people was extensive.

In 1949, the Flood Protection Investigation Committee established by the Ministry of Home Affairs reported on the flood protection plan for ten rivers under the direct jurisdiction of the Ministry of Home Affairs because of the havoc wreaked by Typhoon Kathleen, and the flood protection approach was shifted to a multipurpose dam system including development of water resources. In 1950, with the promulgation of the Comprehensive National Land Development Act, the Land Conservation Project was intensively implemented as part of the Comprehensive River Development Project, which reduced the number of large-scale natural disasters and built the foundation for post-war reconstruction.

2) Period of Rapid Economic Growth (1955–1973)

The rapid development of social infrastructure since the post-war reconstruction period has eliminated bottlenecks and paved the way for economic growth. The development of hydroelectric power generation in the 1960s made a significant contribution toward energy production for industrial development. The Sakuma Dam, completed in 1956 with a total loan of \$9 million from the Bank of America, was a pioneer in speeding up civil engineering work through the use of construction machinery, and changed the atmosphere of construction sites.

Environmental pollution problems began to appear in many parts of the country during this period. In 1953, people began to show symptoms of Minamata disease in the Kumamoto Prefecture, and itai-itai disease near the Jintsu River was reported at an academic conference in 1955. The Yokkaichi pollution emerged as a problem. Rapid industrial development has resulted in air and water pollution in many regions. Under these circumstances, the natural and social environmental impact of large-scale civil engineering projects have increased, and there is a strong need to understand disasters and pollution that are expected in the future from the development planning stage.

3) Stable Growth Period (1973–1991)

As large-scale projects were developed during a period of high economic growth, the natural and social environmental impact became more significant. Lawsuits demanding the suspension of projects, disasters (including floods), and cases blaming the government for the occurrence of accidents began to emerge. For example, in the wake of a disaster due to heavy seasonal rainfall in 1972, numerous flood lawsuits were filed all at once. Residents' awareness of public works and disasters changed from the late 1960s to the 1970s. In 1977, the Interim Report of the River Council indicated that comprehensive flood protection measures, such as watershed and damage mitigation methods must be strongly implemented along with river improvement. Since then, the government has promoted measures, such as securing water retention and recreational functions, setting up hazard maps of flooding, and public announcements. The government continued to seek understanding and cooperation from the watershed residents. Following the adoption of river improvement measures, construction of the metropolitan area outer discharge channel in the eastern part of Saitama Prefecture

began in 1992 and was completed in 2006 as one of the world's largest underground waterways. This contributed toward the safety of Tokyo's capital city.

Japan became one of the world's largest economies in the 1980s due to high economic growth; however, the standard of living and welfare was still low, with small living quarters, difficult commuting conditions, and low penetration of sewage systems. The country could overcome the problem of severe pollution to a large extent and income levels increased, people regained comfort with the hope of improving their living environment. Until Japan attained a period of high economic growth, people were striving for uninterrupted economic growth and were living in circumstances that included polluted rivers, lakes, marshes, and unsettled cities and roads. In 1970, the "National Diet on Pollution" was convened with the aim of drastically improving pollution-related laws and regulations, indicating the need to improve people's living environment. Civil engineering shifted from functional supremacy and priority to economic benefits, aiming for its original form of prioritizing the improvement of the living environment through the creation of amenities for beautification.

Against this social background, since the mid-1970s, attempts were made to introduce amenities for leisure as well as achieving peace of mind into civil engineering projects, including rivers, roads, and urban planning, primarily to harmonize them with improving the original functions. It was a new attempt that aimed at designing civil engineering spaces for recreation and leisure for people to enjoy considering the landscape together with adopting measures to prevent environmental pollution, and projects to solve these problems became widely popular in the 1980s. While environmental restoration, rehabilitation, and creation of waterfront spaces, landscape designing, beautiful and comfortable roads, and development of waterfronts, as seen in the creation of coasts and harbors, have progressed, non-structural public works projects have been introduced, such as attractive water and bridges that can be used for tourism. The development of sewage treatment technologies, such as advanced treatment and resource reuse, has played a significant role in expanding sewage projects. At present, although some scholars point out the loss of regional individuality due to uniform development and urbanization, public works projects have shifted from focusing solely on economic rationality to project implementation, considering the improvement in environment and quality of life.

4) **Post-growth period (1991- present)**

In the era of high economic growth and the spillover effects to rural areas, civil engineering technology has promoted national land development and fulfilled social requirements in the form of building large infrastructure projects, such as dams, highways, Shinkansen, and ports.

Civil engineering technology has reached a turning point and has faced severe trials. Criticism of public works projects triggered by the campaign against the Nagara River estuary barrage transcended the issue of "development" or "environment" and has turned into a social problem. It became the forerunner of the criticism of the public works projects that followed. Criticism of public works projects has provided an opportunity to question how governance should be conducted, such as

technical issues, social issues, criticism of the high-cost structure, and innate characteristics of the construction industry, and decision-making on public work projects. Prior to the above, in the long-term plan for social capital development to promote development in a focused, effective, and efficient manner, the plans for each business field were unified, and the plans were changed from "project cost" to "achievement results." The "Social Capital Development Priority Plan Act" was enacted in 2003, and the "Social Capital Development Priority Plan" based on the Act was determined by the Cabinet during the same year.

The Basic Environment Act was enacted in 1993 to comprehensively develop new environmental policies for the global environmental era.

Until the period of high economic growth, civil engineering created the foundation to support economic growth that emphasized growth in the gross national product (GNP). Currently, a shift to global environmental issues, social safety, stock-oriented in-house production of distinct regional diversity, and building a foundation aimed at becoming a mature economy that citizens can be proud of is underway.

GLOSSARY

	和文		f果 (Glossary)	Exploration
	和义	解説 1 ガバ・	English ナンス (Governance)	Explanation
			(Legislation and Organ	nization)
1	河川法	河川に関わる水災害の 発生が防止、河川水の適 正な利用、河川環境の保 全を総合的に管理する ことを目的として制定 された。1896年に最初に 最低され、1964年、1997 年に時代ニーズに沿っ た大きな改正がなされ た。	River Law	This Law aims at comprehensive river management including prevention of water-related disasters due to river water, proper utilization of river water, and conservation of the river environment. The law was enacted in 1896, and major amendments were passed in 1964 and 1997 for meeting various social needs of the time.
2	国土交通省水 資源部	河川管理の規制官庁で ある国土交通省にある 部門で、水資源政策、水 資源開発基本計画、水源 地域対策等を担当して いる。水資源に関する施 策は複数の省庁にまた がって実施され、水資源 部は関係組織の総合調 整を担っている。	Water Resources Department of Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport, and Tourism (MLIT)	The Water Resources Department is a section in the MLIT that regulates river management. The department is responsible for formulating the policy of water resources management, Water Resources Development Basic Plan, and consideration for water source areas, and comprehensive coordination among several parties related to the water resources department.
3	特定多目的ダ ム法	高度経済成長期の水資 源開発の主流であった 多目的ダムにおける費 用負担、ダムの所有権、 管理の主体を明確にし、 事業の実施を実現する ために成立した。	Act on Specified Multipurpose Dams	The Act stipulates budget allocation, ownership, responsibility of operation, and maintenance of multipurpose dam projects, one of the main measures for water resources development to meet the steep increase in water demand during the period of rapid economic growth.
4	水資源開発促進法	高度経済市の都市町 高度経済市の都市町の 水 部市の都市町町の 水 な 水 で た 対し、水系一貫の 水 な 水 い た 大 期 発 に 基づき、広 城 的かつ計画的に利 すること、また大規模な 水 源 施 的に 整 端 すること、 、 な や 端 成 に 表 の に 本 の に 基づき、広 城 の か つ また大規模な 水 施 む を 、 本 資 派 の 約 た に 大 規模な 水 施 む た 、 水 源 た た 、 水 源 加 に また 大 規模な 水 施 む と 、 また 大 規模な を 、 本 で 前 の に た 。 水 源 加 に た 、 水 源 た の に 表 の に た 、 水 源 か の に た 、 水 源 加 に た 、 水 源 加 に た 、 水 源 た の に 表 た 、 水 原 加 に た 、 水 施 設 を 。 小 源 の 総 会 か な 、 水 算 派 の 総 会 か な の 、 本 算 派 の の 総 合 的 な 、 水 算 の の 名 た 、 水 算 派 の の お に 、 水 変 派 の 、 お 二 、 水 変 派 の の お に 、 水 変 派 の の る 必 要 が ぶ の る が 本 、 か 、 、 、 、 の 、 の 、 、 、 、 の の の の の の の の の の の の の	Water Resources Development Promotion Act	To meet the steep increase in water demand during the period of rapid economic growth, this Act was required to formulate a comprehensive water resources management plan through a basin, realize systematic and efficient water utilization in wide areas, and build large water resources facilities together with water conveyance facilities. The Act aims at identifying river basins where such comprehensive water resources development is required, establishing the process to formulate the Water Resources Development Basic Plan in the specified basins, and stipulating the advisory role of the Water Resources Development Council.
5	水資源開発公 団法	水資源開発基本計画に 基づく事業の実施およ び維持管理を行う水資 源開発公団について定 めたもので、水資源開発	Water Resources Development Public Corporation Act	The Act was enacted for Water Resources Development Public Corporation, specifically about who implements and operates the water resources facilities included in the Water Resources Development Basic

用語集 (Glossary)

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		促進法と同時に成立し		Plan.
		た。		
6	水資源開発基 本計画	水資源開発促進法に基 づき、水の用途別の需要 の見通し及び供給の目 標、供給の目標を達成す るために必要な施設の 建設に関する基本的な 事項、その他水資源の総 合的な開発及び利用の	Water Resources Development Basic Plan	Water Resources Development Basic Plan was formulated based on the Water Resources Development Promotion Act. The plan contains prospects of water demand by sectors, water supply targets, a basic plan for developing water resources facilities, and critical matters on coordinated and rationalized water utilization.
7	水源地域対策 特別措置法	 合理化に関する重要事 項を定める。 水資源開発に伴う水源 地域に対する配慮、需要 地との対立問題、地域住 	Act on Special Measures concerning Measures Related to Water Resources	The Act was enacted for special consideration for water resources area against water resources development, issues on conflicts between the
0	力化运行工作	民のコンセンサスに対処することを目的に制定された。	Areas Basic Act on Water	beneficiary area and water resources area, and action to help stakeholders reach a consensus on the water resources area.
8	水循環基本法	人の活動及び環境保全 に果たす水の機能が適 切に保たれ、健全な水循 環を維持し、又は回復さ せ、経済社会の健全な発 展及び国民生活の安定 向上に寄与することを 目的としている。	Cycle	The Act aims at contributing toward sustainable development of the social economy and improving people's life through maintaining and recovering a healthy water cycle with the proper functioning of water against the environment and conservation of people's life.
9	地球温暖化対 策の推進に関 する法律	緩和策に関する目標明 記し、政策の継続性・予 見性を高め、脱炭素に向 けた取組・投資やイノベ ーションを加速させ、再 生可能エネルギーを活 用した脱炭素化の地域 の取組や企業の脱炭素 経営の促進を図る。	Act on Promotion of Countermeasures for Global Warming	The Act stipulates targets for mitigation of global warming to achieve continuity and predictability of political measures, facilitate and accelerate behavior and investment for decarbonization, as well as support regional policy and management of private companies toward decarbonization through innovation and utilization of renewable energy.
10	気候変動適応 法	環境大臣による定期的 な影響評価や、政府によ る気候変動適応計画の 策定が義務化し、国、地 方公共団体、事業者、国 民が連携・協力して適応 策を推進する。	Climate Change Adaptation Act	The Act obliges the Ministry of Environment to conduct a periodical impact assessment on climate change, and the government to formulate climate change adaptation plans to facilitate adaptation measures by coordination and cooperation among the national government, local governments, business entities, and local residents.
	レイルトケ		利権 (Water Rights)	
1	水利権	特定の目的(水力発電、 かんがい、水道等)のた めに、その目的を達成す るために必要な限度に おいて、流水を排他的・	Water Right	Water right is the claim to exclusive and continuous use of river water for a specific purpose and to the extent necessary to achieve the stated purpose (hydropower generation, irrigation, water supply)

	和文	解説	English	Explanation	
		持続的に使用する権利		•	
		の事をいう。			
2	慣行水利権	旧河川法の制定前ある	Customary Water	The fact that water users have been	
		いは河川法による河川	Right	using water continuously and	
		指定前から、長期に亘り		repeatedly for a long time before the enactment of the old River Law or	
		継続、かつ反復して水を		designation of a river by the new River	
		利用してきたという事		Law, and social recognition of the	
		実があって、当該水利用		legitimacy of such water use has been	
		の正当性に対する社会		made and recognized as a right.	
		的承認がなされ、権利と			
		して認められたもの。	W. D. 1. (
3	豊水水利権	取水の許可条件として、	Water Right to use water during a rich	This right is given to applicants on the condition that as a water right, users can	
		河川の流量が一定流量	water period	take water when the flow rate is higher	
		を超える場合に限り取	1	than a certain designated flow rate.	
		水出来る権利をいう、通 年取水が不可能であり、		Generally, water users cannot take	
		平取不が不可能であり、 渇水年の流況が悪い年		water throughout the year. Moreover,	
		協水中の加祝が悪い中 は取水可能量が減少す		the possible intake of water is decreased during a dry year.	
		は 取示可能重加減少 9 る。		during a dry year.	
4	減水区間	<u>、。</u> 発電取水により河川流	Depletion Section	Due to intake during hydropower	
		量が少なくなる区間を	- 1	generation, river flow decreases	
		いう。		between intake and the outlet of	
5	毎米日ンへる	· · · ·	Imigation Water	hydropower generation.	
5	農業用水合理	農業水利施設を改修す	Irrigation Water Rationalization	Potential surplus water for irrigation use is diverted to urban water by renovating	
	化事業	ることによって、潜在的 余剰水を都市用水へ転	Project	irrigation facilities.	
		示利示を都市用示、転 用する事業。	-	_	
6	渇水調整協議	円滑な渇水調整を図る	Drought	Committee to hold consultations to	
Ũ	合、前正面嵌	ため、水系内の多くの利	Coordinating	ensure smooth drought adjustment and	
	4	水者に河川管理者が提	Committee	sharing river information provided by	
		供する河川情報を共有		the river administrator to water users in	
		し、協議を行う場		the water system.	
7	水利権料	都道府県知事が河川を	Water Use Fees	Water use fees are collected by local	
		利用する物から徴取す		governments for water intake based on	
		る占用料の内、水利権に		water rights. In fact, local governments collect a water use fee from industrial	
		基づく取水に対して、徴		water use and hydropower generation.	
		取する占用料。実際に			
		は、工業用水、発電用水			
		から徴取していている。			
8	土地改良区	土地改良法による土地	Agricultural	An association established by farmers	
		改良事業(農業水利施設	Irrigation Area Improvement and	to conduct construction and management of irrigation water	
		の建設、管理、農地の整	Management	utilization facilities, and agricultural	
		備等)を実施する事を目	Association	land improvement under the Land	
		的として、農業を営む人		Improvement Act.	
		たちによって設立され た細織			
	た組織。 1-3 住民参加 (Public Participation and Decision-making Process)				
1	水ガバナンス	1-5 住氏参加 (Fublic Fai 治水や利水の水マネジ	Water Governance	In addition to managing water to control	
1	11×14 < 1 / 2 / 1	オントに加えて、国民の	Seventurioe	flooding and water utilization, water	
		意思や人権を尊重する		governance also includes basic values	
		考えや、合法性、信頼性、		and principles based on organizations	
L				1	

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		透明性など、組織や地域 に基づいた基本的な価		and communities, such as the concept of respecting the will and human rights of
		値観を含めた理念をい う。		people, legality, reliability, and transparency.
2	事業再評価	社会経済情勢等の変化	Project Re-	Re-evaluate, review, and cancel projects
		により必要性の低下し た事業を中止、見直す仕	evaluation	that have become less necessary due to changes in the socio-economic
		組みである。これによ		conditions. Through the system, the government can implement highly
		り、効果・効率の高い事		effective and efficient projects. The
		業のみを実施できる。また、評価結果を公表する		results of the evaluation will be publicized to ensure public works
		ことにより、公共事業の		projects remain transparent.
2		透明性が確保できる。	E ('/I E' 1	
3	魚つき林	森林法に基づき指定さ れる保安林の一つであ	Forests with Fish	Forests with fish are unique to Japan and have a role in conserving fishery
		り、①土砂の流出を防止		resources. The fish-breeding functions of forests include (1) preventing
		して、河川水の汚濁化を		sediment runoff and polluting river
		防ぐ、②清澄な淡水を供 給する、③栄養物質、餌		water, (2) providing clear fresh water, and (3) providing nutritional substances
		料を河川・海洋の生物に		and food for river and marine
		提供する等の役割があ る。		organisms.
4	水防災意識社	「施設では防ぎきれな	Water-related	This is the society that the government,
	会	い大洪水は必ず発生す	Disaster Aware Society	local residents, and businesses share knowledge and awareness of disaster
		るもの」へと意識を変革 し、行政・住民・企業の		risks and prepare for various disasters
		全てが災害リスクに関		such as floods, earthquakes, and landslides with the awareness that
		する知識と心構えを共		"large-scale floods beyond the capacity of the current facilities are inevitable."
		有し、洪水・地震・土砂 災害等の様々な災害に		of the current facilities are incortable.
		備える社会をいう。		
5	マイタイムラ イン	住民一人ひとりの防災 行動計画であり、台風等	My Timeline	My Timeline is an individual resident's disaster prevention plan. When the
	1 -	の接近による大雨によ		water level in the river rises due to
		って河川の水位が上昇		heavy rain or typhoon, residents organize basic behavior in
		する時に、自分自身がと る標準的な行動を時系		chronological order, which helps them to think about how to evacuate and save
		列的に整理し、自ら考え		their own lives with their families.
		命を守る避難行動のた		
		めの一助とするもので ある。		
6	水防団	洪水時に現地において	Flood Fighting	Flood fighting teams work on site to
		堤防や河川の巡視・警報 や避難の呼びかけ・住民	Teams	prevent and mitigate flood damage by patrolling levees and rivers, issuing
		や避難の呼びかり・住民の避難誘導・堤防の補		warnings and calls for evacuation, guiding residents to evacuate,
		強・水防工の設置・ポン		reinforcing levees, installing flood
		プ排水・樋門の操作など 水害を防止・軽減する活		prevention systems, pumping and draining water, and operating flume
		か告をの止く軽減りる店 動を行う団体である。ボ		gates. Flood fighting teams are
		ランティアの性格を持		volunteers and usually work in their own occupations.

planation
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nd, develop resources,
onditions for locating
hrough a multipurpose
use of rivers. ted mainly to secure
lies such as food and
World War II.
was designated under
sources Development
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	和文	解説	English	Explanation
	1	の平等・不平等を計る指		expressed as a number between 0 and 1,
		標。0から1までの数字		with 0 indicating equality and 1
		で示され、0に近づくほ		indicating inequality.
		ど平等、1に近づくほど		
		不平等の格差が大きい		
		事を意味する。		
8	高度経済成長	1960 年代の日本の経済	High economic	In the 1960s, Japan's economy grew at
	14/201201/9424	成長率が年平均 10%を	growth	an average rate of over 10% per year, a
		越え、諸外国にも例を見		rapid rate that is unparalleled in other
		ない急速な経済成長を		countries (1955 to 1973).
		遂げた事を言う(1955 年		
		~1973 年)		
		/	画 (Plan for Each River	Basin)
1	基本高水	洪水防御計画の対象と	Design hydrographs	Design hydrographs for studying the
		するハイエトグラフ群		flood control plan.
2	計画高水流量	河道・ダム等の洪水防御	Design flood	Design flood peak discharge allocated
		施設に配分される計画	discharge	to flood control structures, such as
		洪水ピーク流量		rivers channels, or dams.
3	治水安全度	洪水防御計画の設計規	Safety level of flood	Design scale for a flood control plan.
		模。防御地域の重要度に	control	The design scale is set considering the
		よって異なり、A 級では		importance of the protected area. More
		200 年以上としている。		than 200-year return periods for an A- rank river.
4	正常流量	低水管理の目標となる	Normal function	The key performance index for river
		流量。基準地点において	flow	discharge management during dry
		水利流量と維持流量の		seasons. Normal discharge consists of
		双方を満足する流量。		water use and maintenance flow.
5	利水安全度	水資源開発の設計規模。	Safety level of water	Design scale for water resources
		一般的に10カ年第1	use	development. Generally, the severest
		位相当の渇水とする。		year within 10 years is selected.
6	不特定容量	多目的ダムに設けられ	Water for	One of the volumes set in a
	• • • •	る容量のうちの一つで、	unspecified use	multipurpose dam, where the river
		河川管理者が建設費用		administrator bears the cost of
		を負担する。不特定容量		construction. Water for unspecified use is used to satisfy the deficit in
		により維持流量の不足		maintenance flow and existing water
		分と既得水利への補給		users, until return to normal discharge is
		を行い、正常流量を確保		secured.
		する。		
7	多自然川づく	河川全体の自然の営み	Nature-friendly river	River management to secure a natural
	9	を視野に入れ、地域の暮	works	ecosystem, landscape, local residents'
		らしや歴史・文化との調		daily life, history, and culture.
		和にも配慮し、河川が本		
		来有している生物の生		
		息・生育・繁殖環境及び		
		多様な河川景観を保全・		
		創出するために、 河川		
		管理を行うことです。		
8	河川整備基本	長期的な河川整備の方	Basic policy of river	Policy for river improvement and
	方針	針	improvement	management in the long term.
9	河川整備計画	20~30 年後の河川整備	River improvement	Plan to set the goal of river structure
		の目標を定める計画	plan	implementation and management over

10流域マネジメ 流域マネジメ ント森林、河川、農地、都市、 湖沼、沿岸域等におい て、人の営みと水量、水 質、水と関わる自然環境 を良好な状態に保ち、改 善するための取り組み。Watershed managementManagement to human activity, quality, wate environment in agricultural areas coastal areas.1国庫補助地方公共団体が行う特 定の事務事業に対して、 国が補助金の交付を国 庫の負担で行なう。Government Subsidy Flood ManagementThe national gove subsidies for conducted by loca expense of the nat2治水特別会計一般会計の歳入歳出か らは独立し、治水事業の みを扱う会計である。長 期的な投資が必要な治 水事業に対して、計画と 関連付けることで、年毎Special Account for Flood Management proje to secure stable fi flood management and long-term in	s, cities, lakes, and remment will provide specific projects al governments at the tional treasury. Int for flood control is the general account is spent for flood ects. It was introduced inancial resources for nt that requires large
ント湖沼、沿岸域等におい て、人の営みと水量、水 質、水と関わる自然環境 を良好な状態に保ち、改 善するための取り組み。managementhuman activity, quality, wate environment in agricultural areas coastal areas.1国庫補助地方公共団体が行う特 定の事務事業に対して、 国が補助金の交付を国 庫の負担で行なう。Government SubsidyThe national government Subsidy subsidies for conducted by locate expense of the nat2治水特別会計一般会計の歳入歳出か らは独立し、治水事業の みを扱う会計である。長 期的な投資が必要な治 水事業に対して、計画と 関連付けることで、年毎 の財政事情に関わらず、 安定した財源を確保すSpecial Account for Flood ManagementThe special account independent of the revenue, which management projet to secure stable fi flood management and long-term in linking to nationa 	water quantity and er-related natural n forests, rivers, s, cities, lakes, and remment will provide specific projects al governments at the tional treasury. Int for flood control is the general account is spent for flood ects. It was introduced inancial resources for nt that requires large
Image: Constraint of the const	er-related natural n forests, rivers, s, cities, lakes, and remment will provide specific projects al governments at the tional treasury. Int for flood control is the general account is spent for flood ects. It was introduced inancial resources for nt that requires large
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の財政事情に関わらず、linking to nationa安定した財源を確保すthe annual financia	investment, and by
女正した対称を催休り	al plans regardless of
るために導入された。	al situation.
	ed by funds raised
(FILD) and accomment a	of government credit
は この 国の 前度 で 利用 issuance of FILP	programs such as the P bonds (government
して調達した資金を財 bonds). It is used	d for large-scale and
源として、民間では対応 long-term projects	s with finance on long-
	ow interest rates, as it
	e funded by private
尻侯 夜朔ノロシェクト	
の 実施を可能とする 投 融資活動である。	
	vernment spending is
	revenue other than
	ls or borrowing. For
し相 安 th ブレス が (A) public works	expenses, however,
In the state of the second sec	ing government bonds lowed as an exception,
of contouring is un	government bonds for
より調達することが認 construction. This	s is the concept that
められている。将来の世 government bonds	s for construction are
代も使う施設に用いる used for facilities future generations	s that will be used by
との考えによる。	
	nethod to allocate the
「「「ダメヨス田仏」を代めるにのたり、日日」 Justifishia	construction of a
的が単独で施設を建設 Expenditure Method the estimated cost	to each user, based on to f the single-purpose
した場合の建設質を利 dam for each purp	
用して、共同で建設する	
ダム施設の費用を配分	
する方法である。 (時間 A Life Figure 1 Life Figure	- frame i d'i d
	g from projects in the on must pay the cost
地改良事業の恩恵を受 farmers' associations farmers' association of the land in	on must puy the cost l

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		ける地区内の農業者は、		through a "levy" that is paid to the
		土地改良区に加入し、土		farmers' associaiton.
		地改良区が事業を実施		
		するにあたって要する		
		費用を負担(賦課金)す		
		る。		
7	官民連携	行政と民間が連携して、	Public-Private	To optimize public services by
		それぞれお互いの強み	Partnership (PPP)	coordinating with the government and private sector by leveraging mutual
		を生かすことによって、		strengths. It is expected to maximize the
		最適な公共サービスの		value of the region and satisfaction of
		提供を実現し、地域の価		the regional residents.
		値や住民満足度の最大		
8	水源地域対策	化を図るもの。 下流受益地域の負担金	Fund on Measures	The Fund provides subsidies for
0	不	下流受益地域の負担金により、水源地の地方公	for Water Source	livelihood restoration and community
	本並	により、 水原地の地方公 共団体が実施する生活	Area	development projects implemented by
		再建・地域振興対策事業		local governments in the water source
		への助成、啓蒙・交流活		areas and sponsors educational and
		動事業への協賛を行う。		exchange activities. The downstream beneficiary areas contribute to the fund.
	4. 水	<u> 野菜 いいしょう (Water Pollut</u> 質汚濁・環境 (Water Pollut	tion and Environmental	5
1	公害防止協定	地方自治体や国の機関	Agreement for	An agreement related to preventing
		などが、公害発生企業と	Pollution	pollution between a local government or
		の間に、公害防止に関し	Prevention	a national agency and a company that
		て結ぶ協定。		generates pollution.
2	総量規制	産業の集中、人口の急増	Standards for total	To ensure environmental standards for
		等の影響で汚濁の著し	pollutant load	significantly polluted and closed water
		い広域な閉鎖性水域を	(Water use regulation)	bodies in wide areas due to the concentration of industry and rapid
		対象に、環境基準の確保	regulation)	population growth, this standard was
		を図るため、当該水域に		enacted with the aim of uniformly and
		流入する上流県等の内		effectively reducing the total amount of
		陸部からの負荷、生活排		pollutant loads on sources of pollution,
		水等を含めた汚濁源に		including loads from inland areas such as upstream prefectures and wastewater
		対して、汚濁負荷量の総		that flows into such water bodies.
		量を統一的かつ効果的		
		に削減する事を目的と		
2	医中节半日	して制定された。	Specified East-	Under the Water Dellution Control A. (
3	特定事業場	水質汚濁防止法で、政令	Specified Factory	Under the Water Pollution Control Act, this refers to factories that have
		で定める特定施設(排水 の水質規制が必要な施		specified facilities (i.e., those that need
		の水質規制か必要な施設)を設置する工場また		to regulate the quality of wastewater)
		政)を設直する上場また は事業場をいい、規制を		specified by a government ordinance,
		は事業場をいい、規制をかけられる排水は、これ		and the amount of wastewater that can be regulated is limited to the water
		から排出される水に限		discharged from these facilities.
		定される。		č
4	農業集落排水	農業集落におけるし尿、	Agricultural	This is a facility that treats sewage such
	展来来语 b 小 施設	上活雑排水などの汚水	Community	as manure and miscellaneous domestic
		等を処理する施設。農業	Drainage Facility	wastewater in agricultural communities.
		用排水の水質の汚濁を		It prevents water pollution from
		防止し、農村地域の健全		agricultural wastewater, contributes to a healthy water cycle in rural areas, and
		な水循環に資するとと		improves the basic living environment
L				

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		もに、農村の基礎的な生 活環境の向上を図る。 処理水の農業用水への 再利用や汚泥の農地還 元を行う事により、農業 の特質を生かした環境 への負荷の少ない循環 型社会の構築に貢献す る。		in rural areas. By reusing the treated water for agricultural use and returning the sludge to the farmland, it contributes toward building a society that is oriented toward recycling waste with less impact on the environment by leveraging the characteristics of agriculture.
5	合併浄化槽	し尿と生活雑排水を併 せて処理する浄化槽の 事。	Domestic Wastewater Treatment Tank	A septic tank that treats both manure and miscellaneous wastewater.
6	汚染者負担の 原則	公害防止のために必要 な対策を取ったり、汚さ れた環境を基に戻すた めの費用は、汚染物質を 出している者が負担す べきという考え方。	Polluter-Pay Principle	The concept that polluters must bear the cost of taking necessary measures to prevent pollution or restore the polluted environment to its original state.
7	河川水辺の国 勢調査	河川を環境という観点 からとらえた定期的継 続的、統一的な河川に関 する基礎情報収集のた めの調査。対象は直轄区 間の河川、直轄及び水資 源機構のダムを対象と している。	National Survey on Natural Environment in the River and Water Shore	This survey aims to collect basic information on rivers in a regular, continuous, and unified manner from an environmental perspective. The survey targets rivers managed by the national government and dams under the national government and the Japan Water Agency.
8	清流ルネッサ ンス	地元市町村等と河川管 理者、下水道管理者およ び関係機関が一体とな って、協議会を組織し、 各関係者が合意の上で 水質改善目標を定め、水 環境改善事業を総合的、 緊急的にかつ重点的に 実施する事を目的とし たアクションプログラ ム	Clear Stream Renaissance	It is an action plan for comprehensive, urgent, and focused implementation of water environment improvement projects. The local municipalities, river management offices (river administrator), sewerage administrators, and related organizations form a council to set water quality improvement targets based on the agreement with each party.
8	グリーンイン フラ	自然環境が有する機能 を社会における様々な 課題解決に活用しよう とする考え方	Green Infrastructure	The idea of using the functions of the natural environment to solve various problems in society.
9	ESG 投資	従来の財務情報だけで なく、環境 (Environment)、社会 (Social)、ガバナンス (Governance)要素も考慮 した投資のこと	Environmental, Social and Governance (ESG) Investment	This is an investment that considers not only conventional financial information but also environmental, social, and governance criteria.
10	グリーンボン ド	企業や地方自治体等が、 国内外のグリーンプロ ジェクトに要する資金	Green Bonds	Bonds issued by companies and local governments to raise funds for green projects in Japan and overseas.

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		を調達するために発行		
		する債券		
			ント (Urban Water Ma	
1	雑用水	生活排水や産業排水を 処理して循環利用する ものを言う。中水道とも 呼ばれる。利用として、 水洗トイレの用水、公園 の噴水等、人体と直接接 しない目的や場所で用 いられる。		A system that treats domestic and industrial wastewater for recycling. It is also called "grey water." It is used for flushing toilets, water fountains in parks, and other purposes and places where it does not come into direct contact with the human body.
2	総合治水	流域における保水・遊水 機能の維持、浸水被害を 抑える土地利用方法な ど、河川と流域の両面か ら水害の軽減と防止を はかる治水対策。	Integrated flood management	Flood protection measures to mitigate and protect from flood damage caused by rivers and watershed areas such as maintaining water retention and retarding functions in the watershed area and considering land use to reduce flood damage.
4	雨水貯留浸透施設	屋根に降った雨水を貯 留し、水資源として活用 するための施設や、ろ過 して効率よく地中に浸 透させる施設の事。設置 することにより、河川へ の負担軽減や都市にお ける浸水被害の緩和、雨 水の有効利用が期待で きる。	Rainwater storage and infiltration facility	A facility that stores rainwater that falls on rooftops and utilizes it as a water resource, or a facility that filters and percolates it efficiently into the ground. It is expected to reduce discharge in rivers and mitigate flood damage in urban areas and enhance the effective use of rainwater.
5	親水護岸	護岸としての機能をも ちつつ、人が水辺で楽し める様に配慮された護 岸。	Visitor-oriented embankment	While functioning as an embankment, it is considered to allow people to enjoy the waterfront.
6	高規格堤防(ス ーパー堤防)	市街地側に概ね 200~ 300 メートル (堤防の高 さの約 30 倍) にわたっ て盛り土を行った幅の 広い堤防のこと。高規格 堤防を整備することに より、万一、大洪水によ って水が堤防を越えて も水は斜面を緩やかに 流れ、堤防の決壊による 壊滅的な被害から街を 守ることができる。	High-standard levees (super levee)	It is a wide levee with an embankment of approximately 200 to 300 meters (about 30 times the height of the levee) on the city side. By constructing high- standard levees, even if the river water overtops the levee in the event of a big flood, the river water will flow gently down the slope and protect the city from catastrophic damage caused by a levee breach.
7	地下放水路	川から溢れた水を一度 流下し、他の大きな河川 や海へと放流する地下 トンネルのこと。	Underground discharge channel (tunnel)	An underground tunnel that allows water to overflow from a river that flows down once and is released into another large river or the ocean.
		6. 河川管3	理 (River Management)	
	一級河川	河川法にもとづいて国 土交通大臣が管理する	Class A Rivers	Rivers managed by MLIT based on the River Law.

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		河川		•
	二級河川	河川法にもとづいて都 道府県知事が管理する 河川	Class B Rivers	River managed by prefectural governors based on the River Law.
	河川区域	低水路(平常時の河道)、 高水敷および堤防敷か らなる区域	River Zone	A zone consisting of a low water channel (river channel at normal condition), high water channel, and levee embankment.
	河川保全区域	堤防を保全するために 利用制限を課す区域	River Conservation Zone	This is a land use restriction zone to preserve levees.
	河川管理施設	河川管理者自らが設置 する河川工作物	River administration facilities	These are river facilities constructed by the river administrator.
	許可工作物	河川管理者以外の者が 河川管理者の許可を得 て設置する河川工作物	Permitted facilities	River facilities installed by persons after obtaining permission from the river administrator.
	水防団	市町村、市町村の組合、 水害予防組合が設置す る水害防災組織。地域住 民より任用され、非常勤 の特別職地方公務員と しての身分により活動 する。	Flood fighting teams	A flood disaster prevention organization established by municipalities, municipal unions, and flood prevention associations. The organization is appointed by local residents and operates as a part-time special local government employee.
	河川協力団体	河川管理者の指定を受 けて河川の美化活動、環 境教育・防災教育、河川 環境に係る調査・研究な どを行う民間団体	River collaboration organization	A private organization designated by the river administrator to conduct river beautification activities, environmental and disaster prevention education, and surveys and research related to the river environment.
	時間管理保全	定期的に交換・更新を行 う施設管理の方法	Time managed maintenance	A facility management method for regular replacement and renewal.
	状態監視保全	損傷状態に応じて最適 な時期に交換・更新を行 う施設管理の方法	Condition monitoring maintenance	A facility management method to replace or renew at the optimal time and according to the extent of damage.
7. ±	地下水管理 (Grou	ndwater Management)		
1	地下水涵養	雨水などが土中に浸透 し、帯水層に地下水とし て蓄えられること	Groundwater recharge	Rainwater percolates into the soil and is stored as groundwater in aquifers.
2	地下水盆	一つの大規模な帯水層 又は帯水層群の分布地 域の事。地下水盆と表流 水の修水面積は必ずし も一致しない。	Groundwater basin	A distribution area of a large aquifer or group of aquifers. Groundwater basins and surface water basins do not normally coincide.
4	工業用水道	工場などの事業場に人 体と直接接しない目的 で用いる雑用水を供給 するもの。	Industrial water supply	A miscellaneous water supply used in factories and other workplaces for purposes that do not involve direct contact with the human body.
5	公害防止条例	地方自治体が公害防止 に取り組む基本姿勢を 示すと共に地方の特性・ 実情に応じた公害防止 対策を盛り込んでいる	Pollution control ordinance	An ordinance that defines the basic stance of local governments on pollution prevention and includes pollution prevention measures that are tailored to local characteristics and conditions.

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		条例。		
6	井戸枯れ	井戸から地下水を汲み 上げると、井戸とその周 辺の地下水位は低下す る。大量の地下水を汲み 続けると地下水位は低 下し、ポンプの吸込口よ り地下水位が下がると、 それ以上、地下水を汲み 上げることができなく なる現象。	Drying up wells	When groundwater is pumped from a well, the groundwater level in and around the well drops. When the groundwater level drops below the suction port of the pump, it becomes impossible to pump groundwater any further.
7	地盤沈下監視 ガイドライン	都道府県等が行う環境 監視についての技術的 な提言としてとりまと めたもの。	Guidelines for monitoring ground subsidence	This is a compilation of technical recommendations for environmental monitoring conducted by prefectures.
		8.ダム管理	里 (Dam Management)	
1	ダム基本設計 会議	設計段階や試験湛水時 に技術専門家の承認を 得るために開催される 技術会議である。	Meeting on Basic Design of Dam	Meeting for technical discussion and approval process by prominent technical experts for dam design. The meeting is held during the design stage as well as after first filling the reservoir.
2	大規模地震に 対するダム耐 震性能照査指 針(案)・同解説	将来発生しうる大規模 地震に対するダム構造 物の安全性の評価手法 に関するガイドライン で、1995年の兵庫県南部 地震を契機に策定され た。	Guidelines for Seismic Performance, Evaluation of Dams during Large Earthquakes	These guidelines were established in 1995 after the Great Hanshin Earthquake. The guidelines define the methodology for evaluating the seismic performance and safety of the dam body against large earthquakes, which is defined as "earthquake motion having maximum-scale level of intensity conceivable at the dam site at the present and in future."
3	ダム点検	河川管理者が設置する ダムは「巡視・日常点 検」、「臨時点検(地震時、 出水時等)」、概ね3年に 1回以上の「定期検査」、 および概ね30年ごとの 「ダム総合点検」が義務 付けられる。	Dam Inspection	Dams constructed by the River Administrator require dam inspections, categorized into "Regular Inspection," "Extraordinary Inspection (after a large- scale flood or earthquake)," "Periodic Inspection (once every three years)," and "Overall Inspection (once 30 years)."
4	ダム操作規則	河川法に基づきダムご とに制定される。年間水 位操作、目的別の容量配 分、洪水調節の操作方 法、体制、通知方法、点 検整備方法、管理記録な どについて定める。	Dam Operation Rule	The River Law stipulates to formulate dam operation rules for any dam. The dam operation rule includes annual reservoir operation, reservoir capacity allocation for each utilization purpose, dam operation for flood time, organization, recording, communication, and method of inspection and maintenance.
5	異常洪水時防 災操作	計画時に想定された規 模以上の洪水が発生し た場合にダムの安全を 確保するために、放流量 を流入量に等しくなる まで増加させる操作で	Operation Method during an Extraordinary Flood for Disaster Prevention	The operation rule during an extraordinary flood that is larger in scale than a design flood. The operation rule includes the method to increase flood release up to reservoir inflow to secure dam safety.

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
6	事前放流	<u>ある。</u> 洪水の発生を予測した	Pre-flood Release of	When a flood is predicted, reservoir
0	争則放流	浜水の発生を予測した 場合に、利水の共同事業 者に支障を与えない範 囲で、利水容量から跳水 を放流し、治水容量とし て一時的に活用する手	Reservoir Water	when a flood is predicted, reservoir water is released from the reservoir storage for water utilization to temporarily obtain capacity for flood regulation within the volume which does not affect water utilization by water users.
		法である。		
7	ダム統合運用	同一水系等において複 数のダムがある場合に、 洪水調節や利水補給へ のダムの効果を最大限 に発揮するために、これ らの複数のダムを一体 的に運用する。	Integrated Dam Operation	Integrated dam operation is a coordinated and integrated method of dam operation using several dams in the same river basin or sometimes dams beyond the basin to maximize the function on water supply and flood control by these dams.
8	ダム再生	厳しい財政事情や気候 変動への対応のために、 既存のダム施設を有効 利用することを重視し、 社会や自然環境への影 響を抑制しつつ、ダムの 長寿命化、利水および治 水機能の回復および増 強を行う。	Dam Rehabilitation and Upgrading	To meet the government's severe financial situation as well as the severe climate change condition, maximization and increasing the function of existing dams is focused on rehabilitating and upgrading existing dams. This rehabilitation and upgrading aims at restoring and enhancing the flood control and water supply function of dams as well as elongating the life of dams.
		境社会配慮 (Environmental		
1	一般補償•公共 補償	事業者の補償は、個人や 企業の土地建物などを 対象とした「一般補償」 と、公共的施設を対象と した「公共補償」とに分 けられる。	General Compensation/Public Compensation	"General compensation" covers land and buildings of individuals and companies. "Public compensation" covers public facilities.
2	電源三法	①電源開発促進税法、② 特別会計に関する法律 (旧電源開発促進対策 特別会計法)、③発電用 施設周辺地域整備法を 総称するものであり、こ れらの法律の主な目的 は、電源開発が行われる 地域に対して補助金を 交付し、電源開発を促進 し、運転を円滑にしよう とするものである。	Three Acts for Power Development	Three Acts for power-resources are the generic terms for 1) Act on Tax for Promotion of Power-Resources Development, 2) Act on Special Accounts for Electric Power Development Acceleration Measures, and 3) Act on the Development of Areas Adjacent to Electric Power Generating Facilities. The main purpose of these laws is to promote power supply development and facilitate operations by subsidizing areas where power supply development takes place.
3	森林環境税·森 林環境譲与税	森林環境税は、パリ協定 の枠組みの下における 日本の温室効果ガス排 出削減目標の達成や災 害防止等を図るための 森林整備等に必要な地 方財源である。これを	Forest Environment Tax/Forest Environment Transfer Tax	The Forest Environment Tax is a local financial source to develop forests. The purpose is to reduce greenhouse gas emissions under the Paris Agreement and to prevent disasters. The tax will be transferred to each municipality and prefecture as the Forest Environment Transfer Tax. Local governments have

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		「森林環境譲与税」とし		begun to use this tax effectively,
		て各市町村や都道府県		primarily to improve resilience to
		に譲与し、自然に対する		natural disasters, prevent soil erosion
		さまざまな支援活動に		and runoff, improve water source recharge functions, conserve
		向けて還元する。		biodiversity and increase carbon
				dioxide absorption.
4	水源税	森林の水源涵養機能に	Tax for Reservoir	Generically, this refers to environmental
		着目し、その機能の回	Areas	taxes that focus on the cultivation of
		復・維持等のために地方		forests in reservoirs by asking local
		公共団体が森林整備等		residents to bear the cost of improving
		の事業を行い、その費用		such forests and other projects undertaken by local governments to
		負担を地域住民に求め		restore and maintain their function.
		る手段としての環境税		
		の総称である。		
5	環境アセスメ	環境保全の観点からよ	Environmental	The environmental assessment system
-	味境 / ヒハノ ント	^泉 境保主の観点からよ り良い事業計画を作り	Assessment	investigates, predicts, and evaluates the
	~ 1	上げていくために、環境		environmental impact for a better
		影響について、調査・予		project plan from the perspective of
		影響について、調査・デ 測・評価を行う。日本で		environmental conservation. In Japan,
		は、1972年(昭和47年)		environmental assessments for public works were introduced in 1972. Projects
		は、1972 年(昭和 47 平) に公共事業での環境ア		related to reservoirs that are subject to
		に公共事業での環境プロスメントが導入され		environmental assessment are river
		た。水資源関連で環境ア		improvement projects such as 1) dams
		セスメントの対象とな		and weirs, 2) floodways, and 3)
		る事業は、河川整備事業		development of lakes and marshes.
		る事業は、何川整備事業 (①ダム、堰、②放水路、		
		湖沼開発)である。		
6	配慮書	事業への早期段階にお	Statement of	A document that summarizes the results
U U	印度官	する環境配慮を可能にお	Consideration	of a review of the issues concerning
		するため、第1種事業を		environmental conservation. A person
		実施しようとする者が、		implements a Type 1 project to enable
		環境保全のために適正		environmental considerations at an
		な配慮をしなければな		early stage of the project. In 2011, the Act was amended to introduce the
		らない事項について検		"Statement of Consideration" procedure
		ちない事項に りいて 検 討を行い、その結果をま		as a strategic environmental assessment
		らんた図書である。2011		(SEA) before the project
		年(平成 23 年)の法改正		implementation stage.
		中(平成 25 平)の伝設正 により、事業実施段階前		
		により、 事業美施校 階前 の戦略的環境アセスメ		
		い戦略的環境アピスス ント(SEA)として、「配慮		
		> 「(SEA)として、 配慮 書」手続が導入された。		
10	1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.		Dagaymaag 1 T1 1	
10.	<u>人材育成・技術的</u> OJT	開発 (Development of Human 実際の仕事を通じて	On-the-Job-Training	
1	0J1	実際の仕事を通じて	(OJT)	Educational methods to acquire knowledge and skills through actual
		知識・技術などを身に付	()	work
2	Off-JT	ける教育方法 職場を離れて講習会	Off-the-Job-Training	Educational methods provided through
2	011-11		on-me-joo-iranning	workshops outside the workplace.
		などを通じて行う教育 ナンナ		
3	SATREPS	方法	Science and	A Jananese government program that
3	SAIKErs	環境・エネルギー、防災、	Technology	A Japanese government program that promotes international joint research on
		感染症等の地球規模課	Research Partnership	global issues such as environment,

	和文	解説	English	Explanation
		題について国際共同研 究を推進する日本政府 のプログラム	for Sustainable Development	energy, disaster prevention, and infection.
4	i-Construction	ICT を全面的に活用す ることで建設業の生産 性を向上させるための プロジェクト	i-Construction	A project to improve productivity in the productivity of construction through full use of information and communication technology (ICT).
5	オープンイノ ベーション	自社以外の組織や機 関などが持つ知識や技 術を取り込んで製品開 発や技術改革、研究開発 や組織改革を行う取組	Open innovation	Initiatives for product development, technological innovation, research and development, and organizational innovation by incorporating knowledge and technology held by organizations and institutions other than the company.

EVENTS RELATED TO WATER RESOURCES

Era	Year	Events and Disasters	Events related to Water Resources
Yayoi	B.C.300–A.D.	Beginning of economic development based on agriculture	Beginning of agricultural irrigation system (Agricultural Development)
Kohun	250 313		Small V-shaped drainage channels installed in the village (sewerage) Construction of the Manda Levee flood control project on the Yodo River (the oldest one recorded in Japan)
	4th century		Rainfall ditches appeared around the 4th century (sewerage)
Asuka	701	Taiho legal codes	Construction of irrigation ponds and canals for agriculture development by the Buddhist monk Gyoki and other monks In Heijo-kyo, the drainage system was considered and built at the planning stage, and such a systematic drainage network was
Nara	710	Transfer of capital to Nara(Heijyo kyo)	inherited in Heian-kyo (sewerage)
	743	Act for the Privatization of Reclaimed Lands in Perpetuity	Construction of floodway and flood levees for flood control (left bank downstream of the Yodogawa River)
Heian	821		Improvement works of the Mannou Pond by a priest named Kukai (agricultural development); construction of Japanese type flushing toilet (Nogen-siki toilet) in a temple on Mt. Koya (sewerage)
			Odawara Hayakawa waterworks (domestic and industrial water)
			Kouhu basin development (agricultural development); construction of Shingen Levee at Kamanashi River and protection of forests against flood damage (Manriki forest) (flood control) by Shingen Takeda
			Development of Toyama plain (agricultural development) and construction of Levee for flood control (Sasa Levee) by Narimasa Sasa
	1467–1603	Flood control and irrigation development by Warriors	Construction of irrigation facilities for (agricultural development) and flood control of Shirakawa R., Kikuchi R., Midorikawa R., and
Civil Wars			Kuma R. (flood control) by Kiyomasa Kato Development of the Tikushi plain (agricultural development) and construction of Levee (Chiriku Levee) on the Chikugo River (flood
			control) by Hyougo Naridomi
			Developing new fields surrounding the Osaka castle (agricultural development); construction of Taikou Levee and Bunroku Levee
	1583		(flood control) by Hideyoshi Toyotomi Construction of the Taikou Sewer Canal (sewer canal system was built in Osaka Castle Town) (sewerage)
	1590	Hideyoshi Toyotomi unified the country (Japan)	Construction of the Koishikawa waterworks (from Kanda R. to Edo Castle) (domestic and industrial water)
	1594–1654		Realignment of the Tone River in the eastern direction (boat transportation, developing new fields, and flood control systems) (agricultural development, flood control, and others)
	1619		Construction of sand embankment (Construction of levee to protect flood damage at Fukuyama Castle) (Flood Control)
	1621–1674		Construction of the Karigane Levee in the Fuji River (flood control)
	1629		The Kanda waterworks (origin of the Inokashira pond, expansion of the Koishikawa water works) (domestic and industrial Water)
	1654		The Tamagawa waterworks (from the Tama River to Yotsuya) (domestic and industrial water)
	1660		Construction of the Kasai Irrigation Canal (agricultural development) The Gousen waterworks (the oldest waterworks currently in use today) (Udo City, Kumamoto Prefecture) (domestic and industrial
	1663		water)
	1704		Realignment of the Yamato River in the southern direction (flood control)
Edo	1708 1728		Utilization of old river course of Yamato River and old ponds to develop new field (Agricultural Development) Construction of the Minumadai Irrigation Canal (agricultural development)
Edo	1742	Flood during the Kanpou Period (more than 10,000 people were estimated	
		killed in Japan)	Flood control project along three rivers in Kiso (construction by feudal retainers of the Satsuma Domain (presently Kagoshima
	1753		Prefecture) (flood control)
	1786	Flood during the Tenmei Period (about 30,000 people estimated to have	
		been killed in Japan) The Siebold Typhoon(more than 10,000 people estimated to have been	
	1828	killed and missing in Saga)	
	1846	Flood during the Kouka Period (duration of flood damage: more than 1 month)	
	1872		After the Great Fire of Ginza, sewer/drainage facilities were constructed on streets (sewerage), rivers, and ports, and the Road
	1875	Establishment of Tokyo Meteorological Observatory	Repair Regulation (Law System) was enacted
	1877	Cholera epidemic that started in Yokohama and Nagasaki, spread	
		nationwide	
	1883 1884–85		Irrigation water supply launched from the Asaka canal (agricultural development) A modern sewerage system was built in Kanda (sewerage)
	1885 1887	Establishment of the Imperial University /Talaya University)	Construction of the Nasu Canal (agricultural development)
	1888	Establishment of the Imperial University (Tokyo University)	A modern water supply system was started in the foreign settlements in Yokohama (domestic and industrial water) Japan's first private hydroelectric power plant was established at the Miyagi Spinning Mills (hydropower)
	1889	Promulgation of the Meiji Constitution; enforcement of city and town system	
	1890	First Imperial Diet	Enactment of an ordinance for water supply (Legal System)
Meiji	1891	The Ashio Copper Mine poisoning problem	Operations begin at the Keriage power station of No.1 Biwa Lake Waterway (Japan's first hydroelectric power plant for industry)
			(hydropower)
	1896 1897		Old River Law (Law System); completion of water supply system in Osaka city (domestic and industrial) Forest Law and Erosion Control Law (Law System)
	1898	Establishment of Civil Law; formation of the First Party Cabinet	Completion of water distribution facilities from the Tama River via the Yodobashi Water Treatment Plant (domestic and industrial
	1899		water) Completion of Water Supply System in Tokyo (domestic and industrial water)
	1900		Old Sewerage Law (Law System)
	1908		Water supply to Koriyama using the Asaka Waterway (domestic and industrial water), Water Users' Association Law (Law System)
	1910		Excavation project of a new Yodo River channel (starting 1896, Japan's first full-scale flood control work) (flood control)
	1910		Electricity Business Law (Law System)
	1912		Output of hydroelectric power generation exceeds that of thermal power generation(hydropower); securing Kyoto water resources
Taisyo	1914		using Biwa Lake No.2 waterway (domestic and industrial water) Establishment of the Japan Society of Civil Engineers (organization)
	1914		Operations start at Mikawashima Water Treatment Plant (Japan's first treatment plant) and sprinkling filter process(sewerage)
	1927		Revision of Japan's Electricity Business Law(Law System)
	1930		Starting of Nagoya's first activated sludge process (sewerage)
	1934		First pumped storage generation begins in Japan (Hokuriku Electric Power Company Oguchi River No.3 Power Station, Tohoku Electric Power Company Ikejiri River Power) Station) (hydropower)
	1945	Typhoon Ida (Makurazaki Typhoon) (estimated death toll/missing people:	Chlorine disinfection(domestic and industrial water)
	1340	4,429) Promulgation of the Constitution of Japan; the Showa Nankai earthquake	
	1946	(estimated death poll/missing people: 1,443)	
	1947	Amendment of Civil Law, Agrarian Reform, Typhoon Kathleen(estimated	Local Autonomy Law, Agricultural Cooperation Law (Law System)
F	1948	death toll/missing people: 1,930)	
	1948	The Fukui earthquake (estimated death toll/missing people: 3,769)	Agricultural Chemicals Regulation Law (Law System)
			Land Improvement Law (Law System)
	1949 1950		Land Improvement Law (Law System) Comprehensive National Land Development Law (Law System)

Era	Year 1952	Events and Disasters	Events related to Water Resources Establishment of Electric Power Development Co., Ltd.(hydropower), Power Resources Development Law (Law System)
	1952	Heavy rainfall in Kitakyusu (estimated death toll/missing people: 1,028); heavy rainfall in Wakayama Prefecture(estimated death toll/missing people:	
		1,015); outbreak of Minamata disease	
	1955	Outbreak of Itai-itai disease	Establishment of Aichi Irrigation Public Corporation (agricultural development), Industrial Water Law (Law System), First Arch Dar and operations start at Kyusyu Electric Power Company at the Kamishiba Power Station (hydropower)
	1956	Japan becomes a member of the United Nations	Operations start at the Sakuma Power Station (beginning of large-scale power development) (hydropower) Establishment of Water Supply Act, Specified Multipurpose Dams Act, Professional Engineer Act (Law System)
	1957	Typhoon Ida (Karino River Typhoon) (estimated death toll/missing people:	Starting of River Purification Projects (environment), Industrial Water Supply Business Law, Clean Water Law, Factory Effluent
	1958	1,269)	Control Law, New Sewerage Law (Law System)
	1959	Typhoon Vera (Isewan Typhoon)(estimated death toll/missing people: 5,177)	
	1961		Completion of Aichi Water Supply Project (agricultural development), operations start at the Miboro Hydropower Station (Japan's highest fill type dam), Okutadami Hydropower Station (largest effective storage volume in Japan), Tagokura No.4 Hydropower Station (largest embankment volume in Japan) (hydropower), Water Resources Development Promotion Law, Water Resources Development Corporation Law, Basic Law on Disaster Management, Basic Law on Agriculture(Law System)
	1962	Preparation of Comprehensive National Development Plan; Tokyo's population surpasses 10 million for the first time	Laws on regulating pumping of groundwater for use in buildings (Law System)
Showa	1963		Construction of Toyokawa Water Supply Canal (agricultural development, domestic and industrial water); starting First Five-Year Plan for Sewerage Development (Sewerage), thermal power output exceeds hydropower output. Completion of No.4 Kurobe River Power Station (highest arch dam in Japan) (hydropower)
	1964	Occurrence of water shortage in Tokyo (Olympic drought); outbreak of Niigata Minamata disease	New River Law, Electricity Business Law (Law System)
	1965		Proceedings for regional sewerage system (Neyagawa City, Osaka Prefecture) (sewerage)
	1966	Japan's population surpasses 100 million	Implementation of riverside parks (environment)
ľ	1967	Drought in Nagasaki; pollution-related diseases became more serious	Basic Law for Environmental Pollution (Law System)
	1968	Japan's gross national product (GNP) becomes the second largest in the world; officially recognized that itai-itai disease is induced by environmental pollution	
	1969	Preparation of the New Comprehensive National Development Plan	Second Agricultural Structure Improvement Project (agricultural development)
	1970	Pollution Diet	Water Pollution Prevention Law, Revision of Basic Law for Environmental Pollution, Partial Amendment of Sewerage Law, Waste Management, Public Cleaning Law, Law to Prevent Soil Contamination of Agricultural Land (Law System)
	1972		Natural Conservation Law (Law System)
	1973	Drought in Takamatsu	Law on Special Measures for Up-stream Area Development (Law System)
·	1974		Law on Compensation for Pollutant-related Health Damage (Law System), Establishment of Public Sewerage Business for Specif
·	1975		Environmental Preservation (Sewerage) Report on River Environmental Management (River Council) (environment); completion of the Okutatara Hydropower Station (the
	1977	Preparation of 3rd Comprehensive National Development Plan	biggest pumped storage power station at that time) (hydropower) Announcement of "Comprehensive Flood Control Measures" for Urban Rivers (River Council) (flood control)
·		Long-term water demand and supply plan; drought in Fukuoka, the Love	
	1978	Canal incident (U.S.); Wrecker Kerk Case (Netherland)	Revision of Water Pollution Prevention Law (total column control) (Law System)
	1980 1981	Silicon Valley's groundwater contamination problem(U.S.)	Notice on Comprehensive Flood Control Measures (flood control) Promotion of measures to prevent land subsidence (decision of the Ministerial Conference on Measures to Prevention Land Subsidence) (domestic and industrial water); implementation of comprehensive flood control measures on the Tsurumi River ahea of any other river in Japan (flood control); completion of the New Takase River Hydropower Station (highest installed capacity (1,2) thousand kW) of hydropower station) (hydropower)
	1982	Heavy rainfall in Nagasaki (death and missing: 299Persons)	Groundwater contamination survey (Environment Agency) (environment)
	1983		Rural Sewerage Projects (sewerage), formulation of the "Basic River Environment Management Plan" (environment), and Purifica Tank Law (Law System)
	1984		A law on Special Measures concerning Conservation of Lake Water Quality (Law System)
	1985		Decision on the Guideline of Measures to Prevent Land Subsidence in the Nobi Plain, Chikugo, and Saga Plain (domestic and
			industrial water)
·	1986	Preparation of 3rd Comprehensive National Development Plan, National	Basic Direction of Agricultural Policy for the 21st Century (Report by the Council for Agricultural Policy) (agricultural development)
	1987	Water Resource Plan (Water Plan), and establishment of Liaison Council for drought related Ministries and Agencies	
	1990	Asset price bubble burst	Promotion of the River Restoration Program; National Census on River Environment (environment)
	1991		Decision on the guideline of measures to prevent land subsidence in the northern part of the Kanto Plain (domestic and industrial water), environmental standards related to soil contamination (25 items) (environment)
	1992		Revision of the Water Quality Standards for tapped water (from 26 to 45 items) (domestic and industrial water); revision of Environmental Standards related to water quality (from 9 to 23 items and required monitoring of 25 items) (environment)
	1993		Establishment of Stream Renaissance 21 (environment)
	1994 1995	Drought in Japan The Great Hanshin Awaji earthquake disaster (estimated death toll: 6,308)	Standards for permission to install structure (flood control) Promotion of measures for preventing illegal mooring (flood control); report on the future of river environment (River Council)
·			(environment) Law on Environmental Impact Assessment, Revision of River Laws (Law System), Environmental Standards related to Water
·	1997	Grand design for the 21st century; starting of operations of New Technology	Pollution of Groundwater (23 Items) (Environment)
	1998	Information System (NETIS)	Agricultural Reform Principle (agricultural development)
·	1999	Water Plan 21, Establishment of Liaison Council for Building Healthy Water Cycle related Ministries and Agencies	
	2000		Future Hometown 21 (proposal for social gatherings related to the vision for Future Communities in the 21st Century) (agricultural development); prohibition of single treatment septic tanks (sewerage); environmental standards for dioxins (environment)
ļ	2001		Establishment of the Construction Technology Research and Development Subsidy Program (Technology Development)
	2002	Confirmation of soil contamination at the planned site of the new Toyosu market in Tokyo	Construction of the Toyokawa Water Supply Canal (phase 2) (agricultural development, domestic and industrial water); establishment of Nature Restoration Projects and Stream Renaissance 2 (environment)
	2003		Law on Priority Plan for Social Infrastructure Development, Soil Contamination Countermeasures Law, Law on Promotion of Natur Restoration (Law System)
Heisei	2004		Formulation of Water Supply Vision (domestic and industrial water), National Spatial Planning Law (name changed due to revision the Comprehensive National Land Development Law) (Law System)
	0005		Establishment of a Comprehensive River System Environment Improvement Project and Integrated River Environment Improvement
	2005	The Kyoto Protocol was officially adopted	Project (environment)

Era	Year	Events and Disasters	Events related to Water Resources
	2006		Promotion of a River Restoration Program (environment)
	2009		Establishment of supporting system for urban development related to rivers (Environment)
	2010		Review of Tapped Water Quality Standards (basic items 50, management target-setting items 27, required consideration items 44) (domestic and industrial water), revision of Soil Contamination Countermeasures Law (soil contamination of natural origin is also included) (Law System)
	2011	The Great East Japan Earthquake (estimated death toll: 15,735 people)	
	2012	Torrential rainfall in the northern part of Kyusyu (estimated death toll: 30 people)	Preparation project for Local Agriculture Master Plan (agricultural development)
	2013	Establishment of a river cooperation organization system	Formulation of New Water Supply Vision (domestic and industrial water)
	2014	Grand Design for 2050; heavy rainfall in August (estimated death toll: 6 people)	Basic Law on the Water Cycle, Law related to Promotion of Rainwater Utilization (Law System)
	2015	Torrential rainfall in Kantou and Tohoku (estimated death toll: 14 people); decision on the preparation of the Basic Plan on Water Cycle	Basic Plan of Food, Agriculture, and Rural Areas (agricultural development)
	2016	Drought in Heisei 28; earthquake in Kumamoto (estimated death toll and injured: 267 people, including related deaths)	
	2017	Heavy rainfall in the northern part of Kyusyu (estimated death toll: 40 persons)	
	2018	Heavy rainfall in July (Nishi–Nippon heavy rainfall) (estimated death toll: 263 people)	Climate Change Adaption Law (Law System)
Poiwa	2019	Typhoon Hagibis (Higashi Nihon Typhoon) (Death 105 Persons)	
Reiwa -	2020	Heavy rainfall in July (Death 84 Persons)	

TRANSLATION OF WATER RELATED ACTS AND LAWS

1. River Law (1997)

http://www.idi.or.jp/wp/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/RIVERE.pdf

2. Water Pollution Prevention Act

http://www.japaneselawtranslation.go.jp/law/detail/?vm=04&re=01&id=2815

3. Soil Contamination Countermeasure Act

http://www.japaneselawtranslation.go.jp/law/detail/?id=2038&vm=04&re=01

4. Sewerage Act

http://www.japaneselawtranslation.go.jp/law/detail/?id=2810&vm=04&re=01

5. Climate Change Adaptation Act

http://www.japaneselawtranslation.go.jp/law/detail_main?re=01&vm=04&id=3212

6. Environmental Impact Assessment Act

http://www.japaneselawtranslation.go.jp/law/detail/?id=3375&vm=&re=

7. National Spatial Planning Act

https://www.cas.go.jp/jp/seisaku/hourei/data/Plan_2.pdf

8. Basic Environment Act

http://www.env.go.jp/en/laws/policy/basic/index.html

9. Law Concerning the Promotion of the Measures to Cope with Global Warming

http://www.env.go.jp/en/laws/global/warming.html

10. Basic Law on the Water Cycle

http://arjamalev2012.blog.fc2.com/blog-entry-102.html

11. Water Supply Service Act

https://libopac.jica.go.jp/images/report/12285276.pdf

12. Technical Criteria for River Works: Practical Guide for Planning

http://www.nilim.go.jp/lab/bcg/siryou/tnn/tnn0519.htm

Source:

1. Infrastructure Development Institute-Japan

2. to 6. Japanese Law Translation

7. Cabinet Secretariat

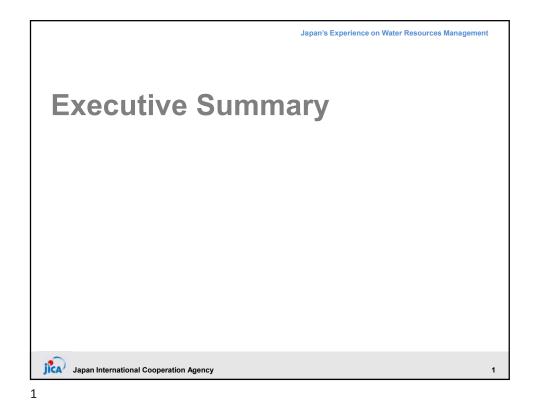
8. and 9. Ministry of Environment

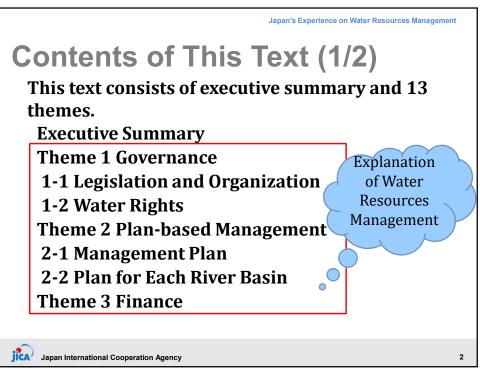
10. English Translation of Medical Law Reading Group

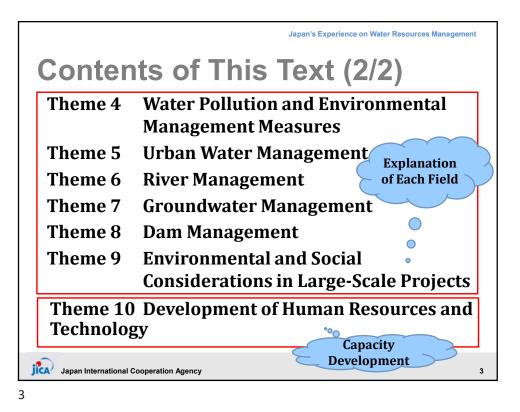
11. Japan's Experience on Water Supply Development (JICA)

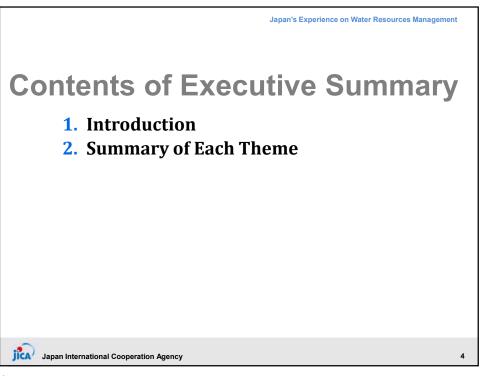
12. Public Works Research Institute

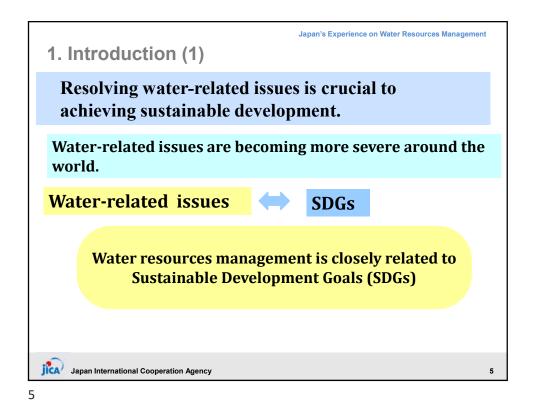
PRESENTATION SLIDE

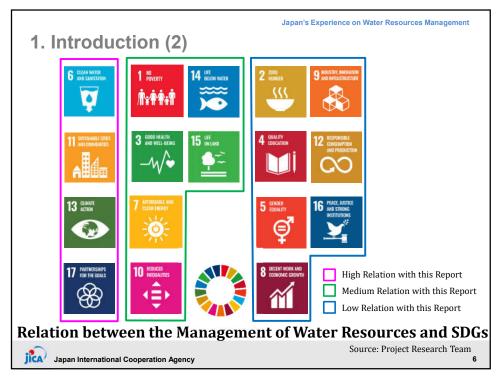


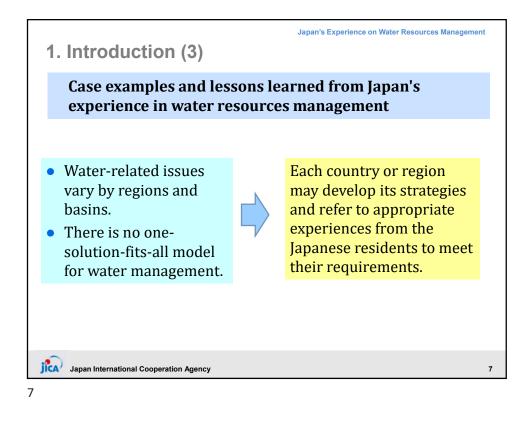


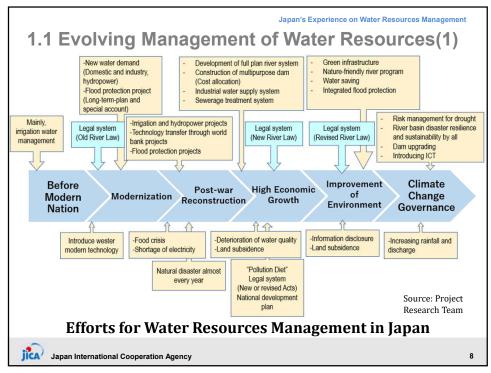


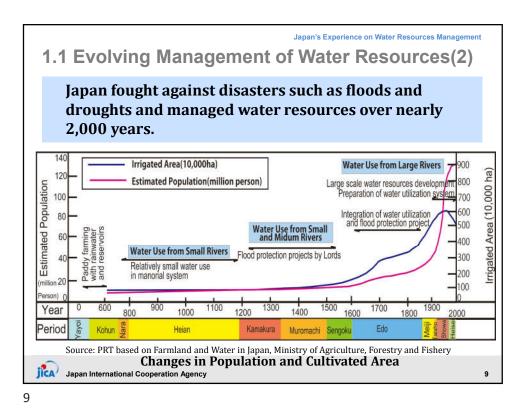


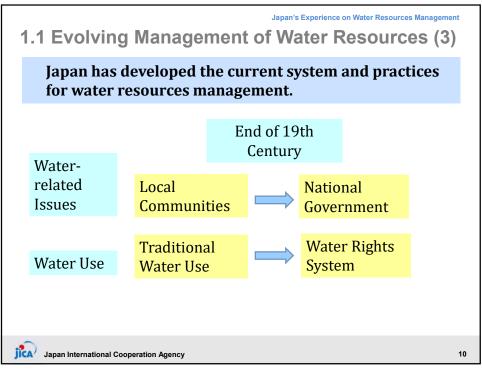


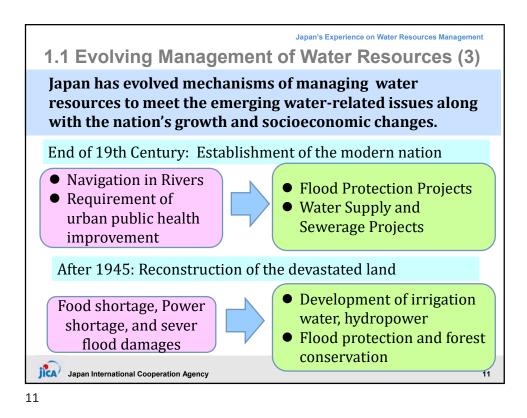


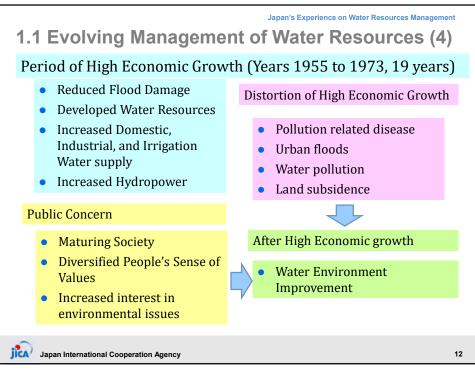


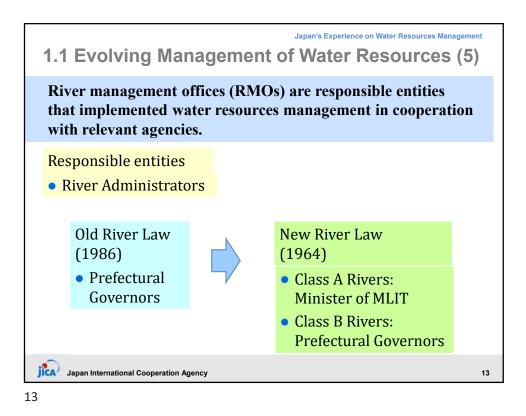


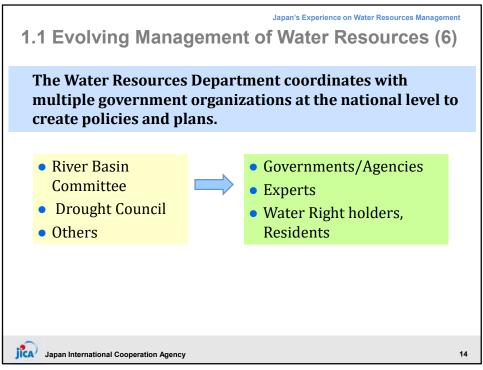


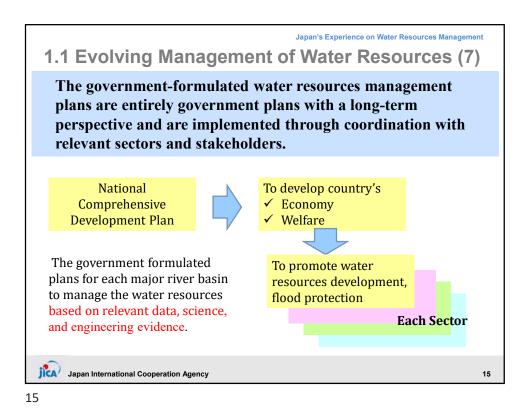


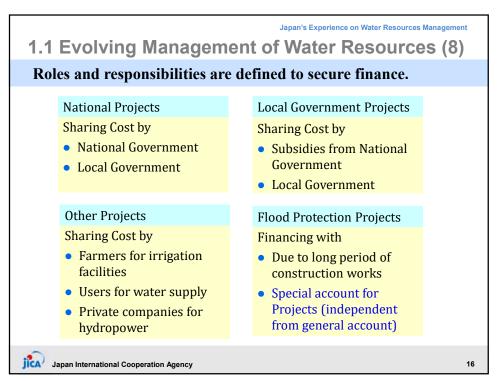


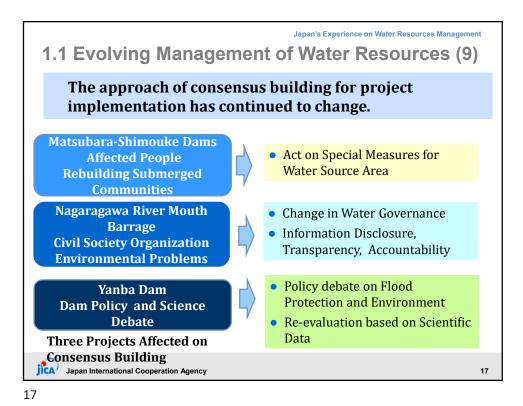


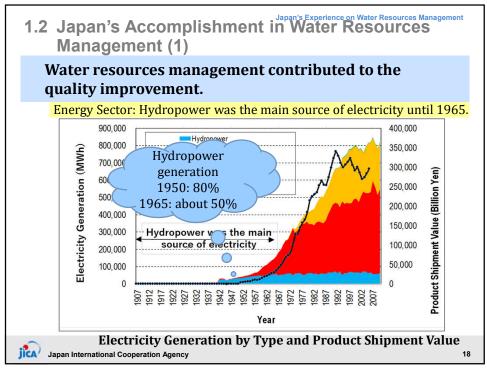


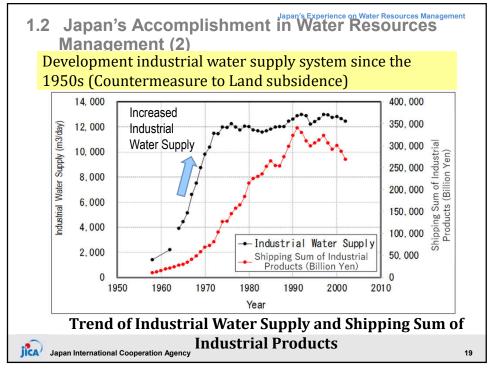




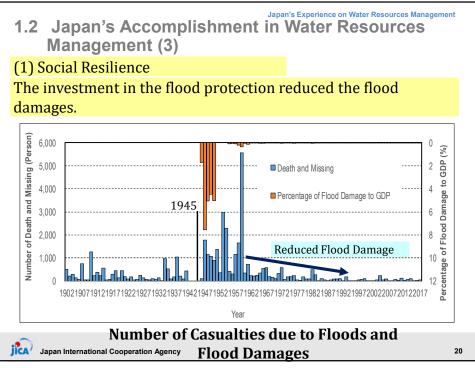


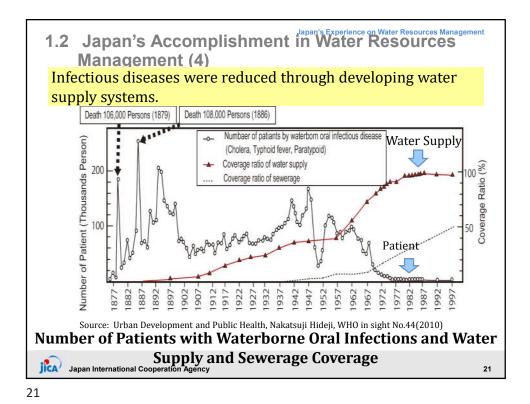


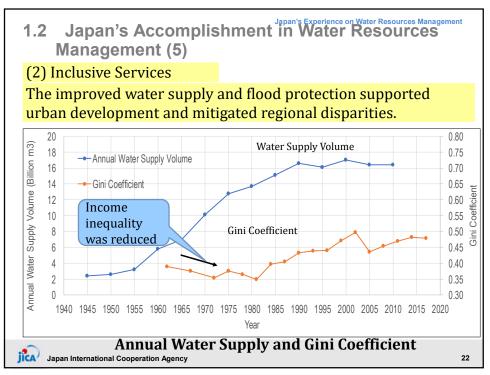


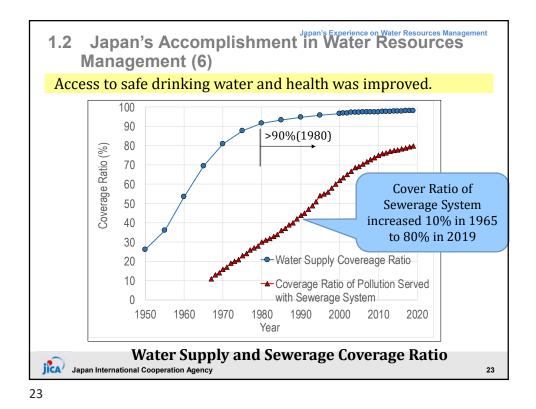


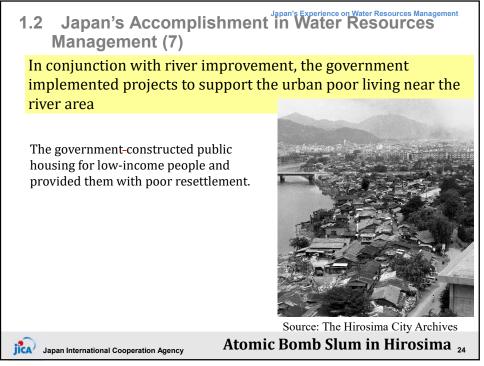


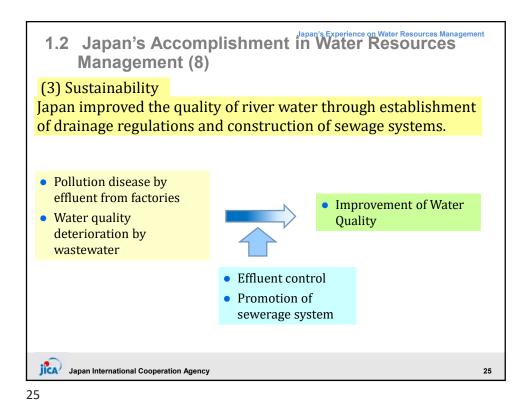


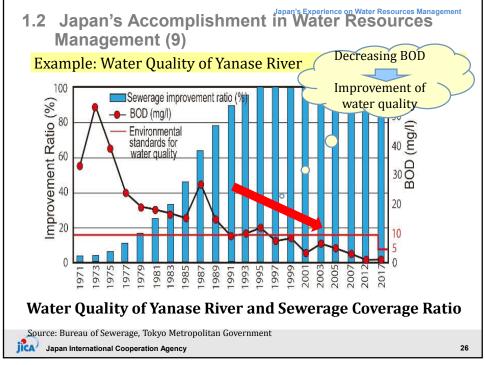


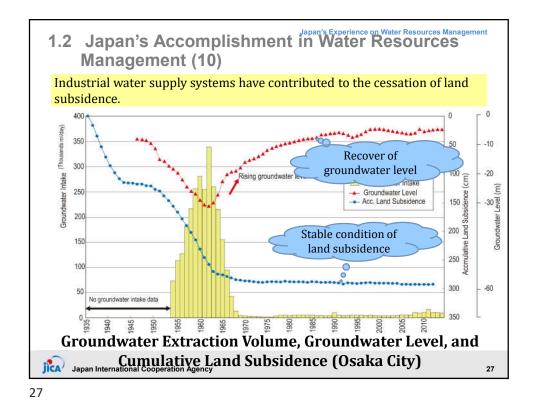


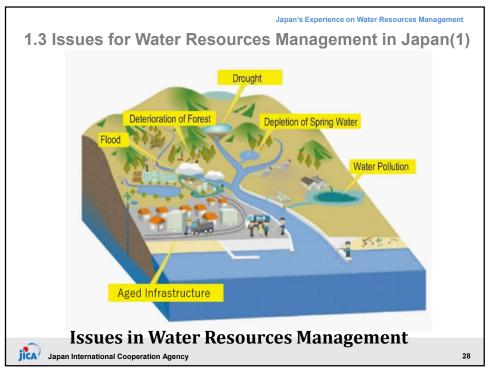


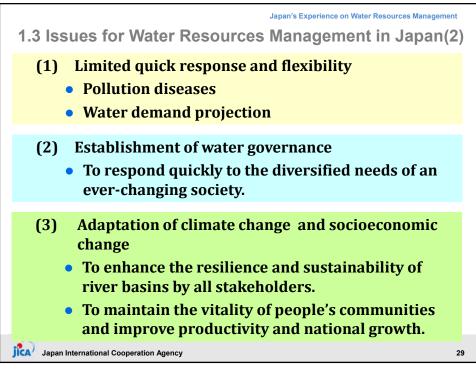




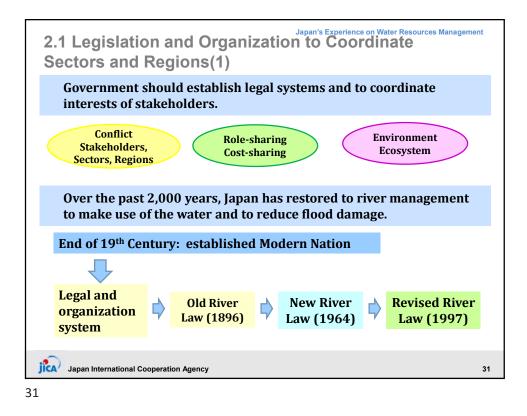


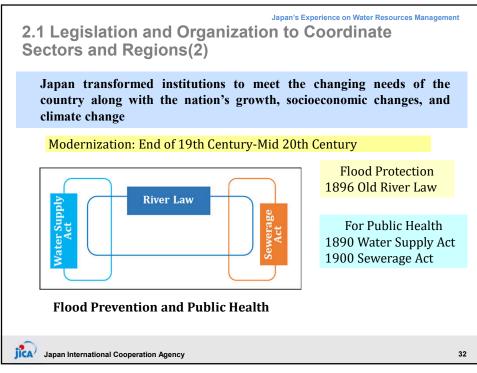


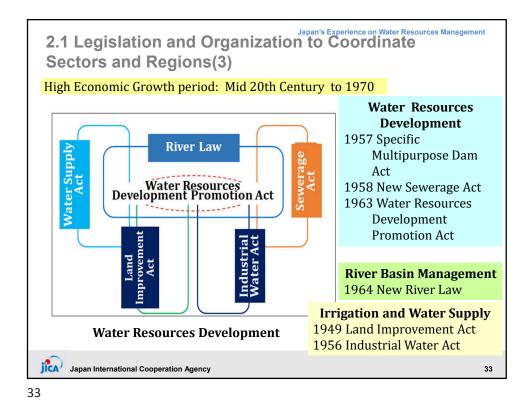


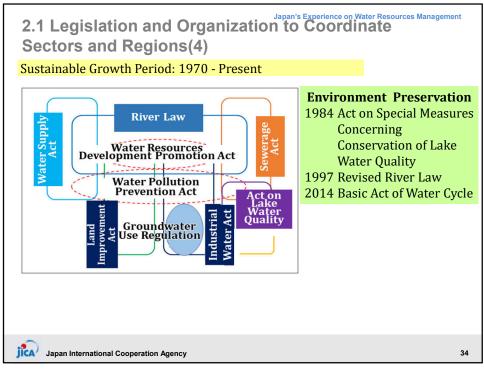


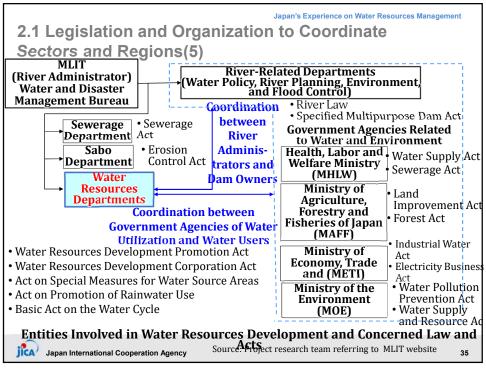
Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management				
2. Outline of Each Theme				
Theme		Flood Protection	Water Use	Environ- ment
1. Governance	1-1 Legislation and Organization	0	0	0
	1-2 Water Rights		0	0
	1-3 Public Participation and Decision-Making Process	0	0	0
2. Plan-based	2-1 Development Plan	0	0	0
Management	2-2 Plan for Each River Basin	0	0	0
3. Finance			0	0
4. Water Pollution and Environmental Management Measures				0
5. Urban Water Management		0	0	0
6. River Management		0	0	0
7. Groundwater Management			0	0
8. Dam Management		0	0	0
9. Environmental and Social Considerations for Large-Scale Projects				0
10. Development of Human Resources and Technology		0	0	0
Japan International Cooperation Agency Note: "O" indicates there is description in the Theme.				30



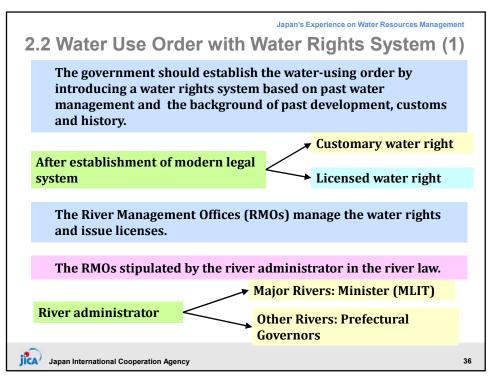


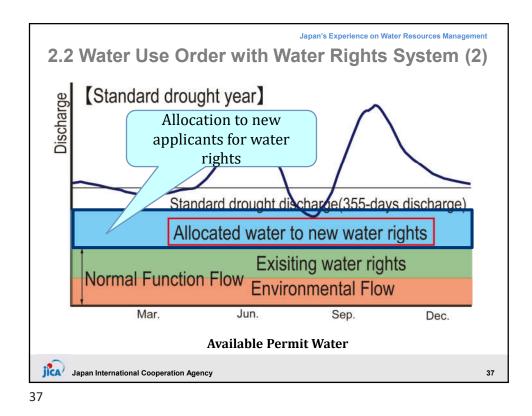


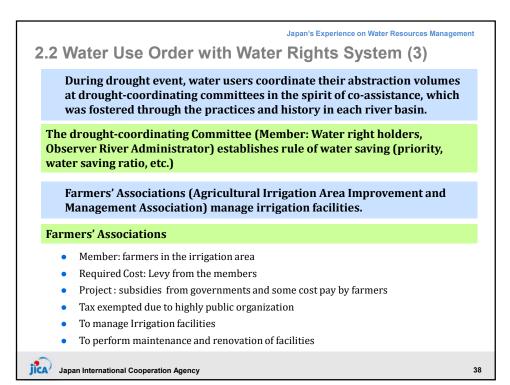


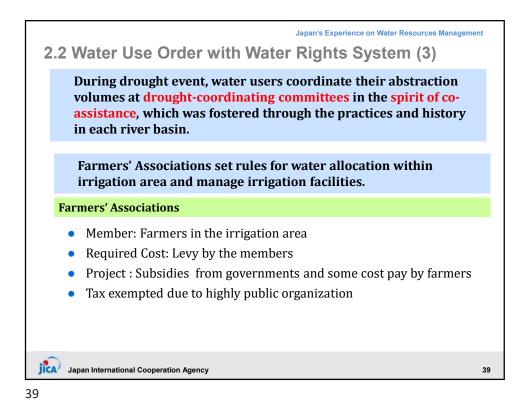


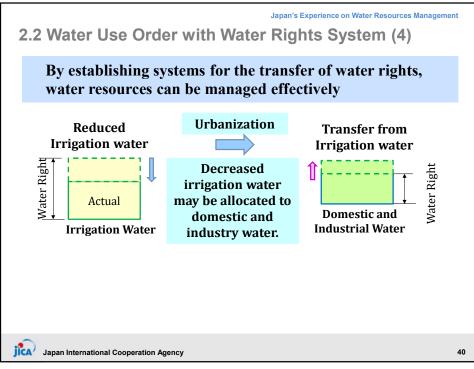


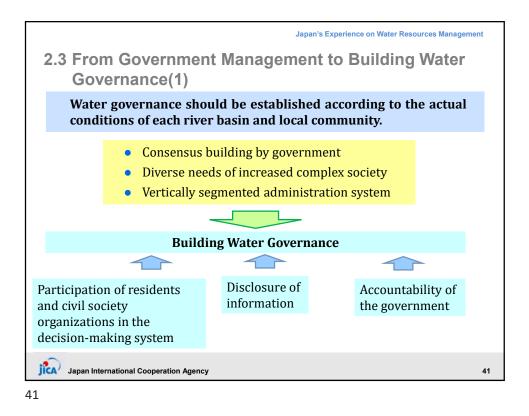


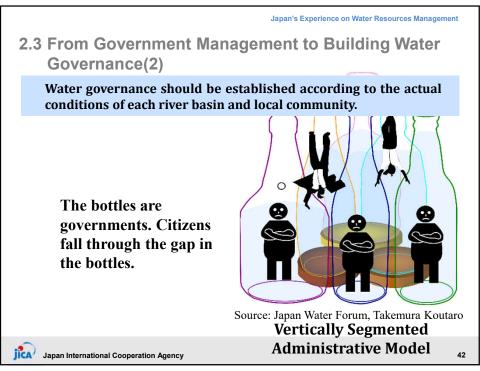


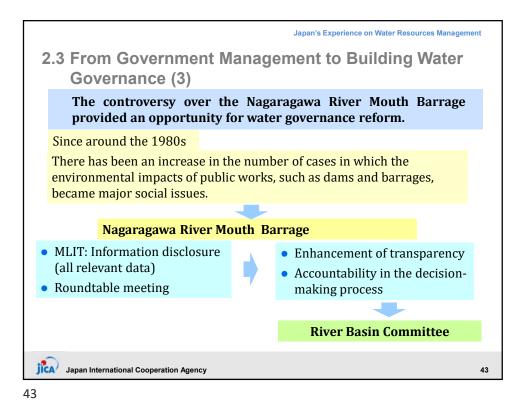


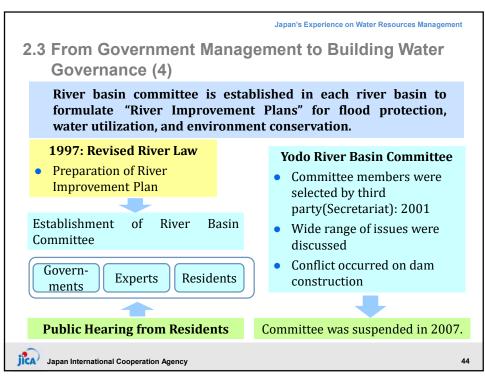


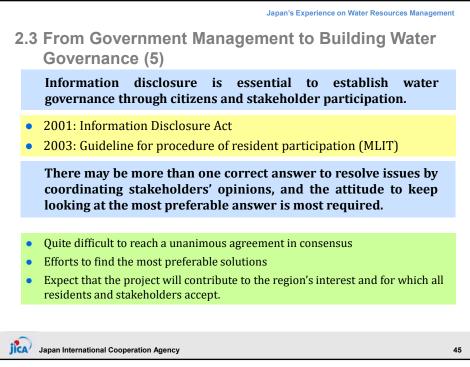


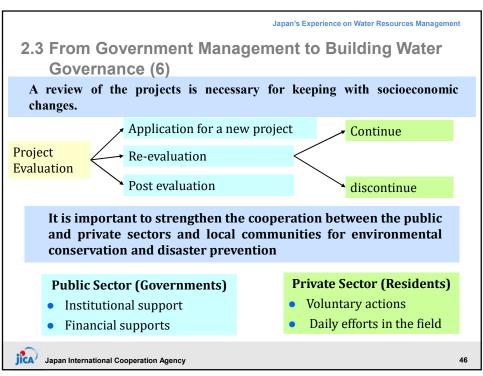


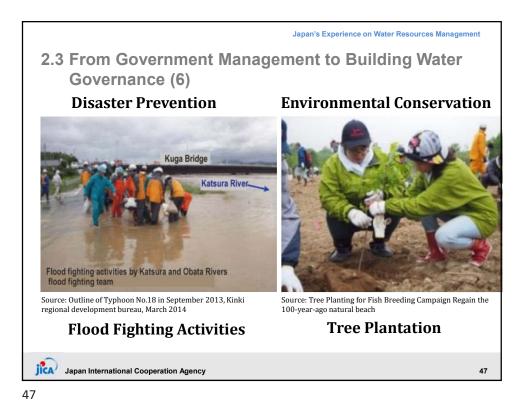


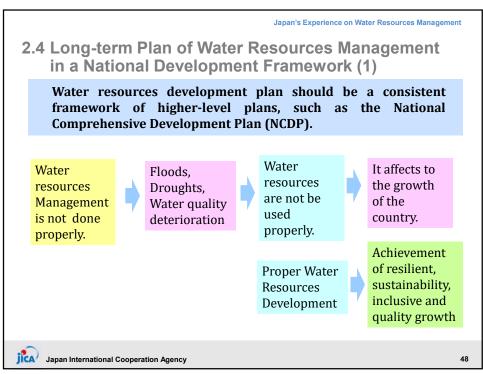




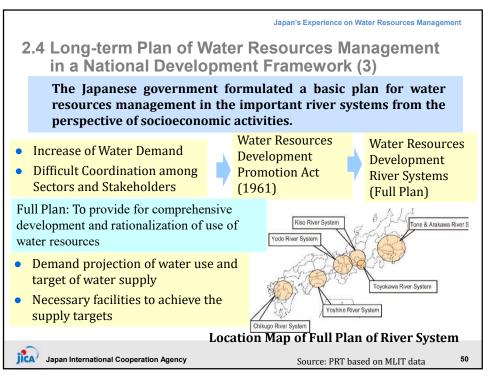


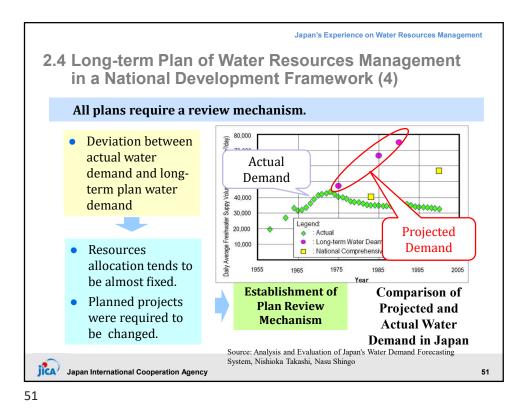


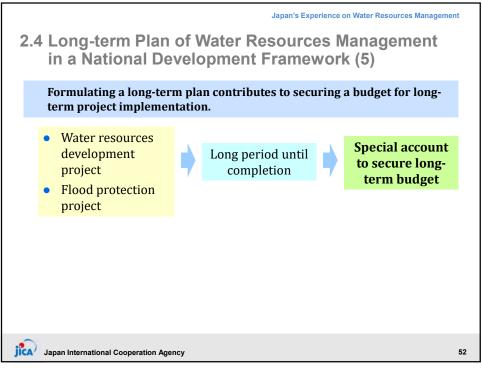


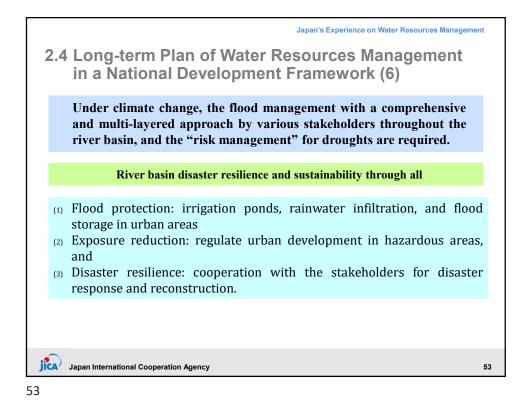


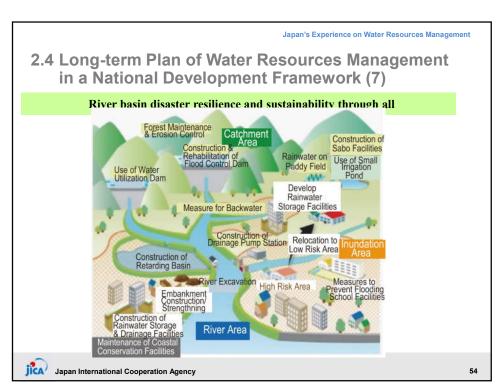


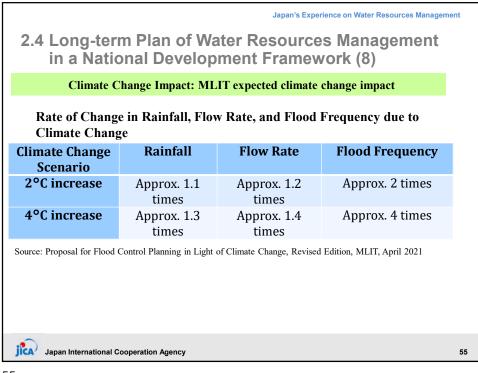


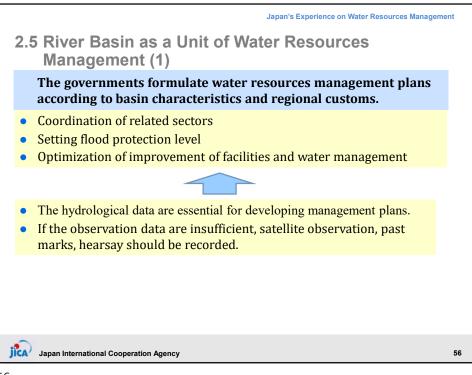


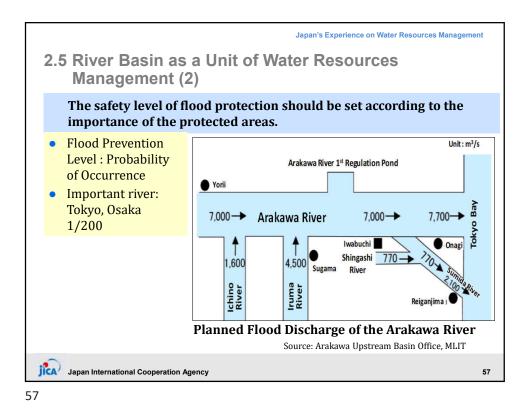


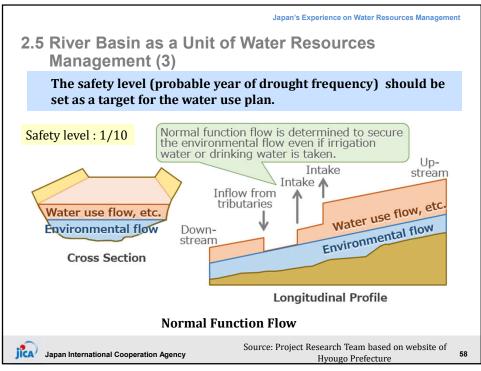


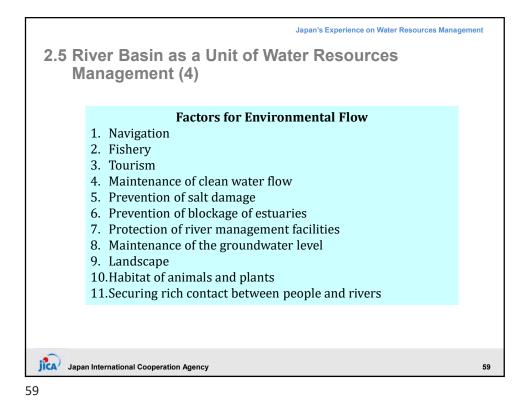


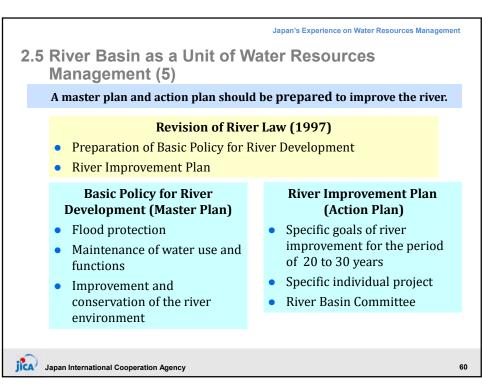


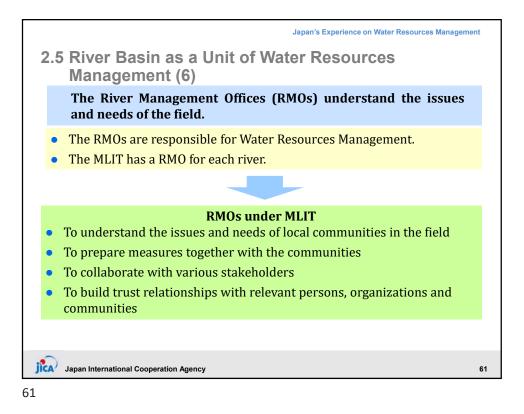


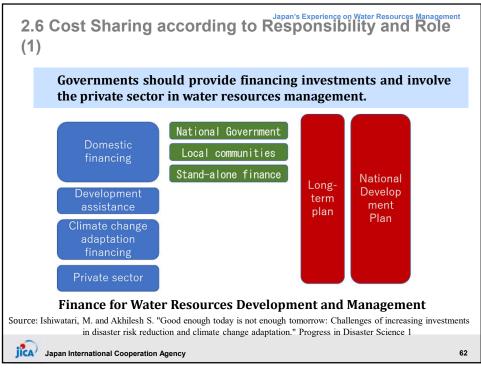


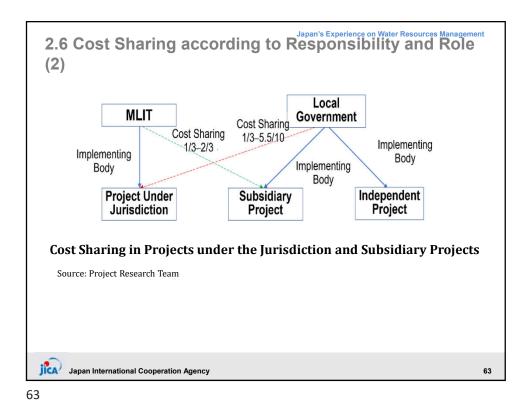


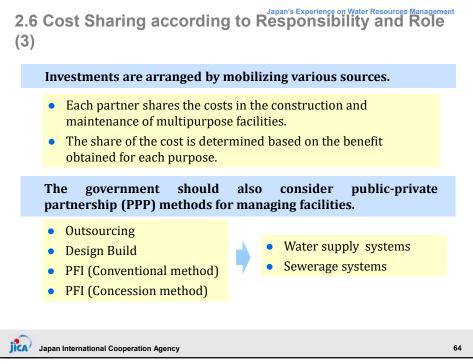


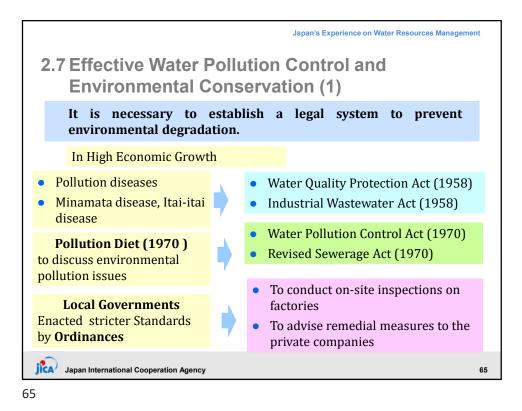


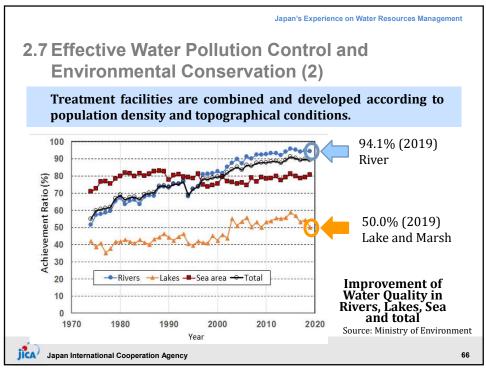


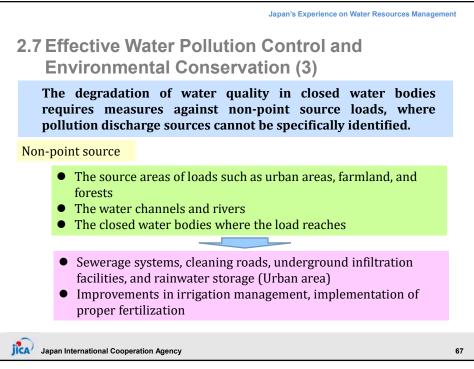




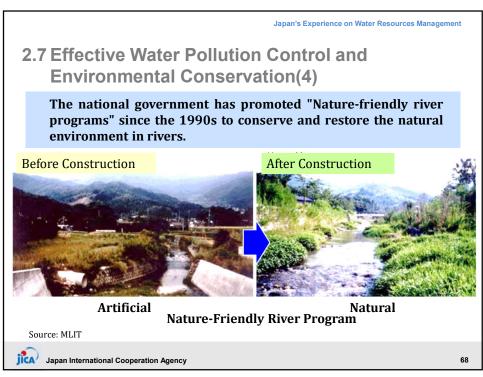


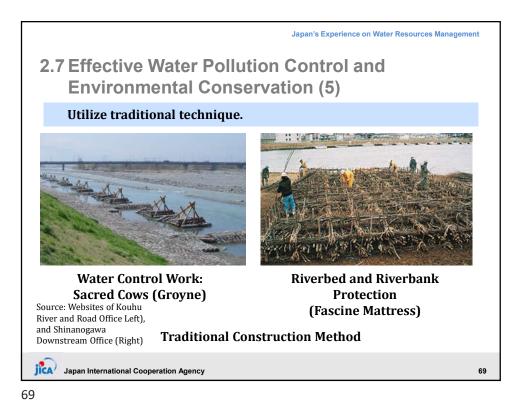


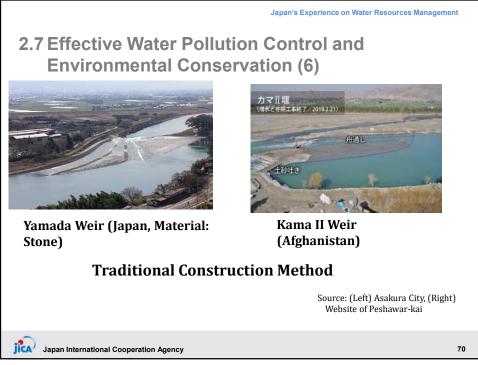


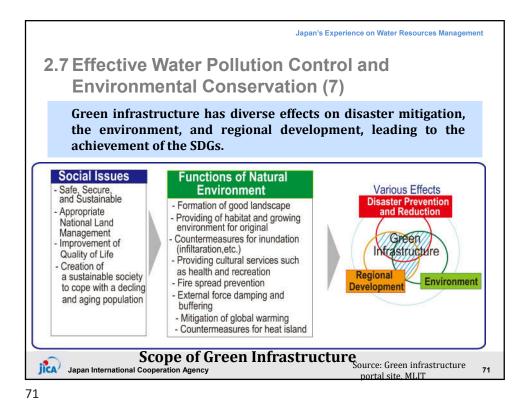




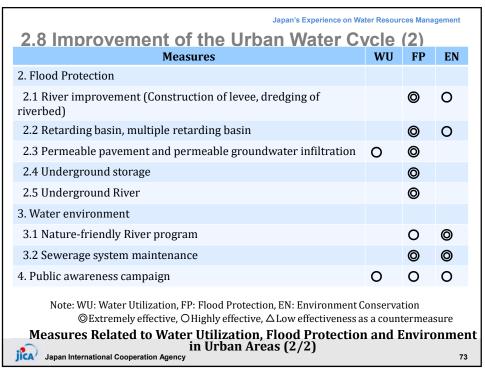


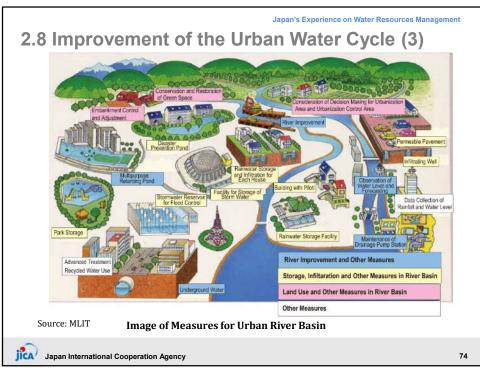


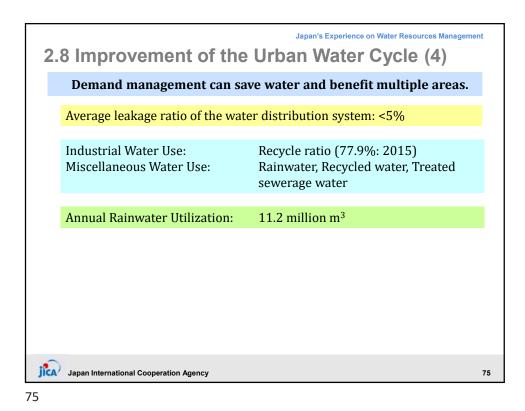


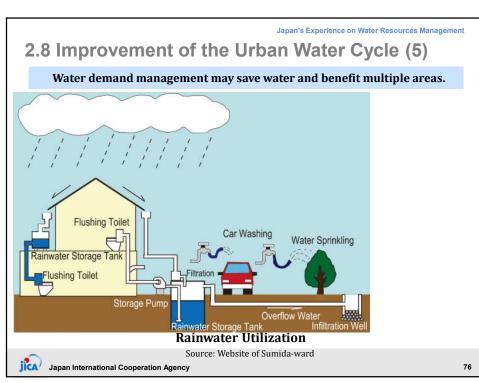


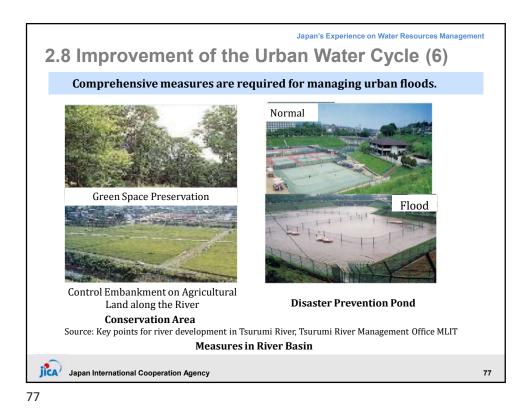
Japan's Experience on W 2.8 Improvement of the Urban Water C			gement
The water cycle should be restored to coexis environment to ensure water utilization, flood p environmental conservation.			
Measures	WU	FP	EN
1. Water Utilization			
1.1 Water fee system	0		
1.2 Water-saving tap	0		
1.3 Reduction of non-revenue water rate	0		
1.4 Rainwater harvesting (water use)	O	0	
1.5 Recycled water use	0		
1.6 Sewerage high-treatment water use	O		0
1.7 Use of recovered water for industrial use	0		
1.8 Seawater desalination Note: WU: Water Utilization, FP: Flood Protection, EN: Environmer ©Extremely effective, ○Highly effective, △Low effectivenes			△ easure
Measures Related to Water Utilization, Flood Protectio in Urban Areas (1/2)			

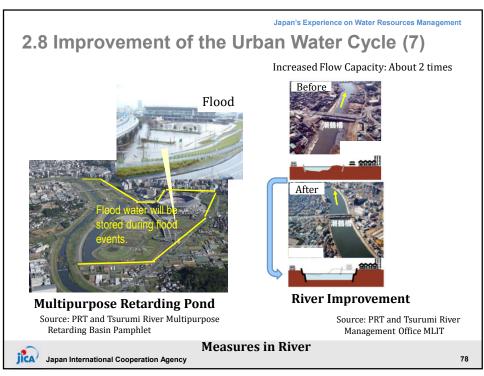


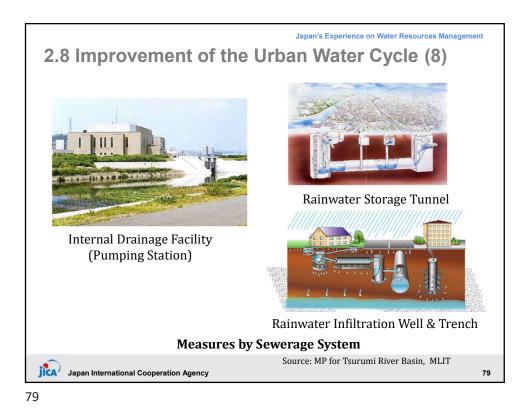


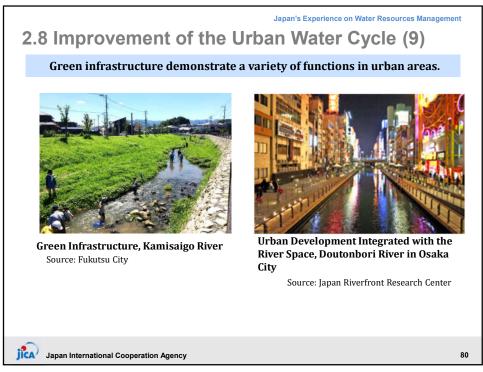


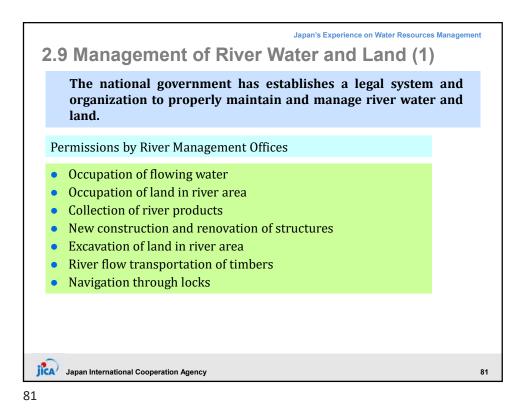


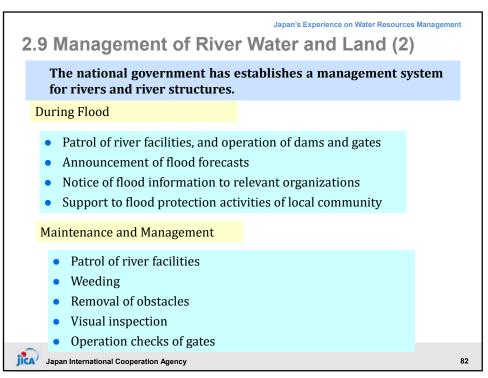


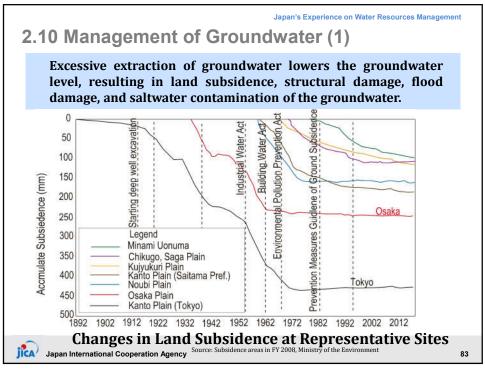




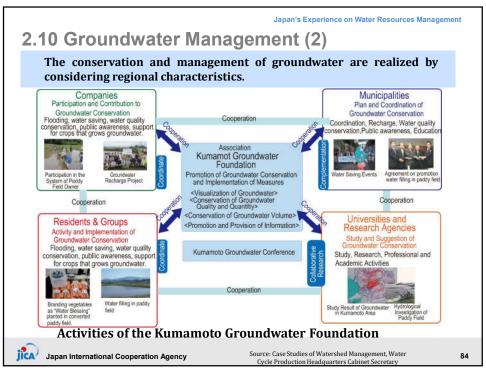


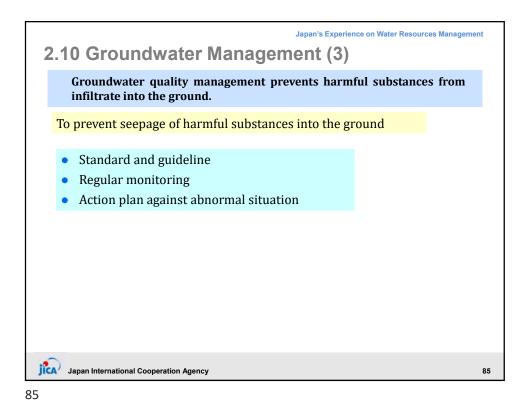




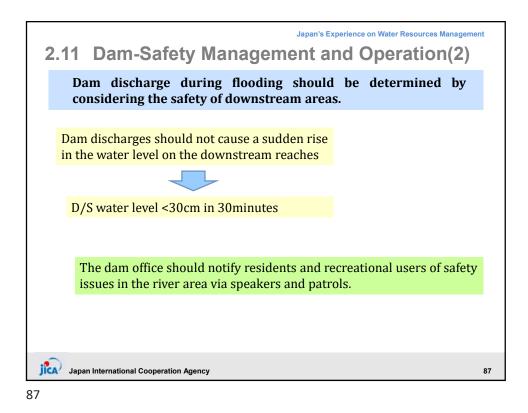


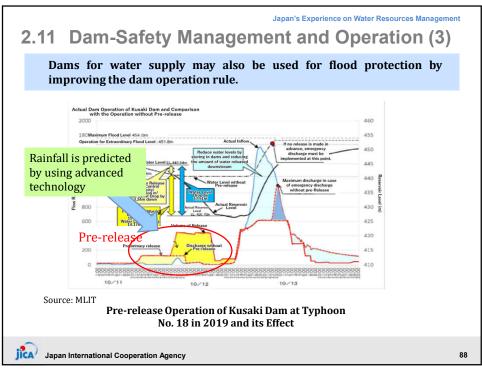


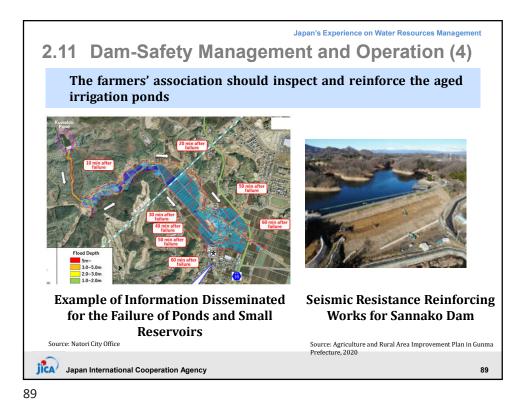


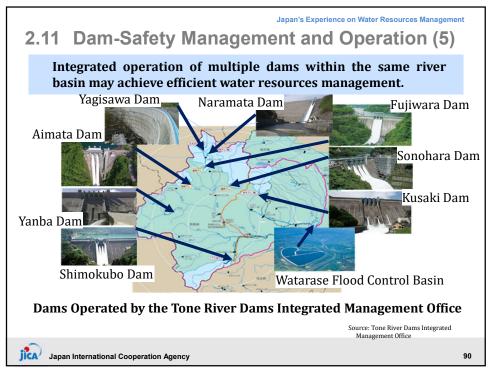


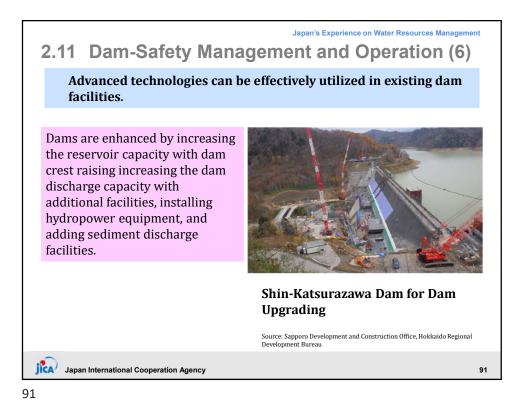
2.11 Dam-Safety Management and Operation (1) Because dam failure would cause damage to the downstream areas, strict dam construction and safety management processes are essential.					
Name of Dam	Year of Completion	Year of Accident	Type of Dam	Damages	
Iruka-ike	1633	1868	Earth fill dam for irrigation	941 dead	
Komoro Power Station	1927	1928	Buttress type concrete dam for hydropower	5 dead	
Horonai Dam	1939	1941	Gravity type concrete dam for hydropower	60 dead	
Heiwa-ike	1949	1951	Earth fill dam for irrigation	75 dead	
Yoake Dam	1952	1953	Gravity type concrete dam for hydropower	No damage	
Taisyo-ike	1949?	1953	Earthfill dam for irrigation	105 dead	
Wachi Dam	1968	1967	Gravity type concrete dam for hydropower	1 dead	
Fujinuma Dam	1949	2011	Earthfill dam for irrigation	8 dead/missing	
	documents of No	o. 21 Expert n	eeting on future policy and concept	of flood managemer	
Japan International Co	ooperation Agency			80	

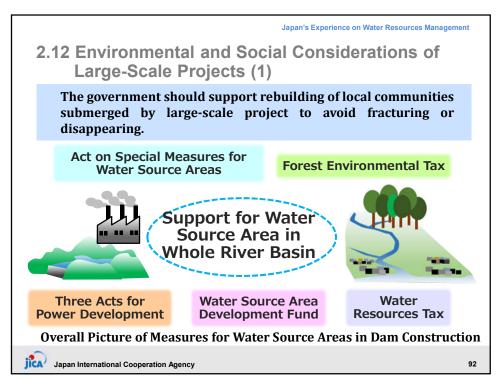






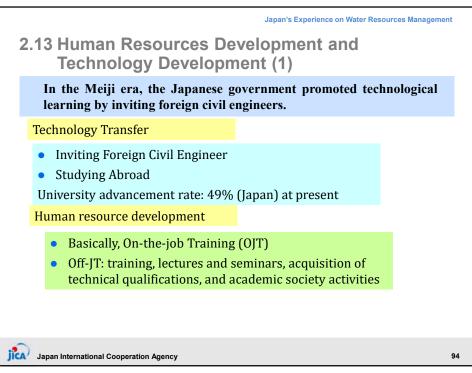


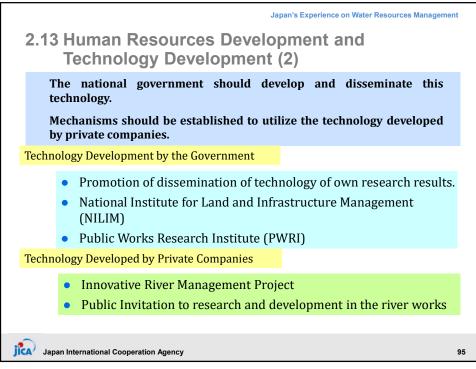


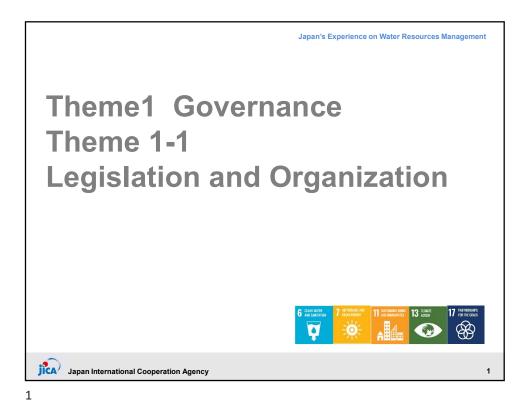


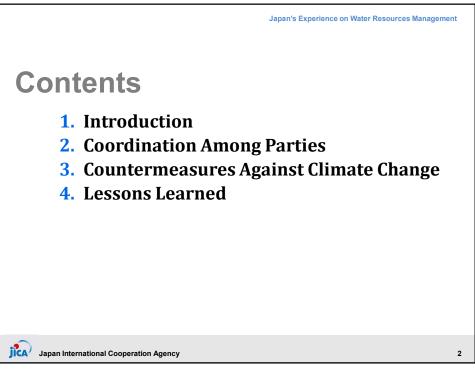


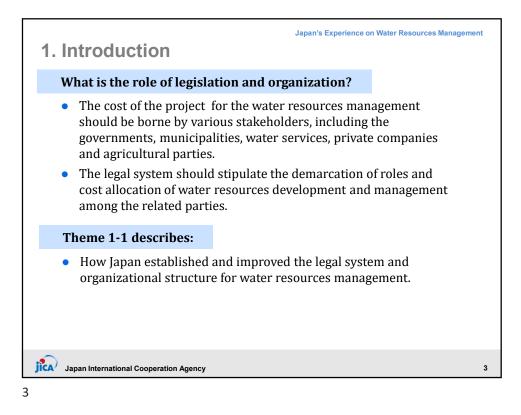


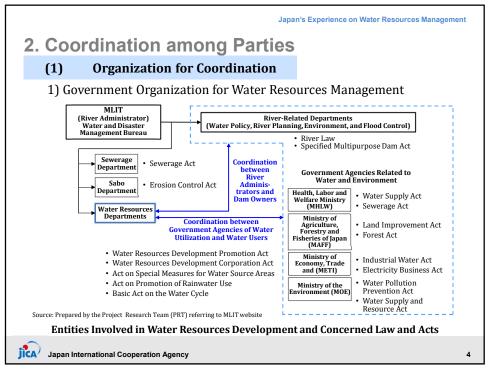


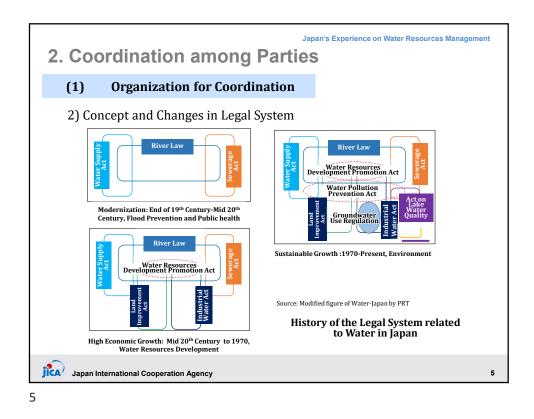






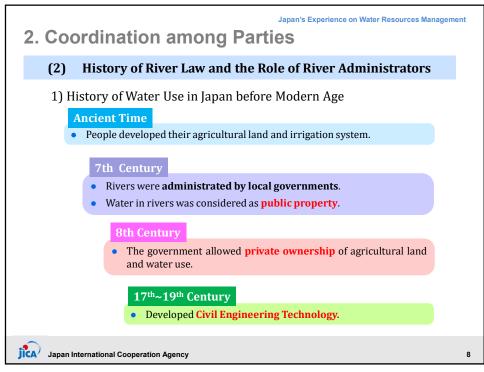




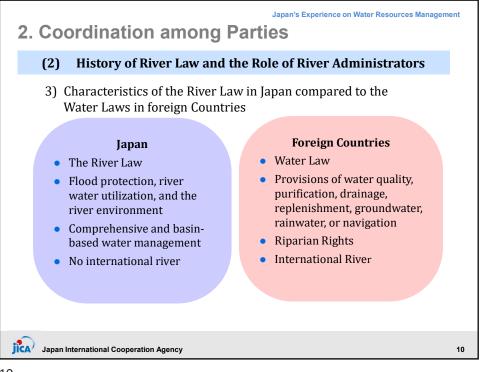


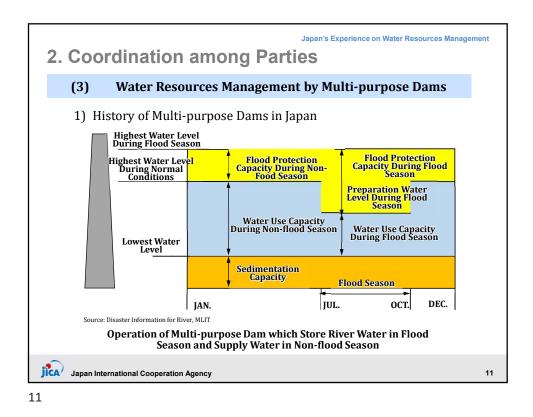
2. Coordir	Japan's Experience on Water Resources Manage	ment
(1) Org	ganization for Coordination	
3) Concept	and Changes in the Legal System	
La	w and Acts which Contributed to Water Resources Management	
Year	Law and Act	
1986	Old River Law	
1957	Specific Multi-Purpose Dams Act	
1961	Water Resources Development Promotion Act	
1961	Water Resources Development Corporation Act	
1964	New River Law	
1997	Revised River Law	
2014	Basic Act on the Water Cycle	
Japan Internationa	al Cooperation Agency	6

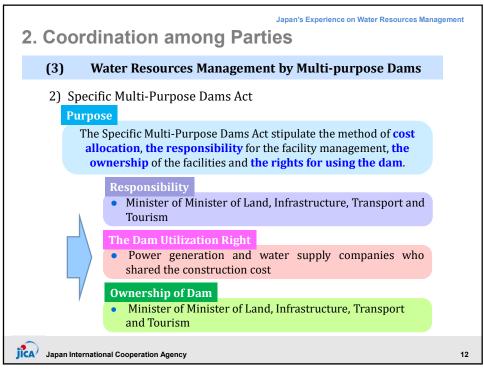


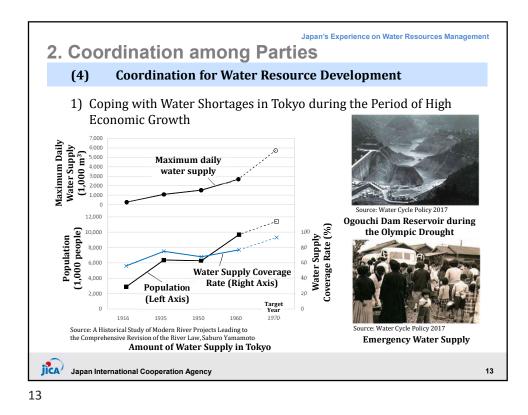


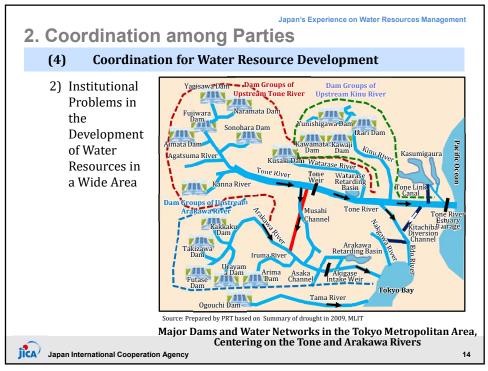


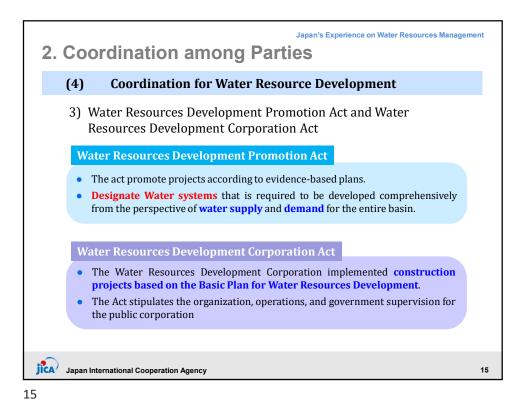


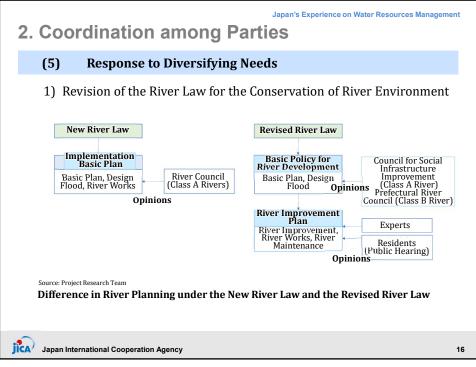


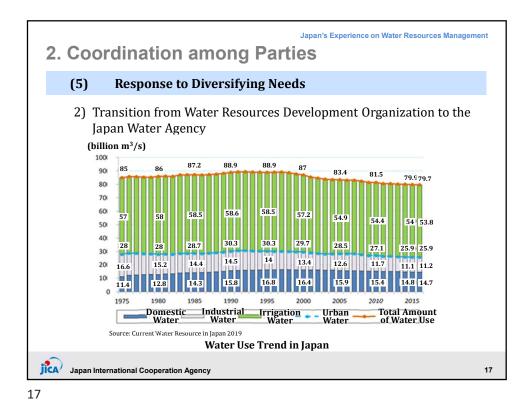


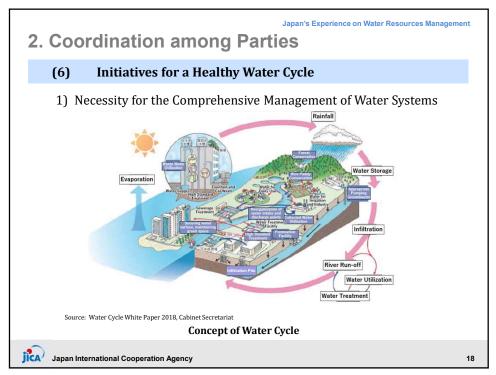


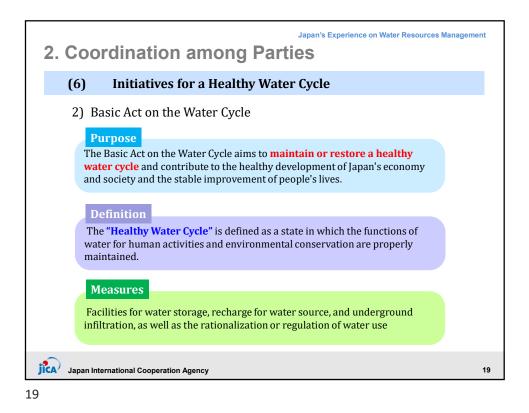


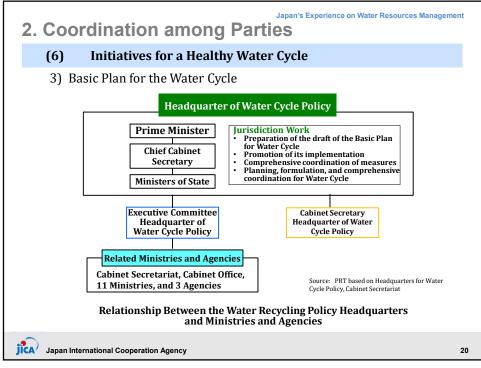


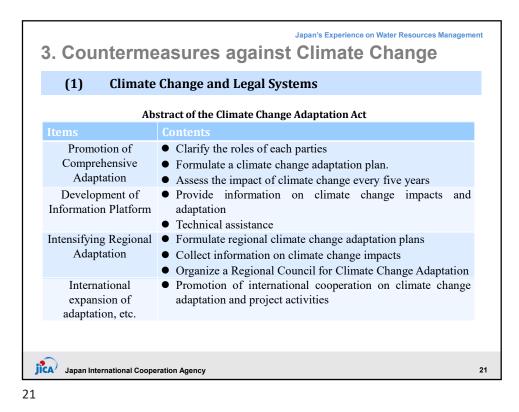




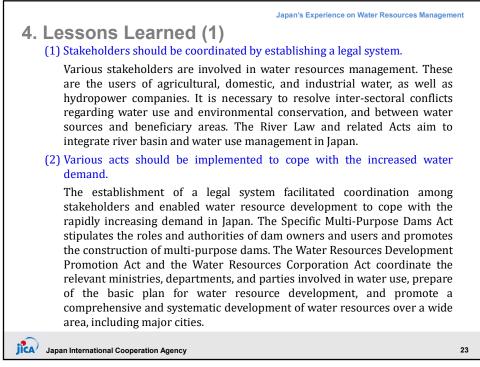


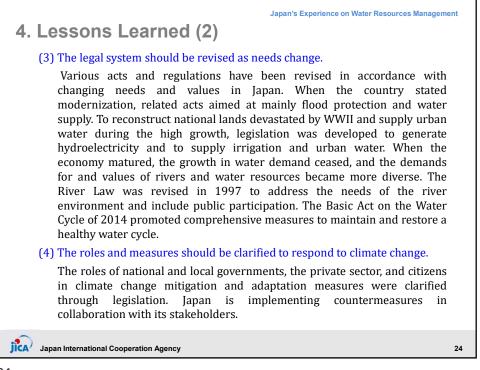


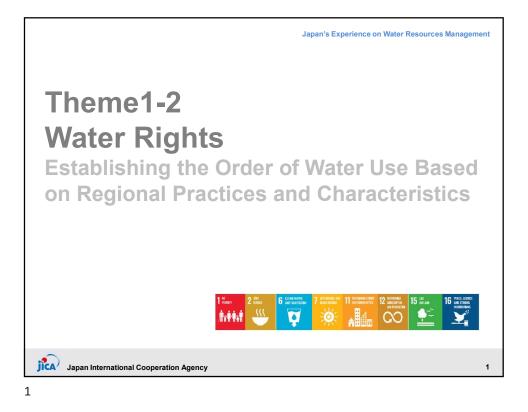


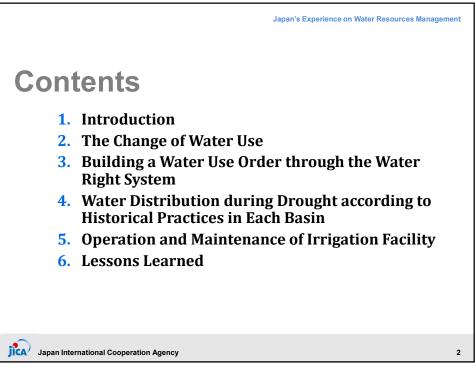


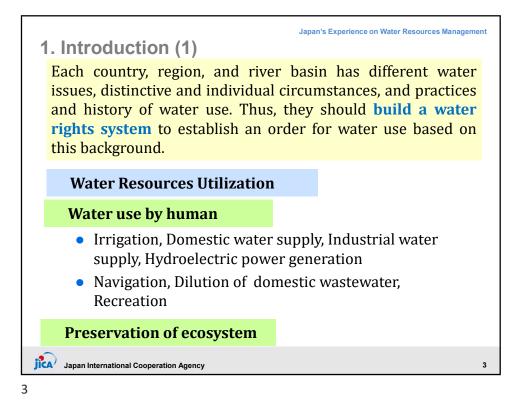
3. Counte	ermeasur	Japan's Experience on Water Resources Managem es against Climate Change	ent			
(2) In	npacts of Clim	nate Change on the Water Resources				
Impacts of Climate Change on the Water Resources and Disaster Departments in Japan						
Department	Evaluation	Impacts				
Water Resources	Current Evaluation Future Prediction	Drought, shortage of irrigation water, shrinking freshwater lenses on small islands Worsening of drought, increase in river flow, shortage of agricultural water, saltwater intrusion, increasing polarization of drought and flood risk, increase in slope failure				
Disaster	Current Evaluation Future Prediction	Upward trend in sea level, large-scale complex disasters, changes in typhoon intensity and path increase in insurance payments due to natural disasters Increase in extraordinary rainfall, number of affected people, rising sea level, and storm surge	,			
Jica Japan Internatio	nal Cooperation Agenc	sy	2			

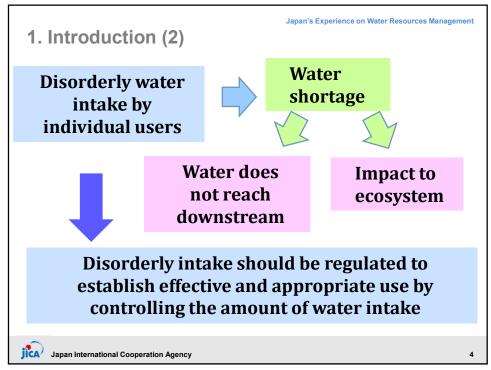


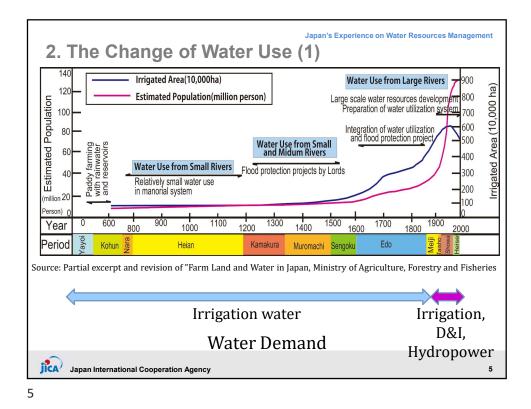


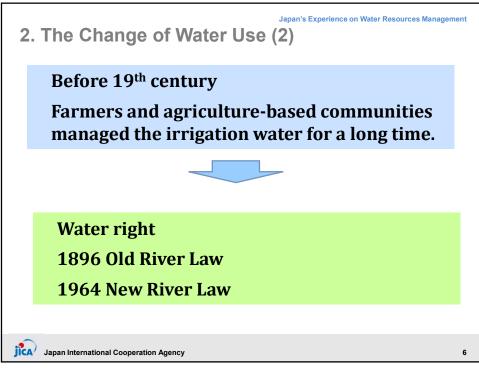


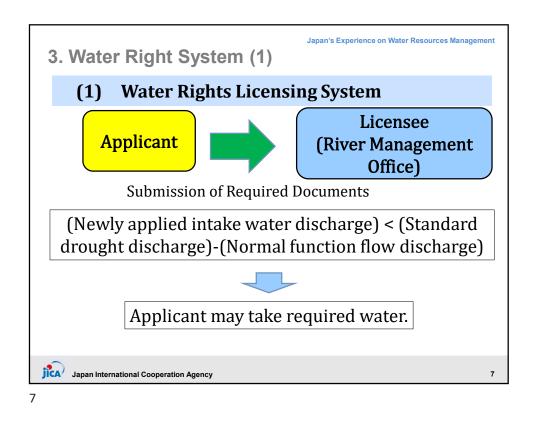


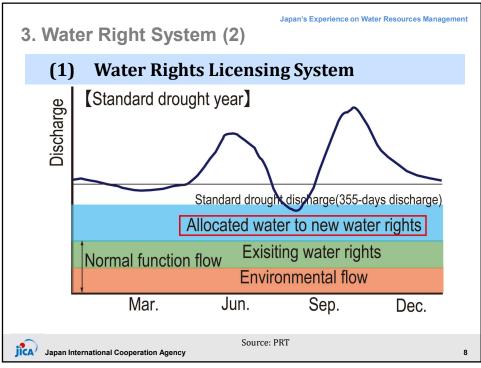


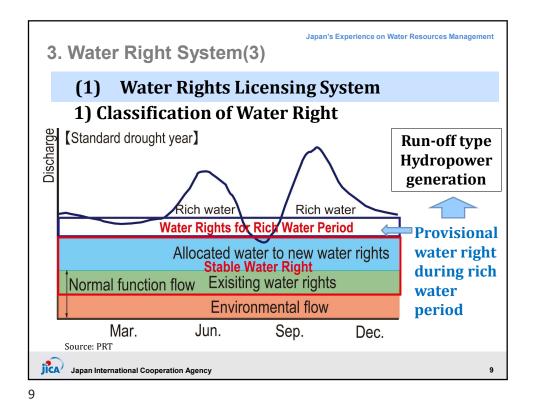


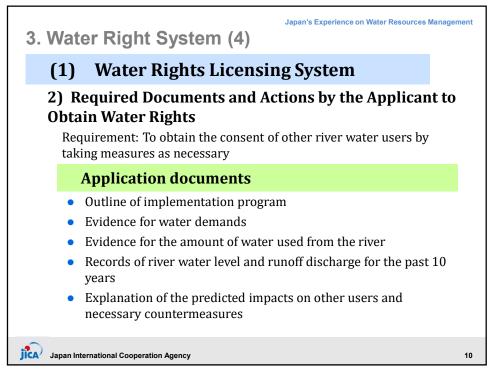


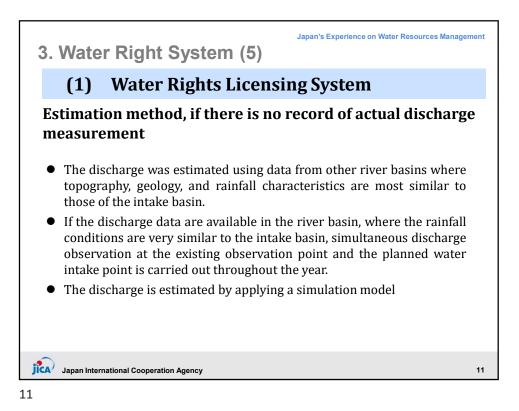


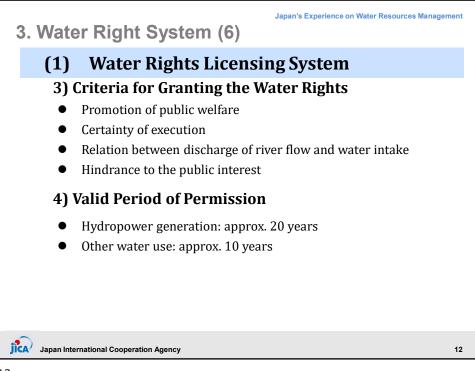


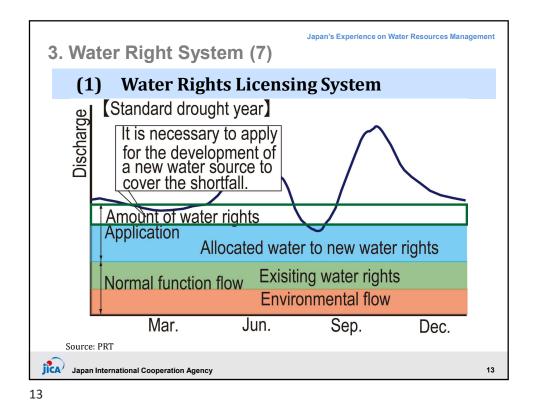


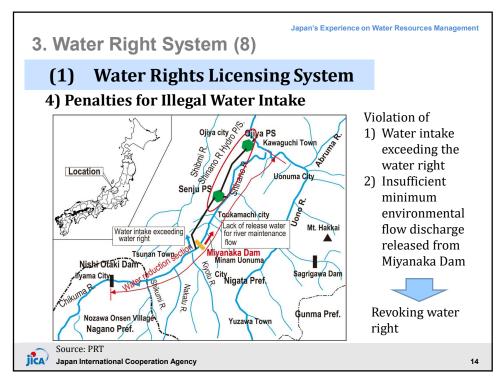


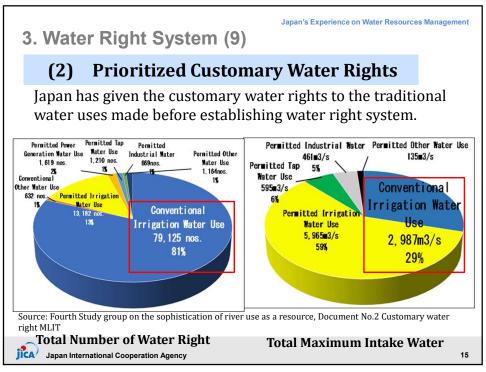


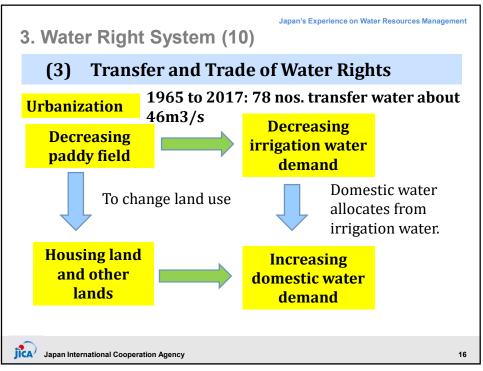


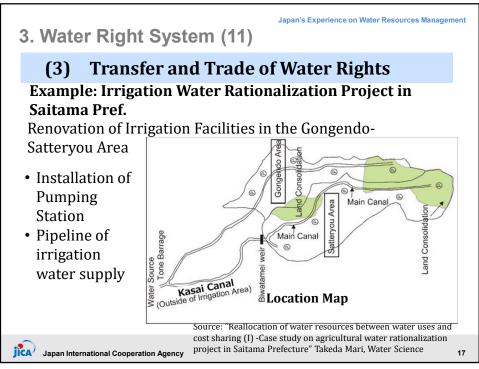




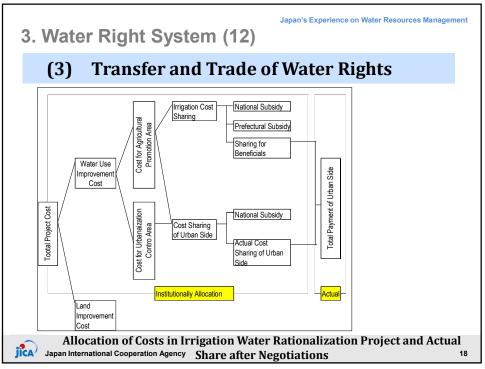


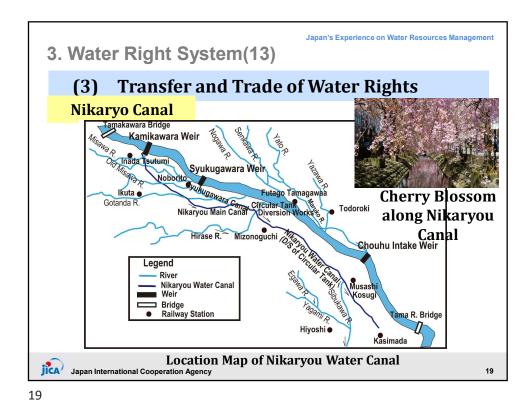


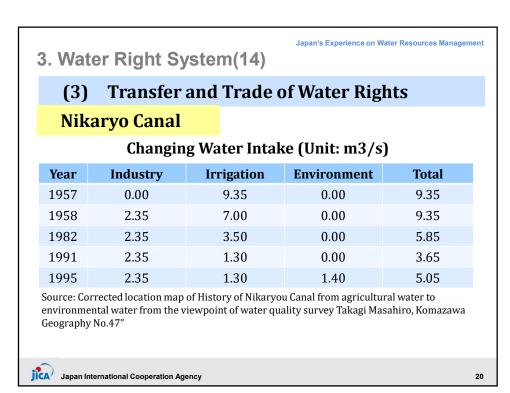


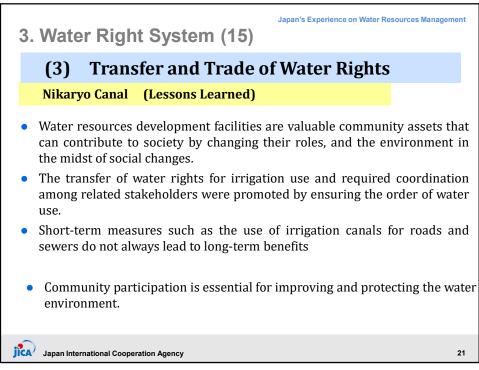


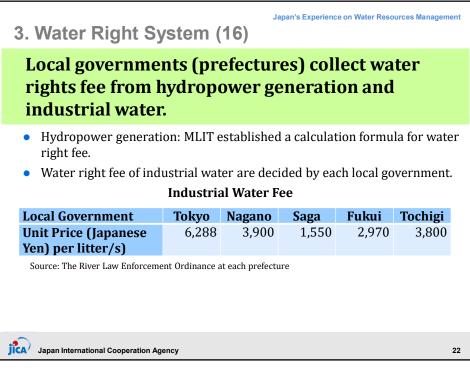


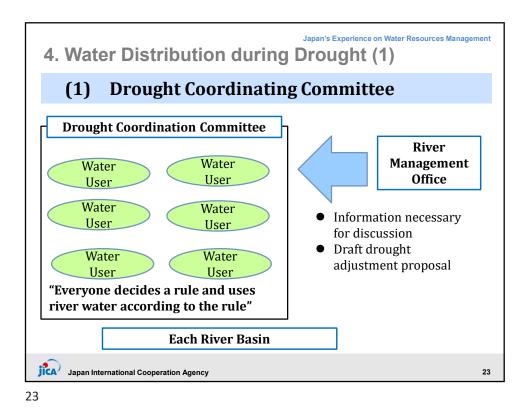


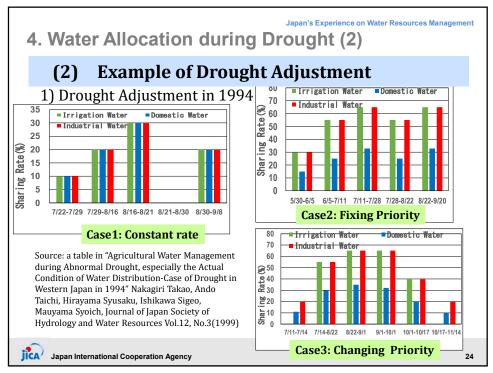


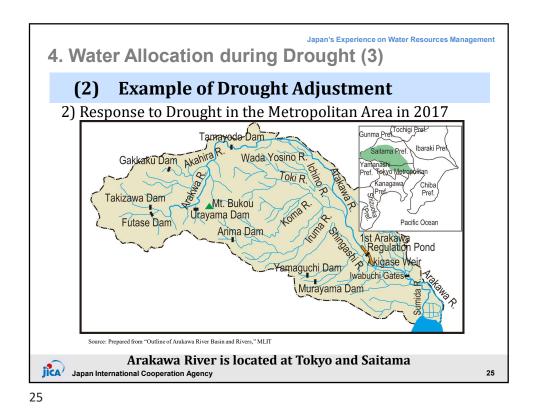


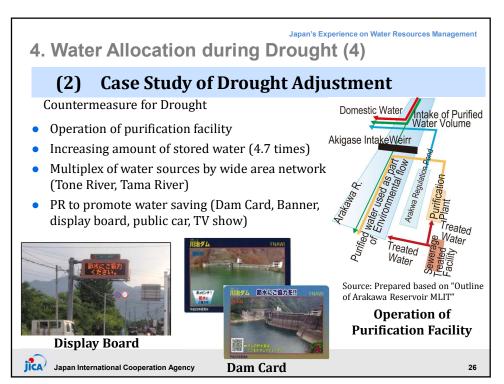


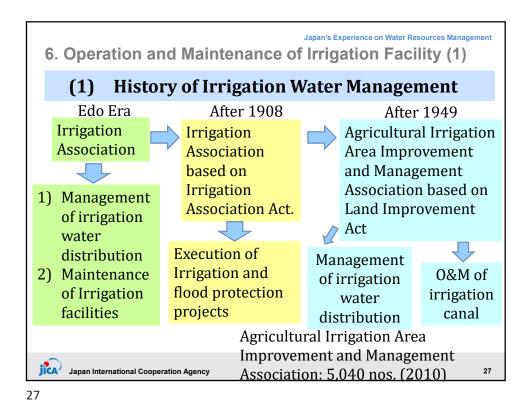


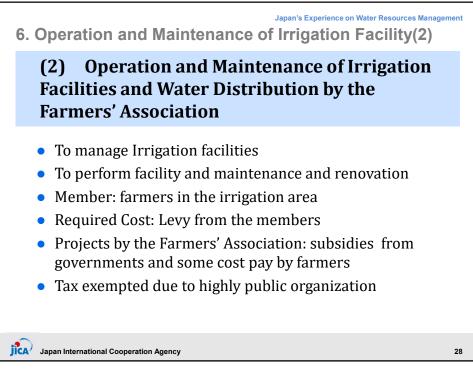


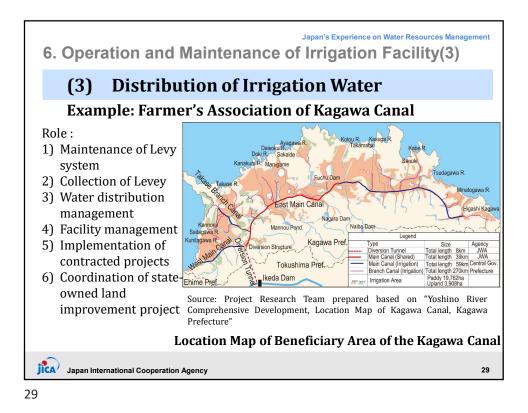


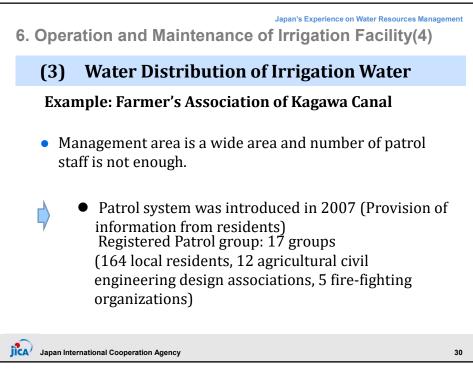


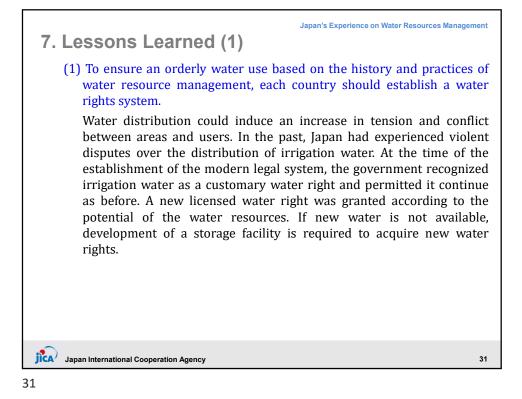


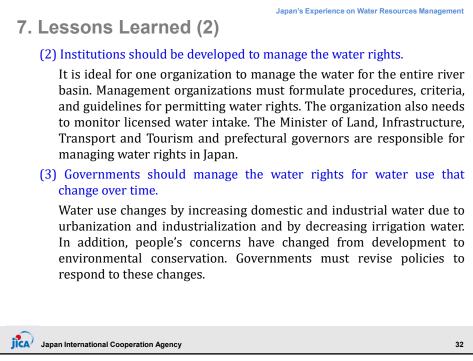


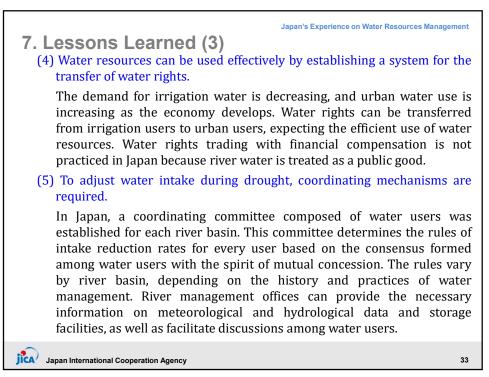


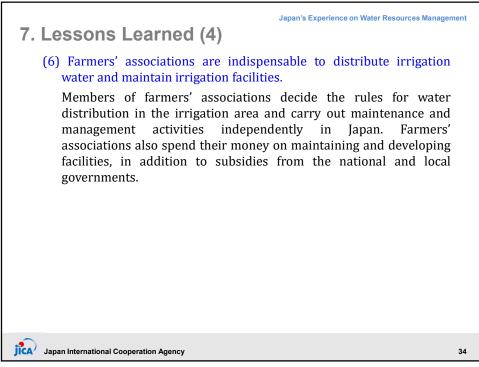


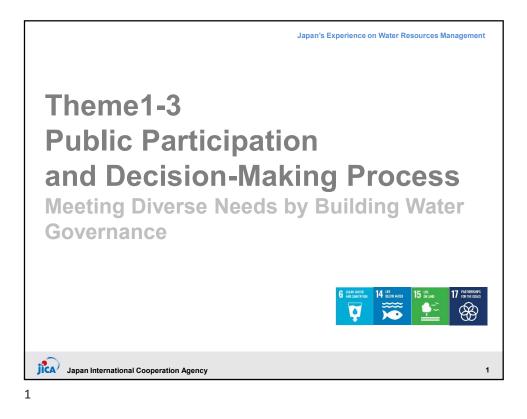


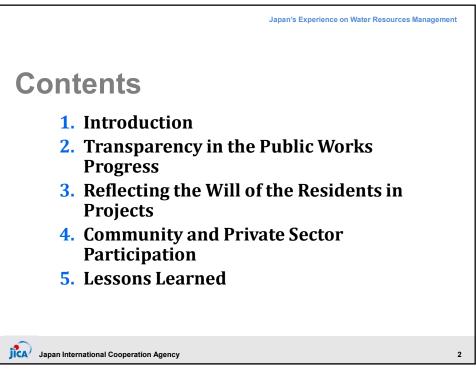


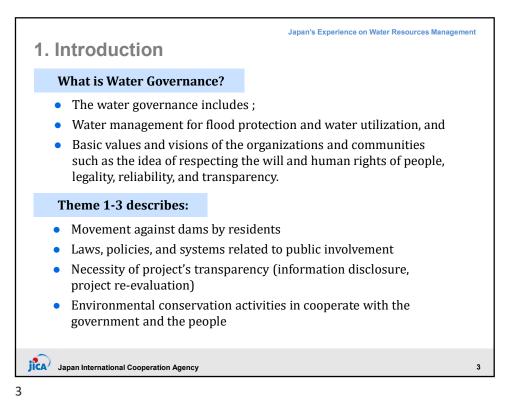


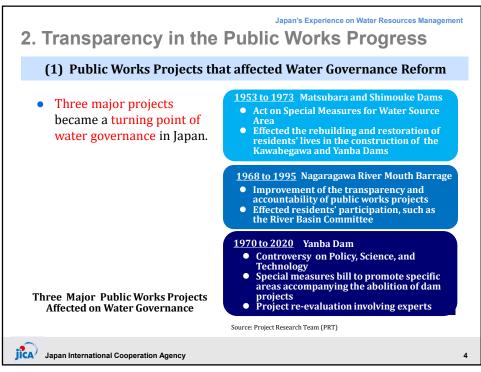


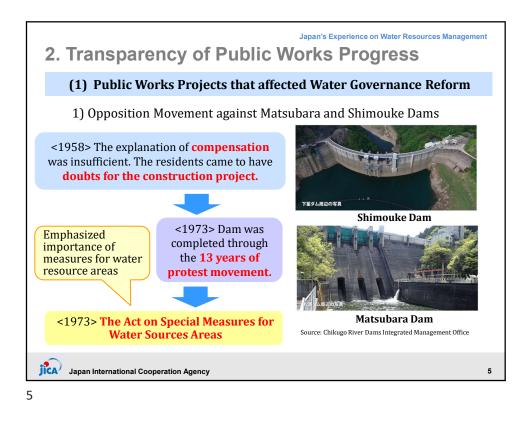


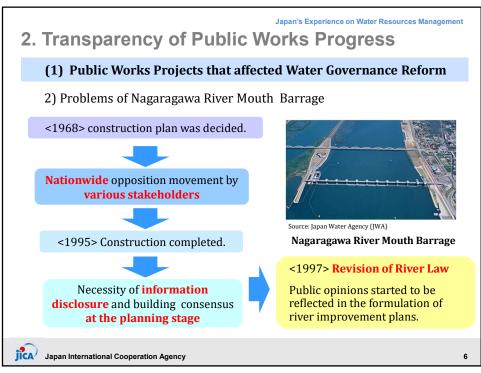


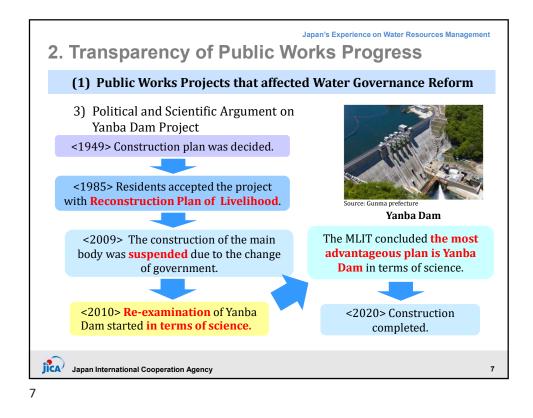


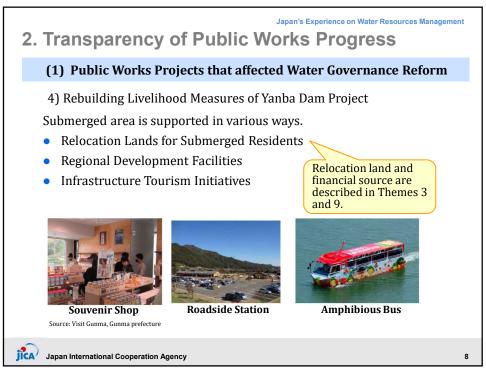


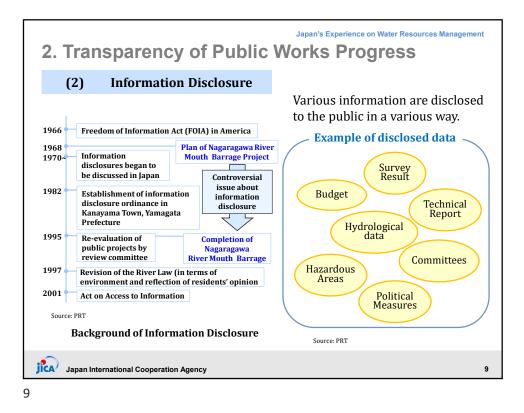


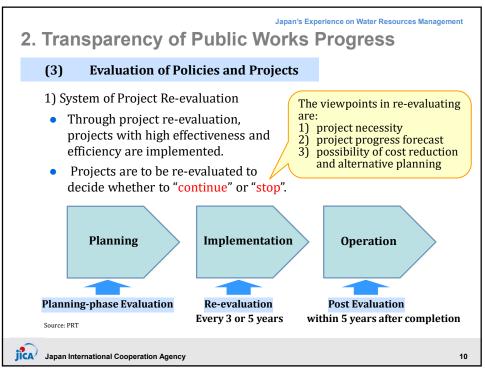


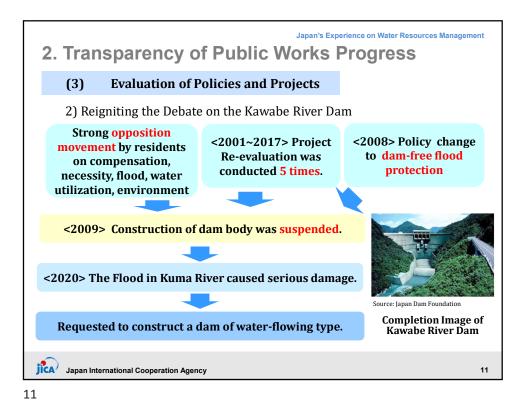


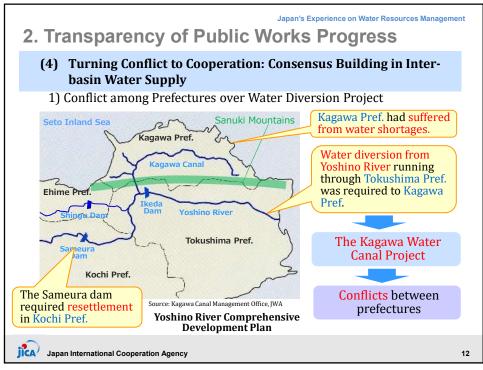


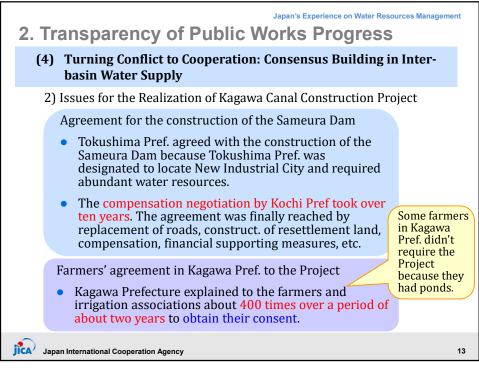




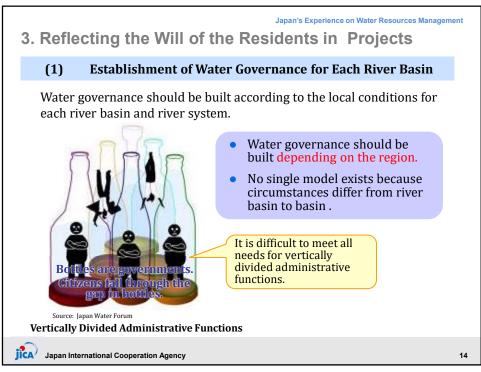


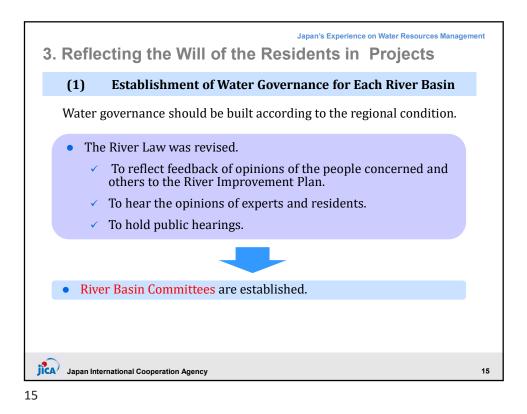


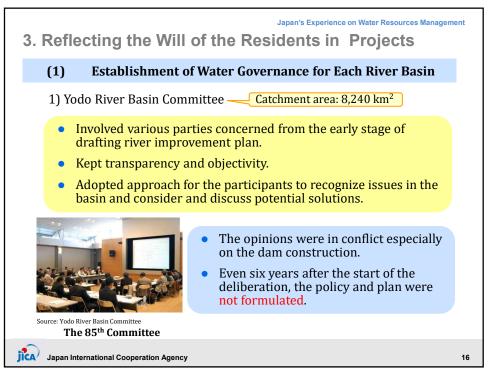


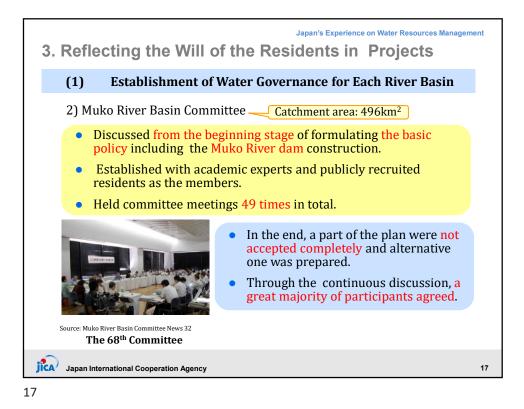


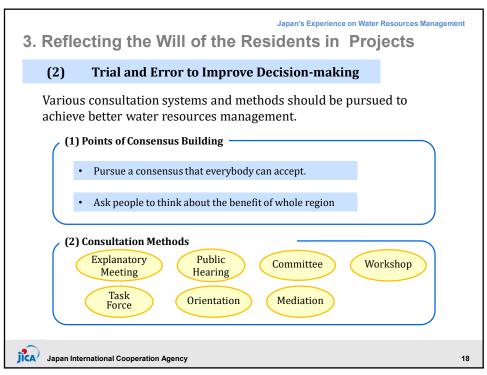


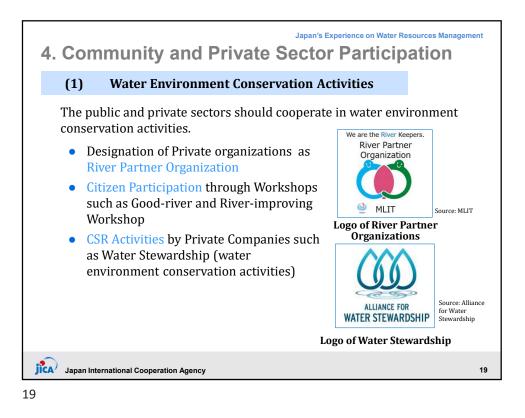




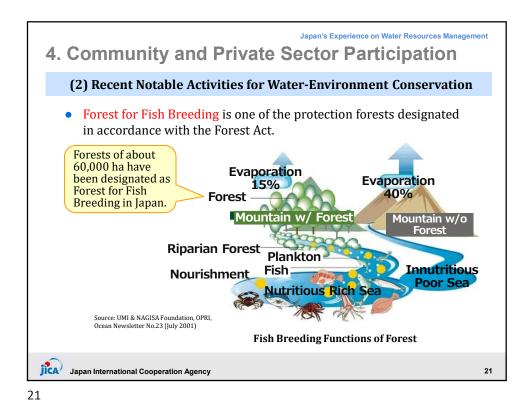




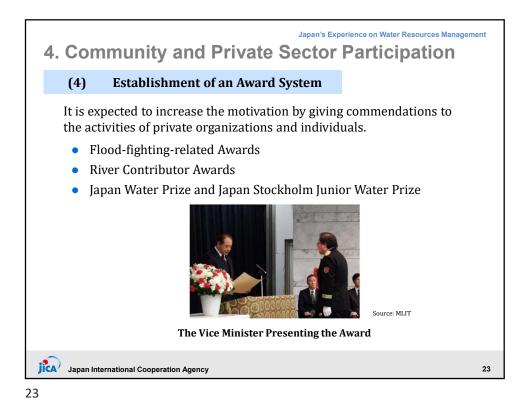


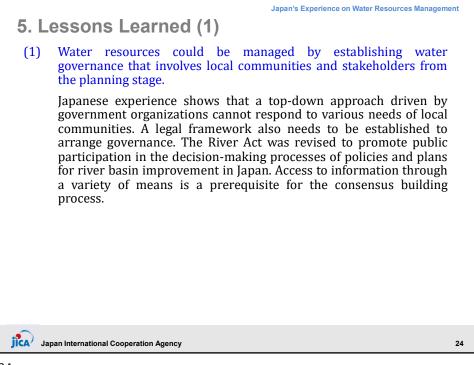


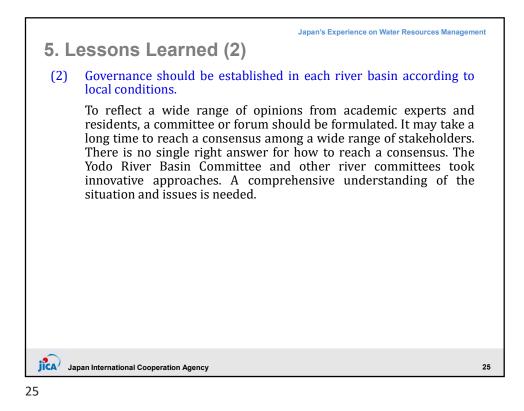


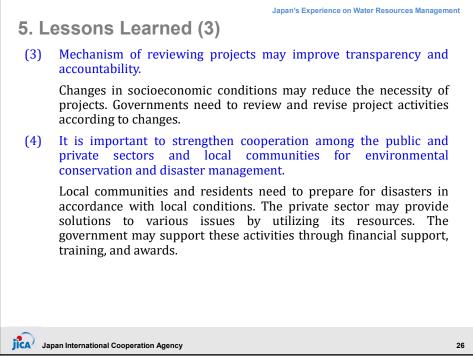


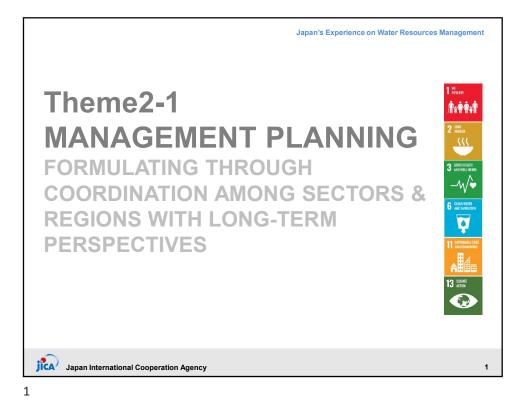


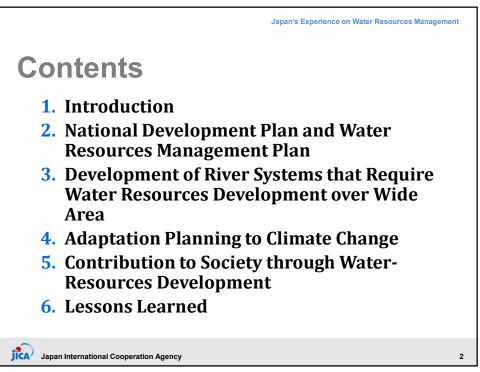


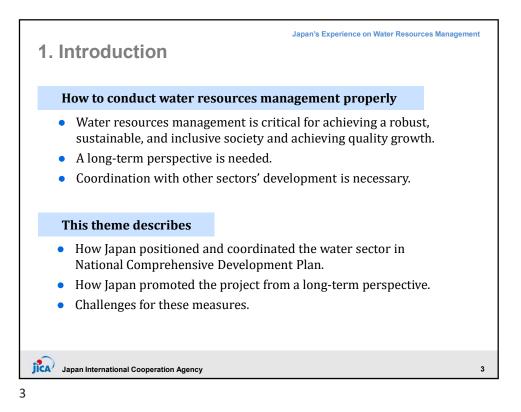


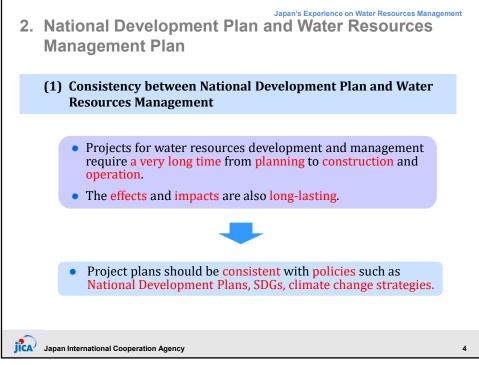


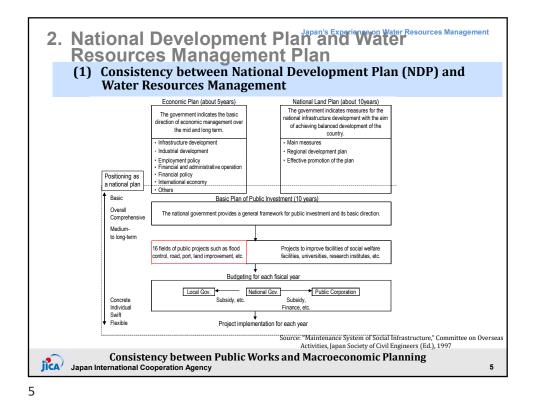




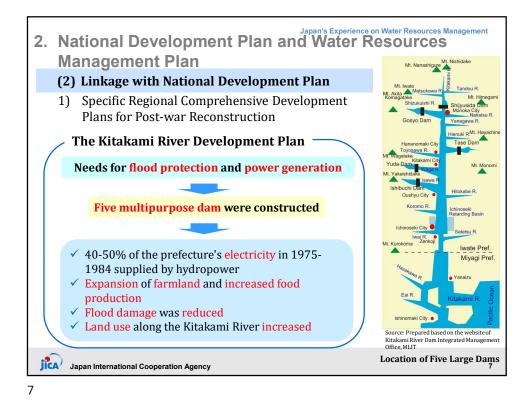




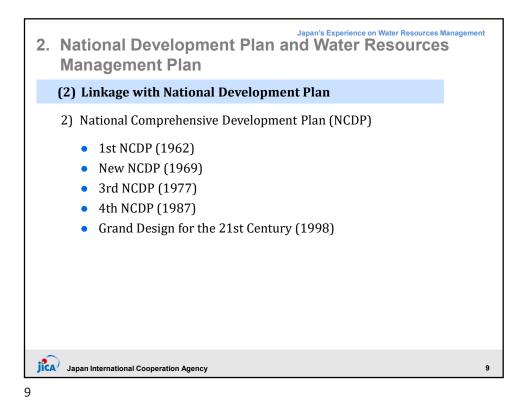


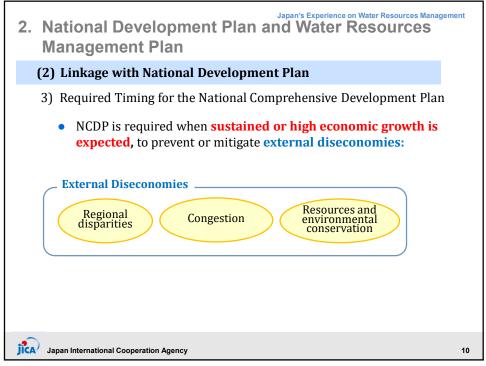


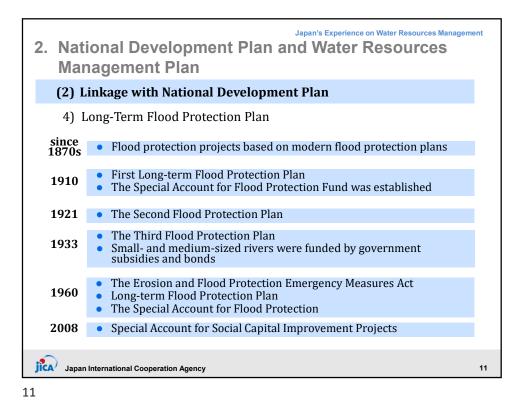


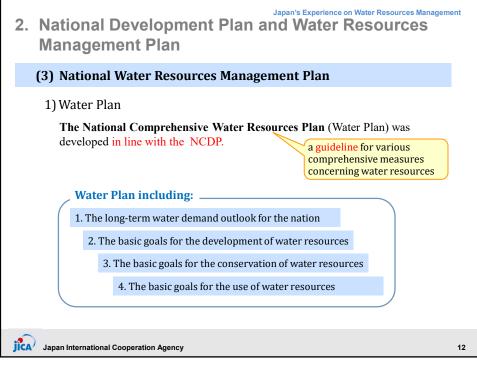


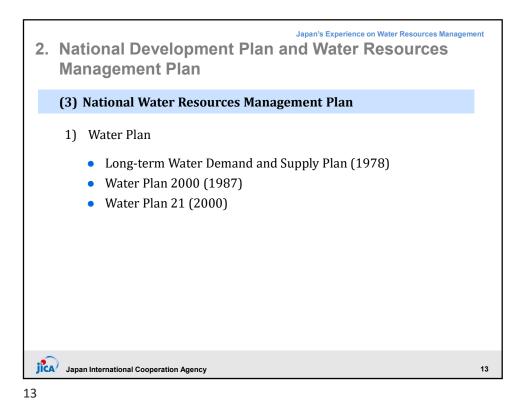


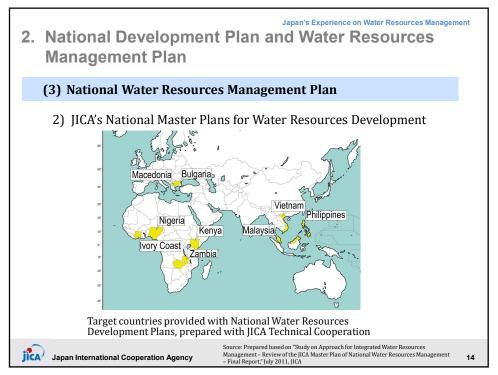




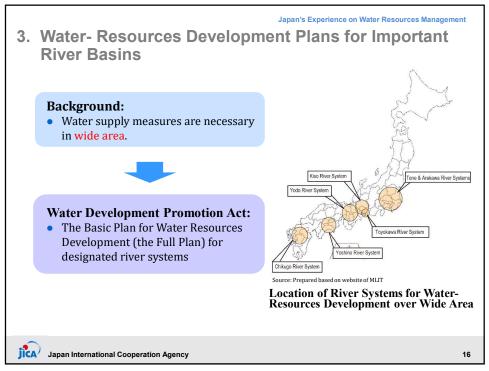


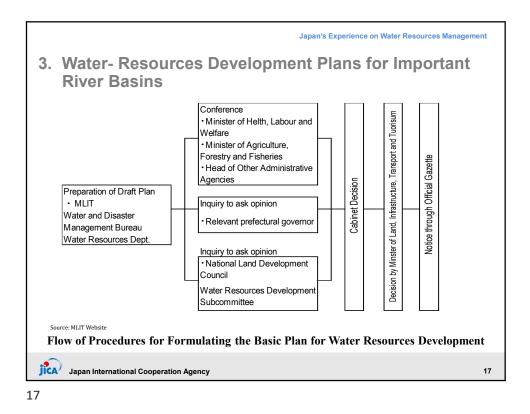


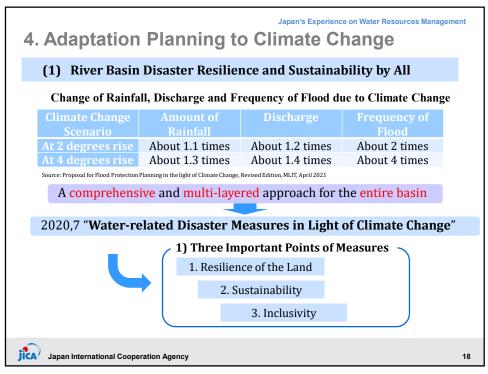


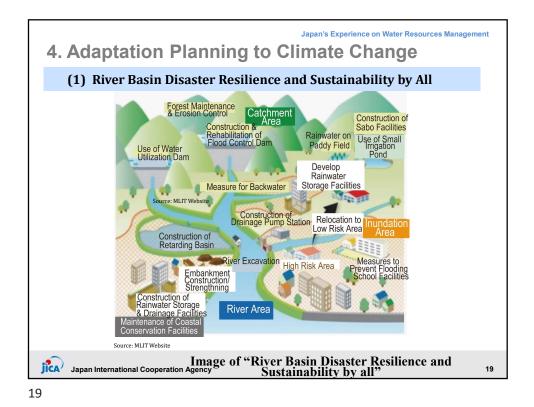


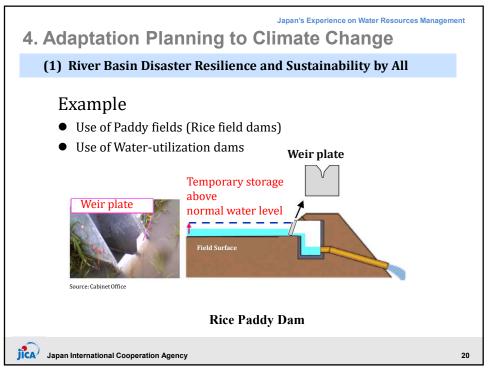


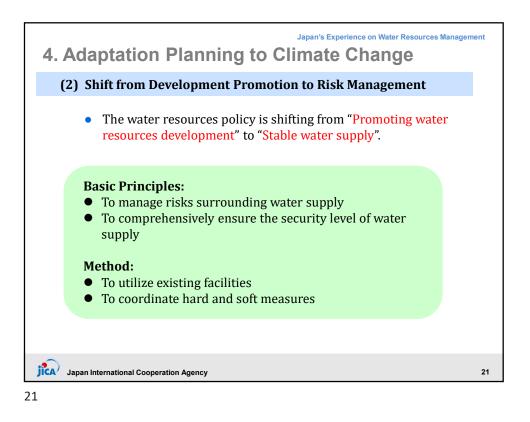


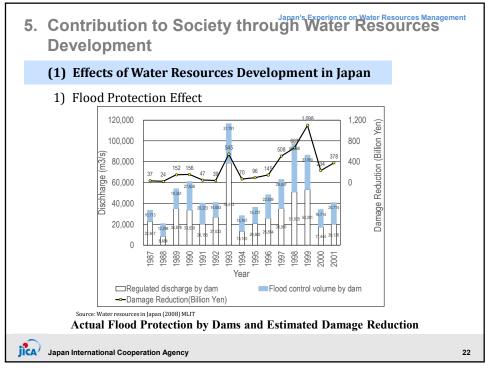


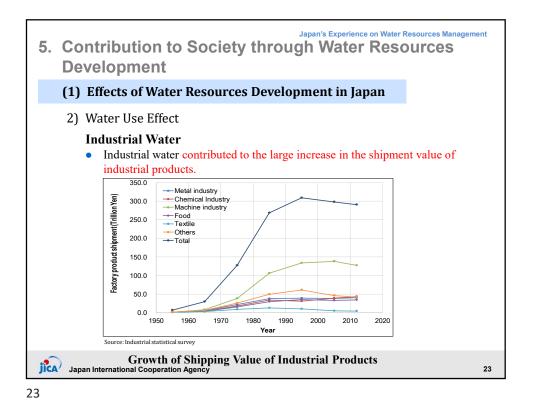


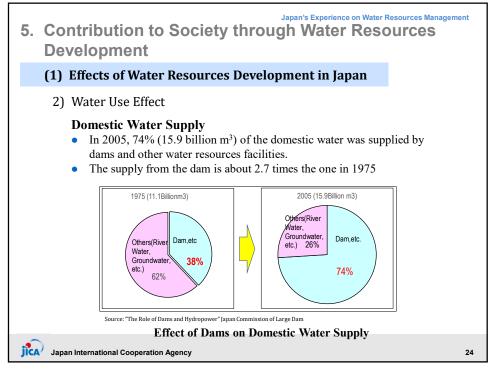


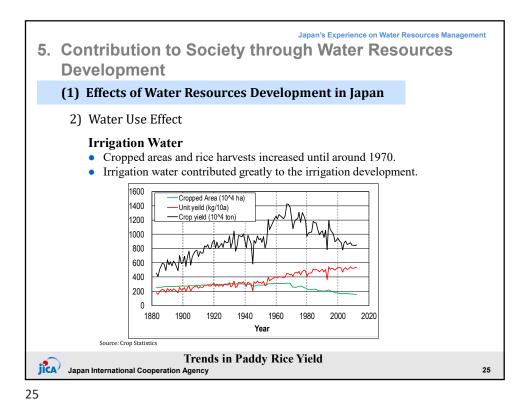


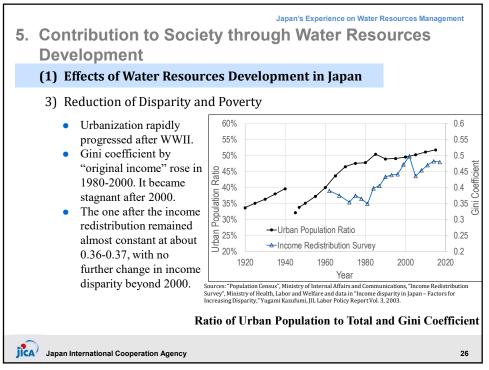


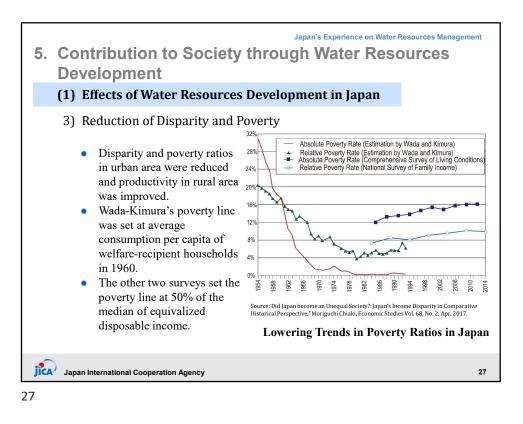


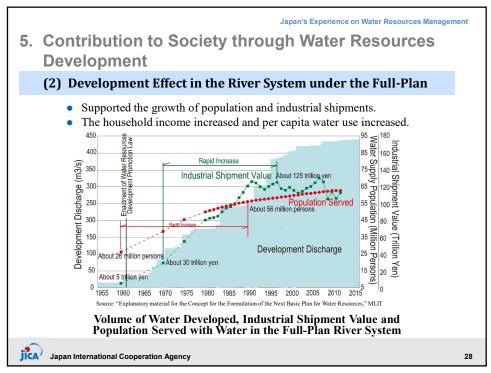


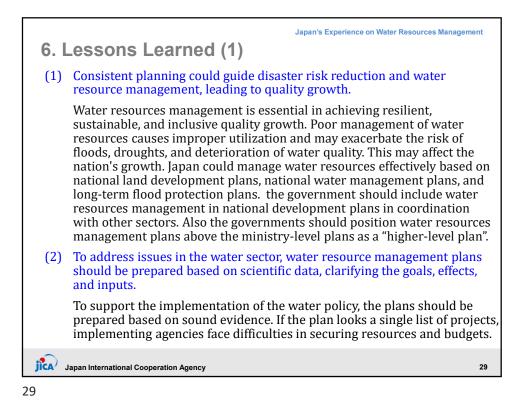




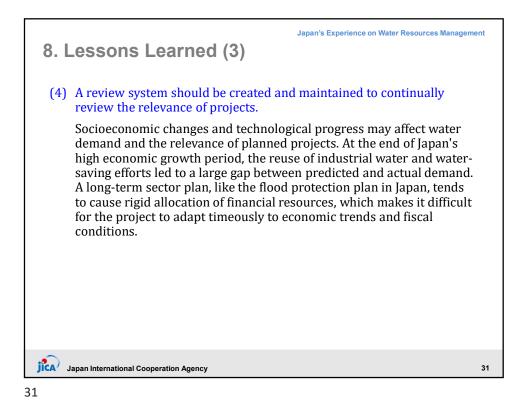


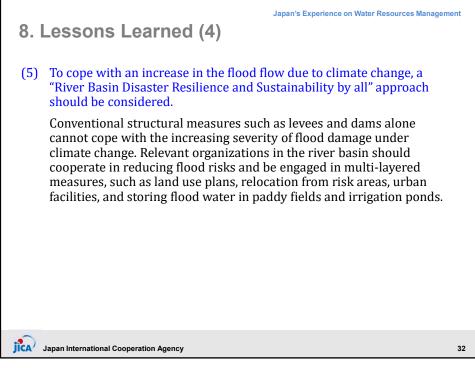


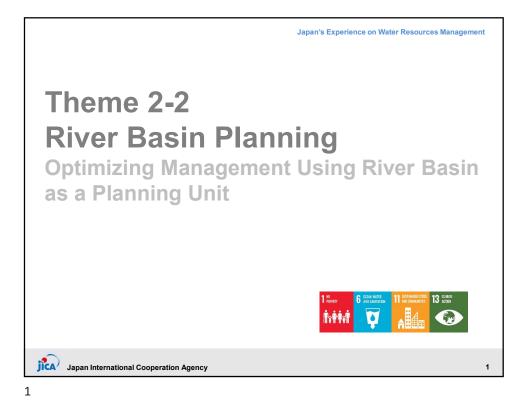


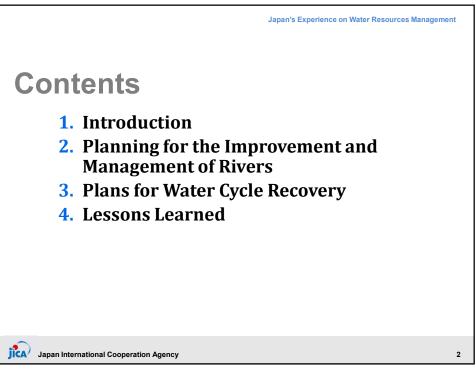


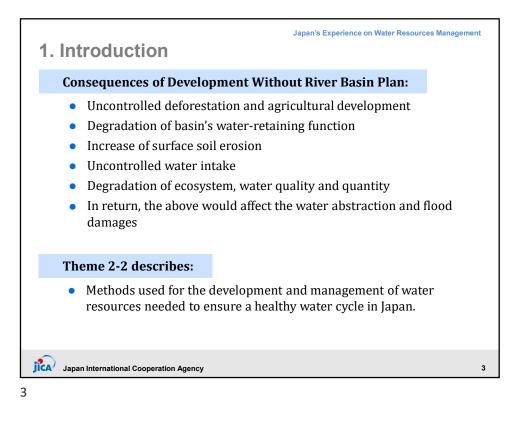
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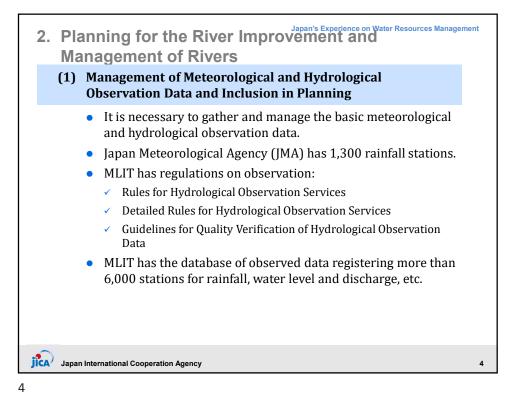


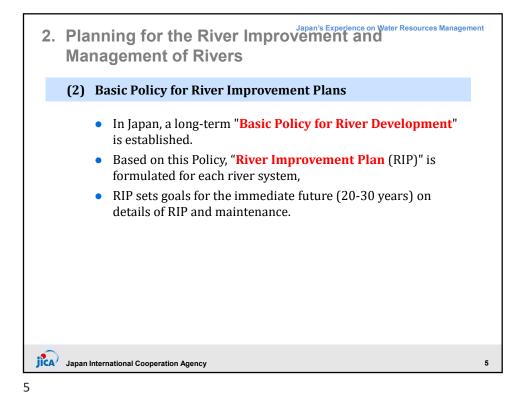








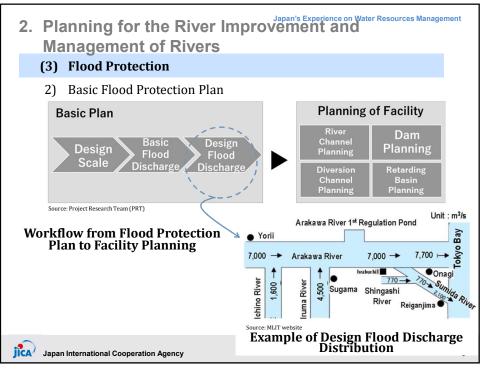


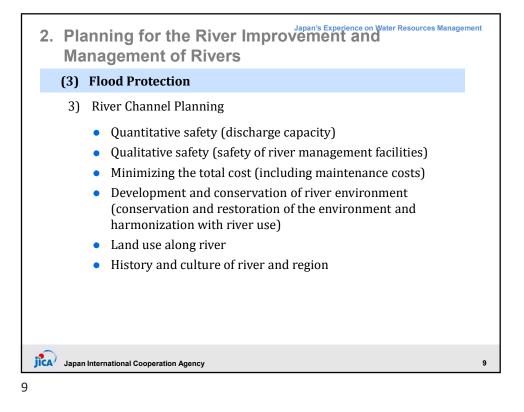


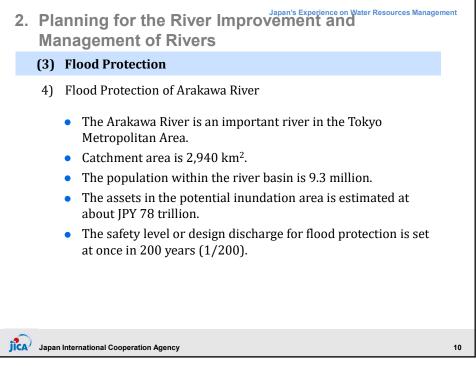
2. Planning for the River Improvement and Management of Rivers				
(2) Basic Policy for River Improvement Plans				
Item	Basic Policy of River Development	River Improvement Plan		
Composer	River Administrator	River Administrator		
Procedure	 Hearings of opinions of the Social Infrastructure Development Council (prefectural river councils for Class B river systems) To be published after Policy formulation 	 Hearings of opinions of relevant local governments Hearings of opinions of academic experts and concerned residents To be published after Plan formulation 		
Contents	 Basic Policy of river improvement from a long-term perspective Concept of river improvement without specifying details such as individual projects 	 Goals of river improvement in 20~30 years Specific details of river improvement including individual projects planned 		
	naged by municipalities (locally designated rivers and ordinary rivers) are e ical Criteria for River Works, Practical Guide for Planning (March 2008)	xcluded from the table.		
jica Japan Inte	ernational Cooperation Agency	6		

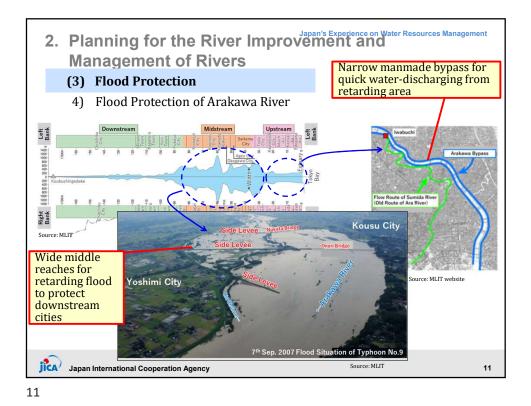
	ng for the River			
(3) Flood Protection				
1) Safety Level of Flood Protection				
Importance of Rivers and Safety Level of Flood Protection Plan				
River Importance	Design Flood Scale (Return Period)	River Administrator	Planning Conditions (e.g., Land Use)	
А	More than 200 years	National government	Major cities, nature restoration projects, major dam projects, rivers crossing prefecture boundary	
В	100 – 200 years	Ditto	ditto	
С	50 – 100 years	Prefecture government	Cities	
D	10 – 50 years	ditto	Others	
Е	Equal to or less than 10 years	ditto	Others	
Japan Internat	ional Cooperation Agency		-	

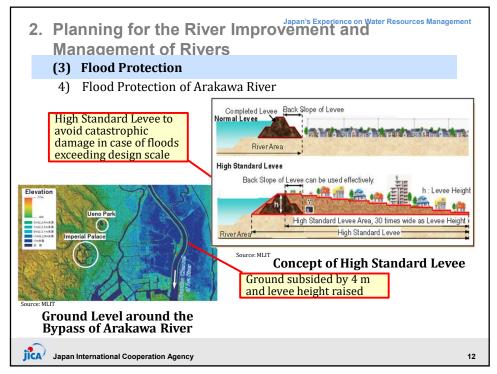


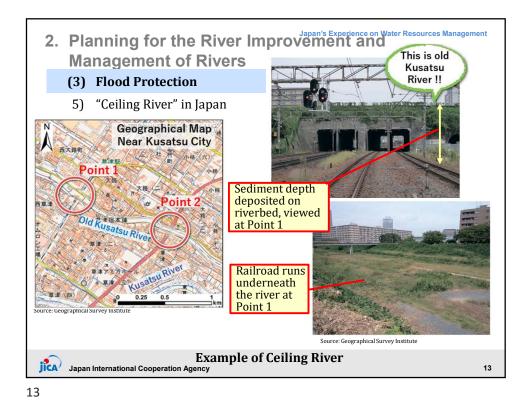


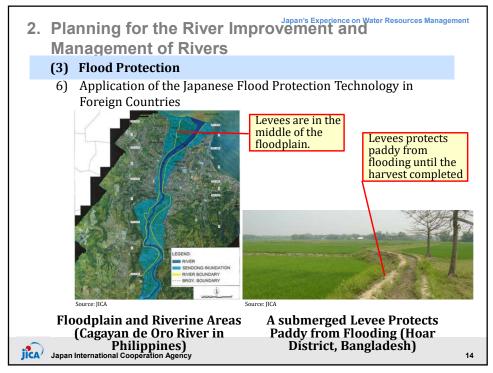


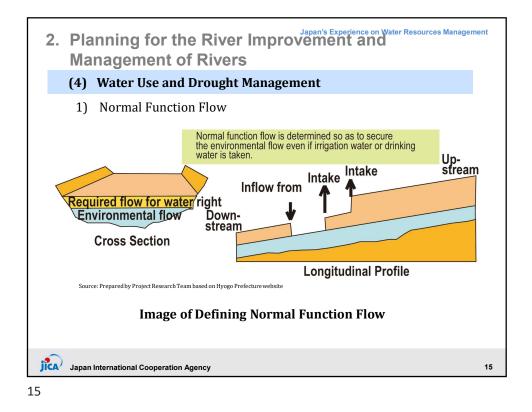


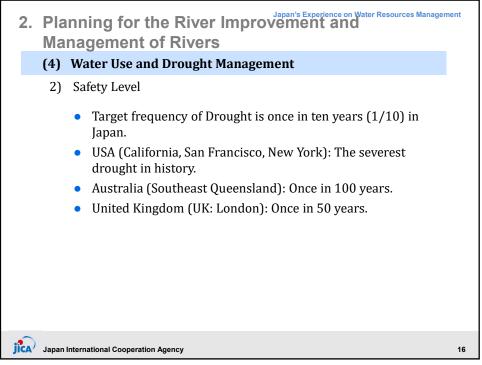


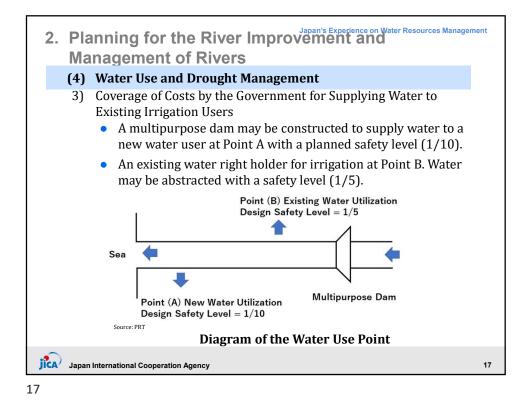




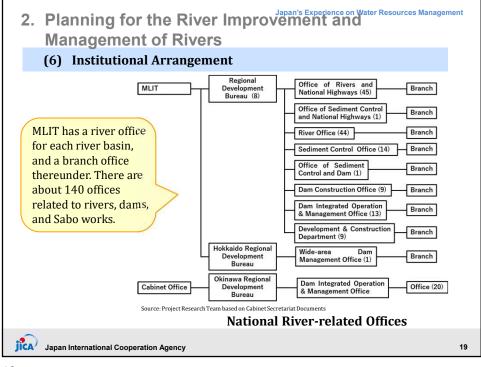




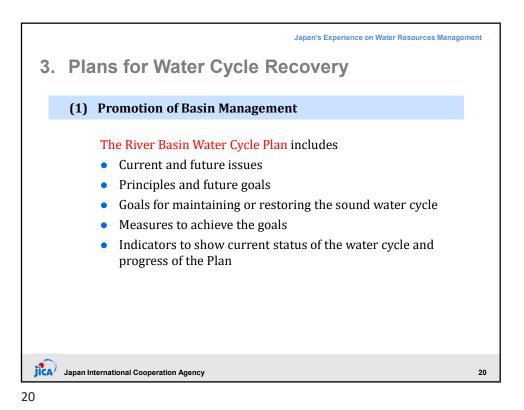


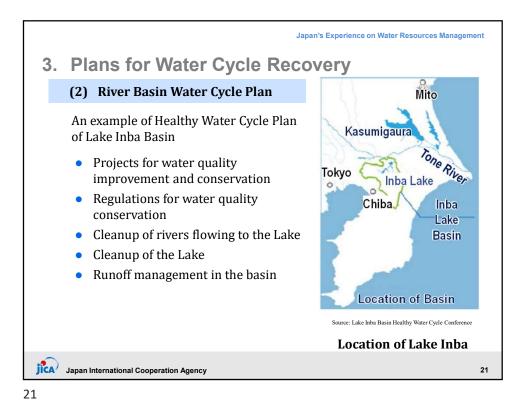


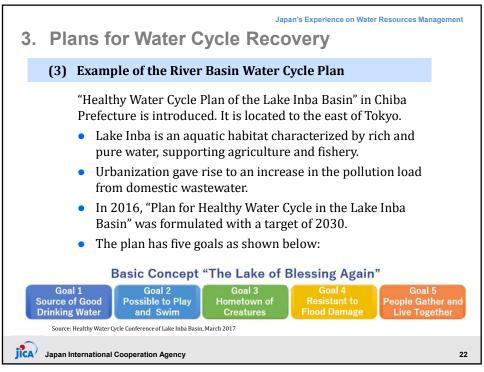


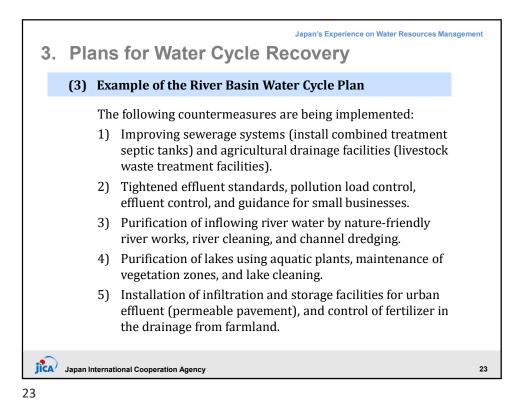




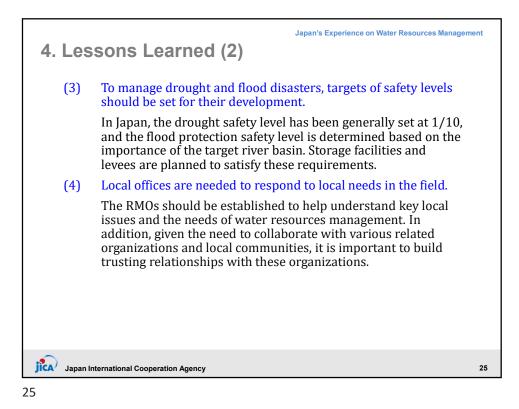




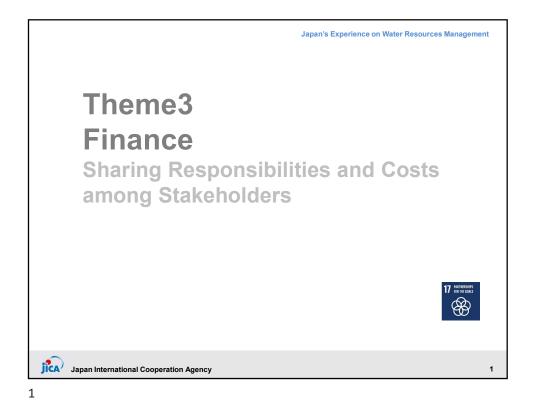


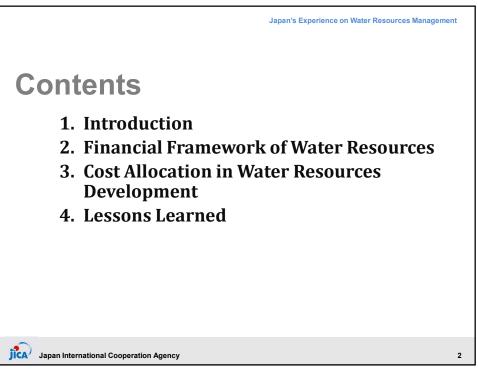


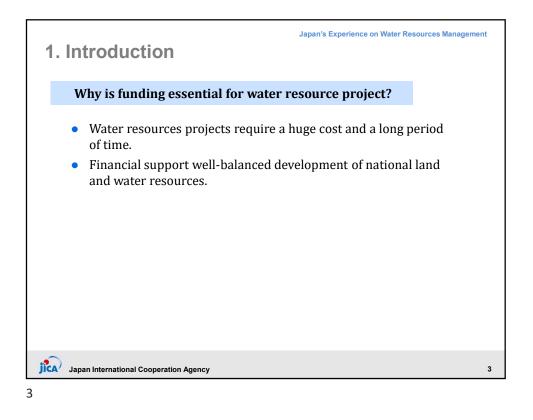
Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management 4. Lessons Learned (1) Water resources should be managed using a river basin as the (1)planning unit. A water resource management plan should be developed according to the individual characteristics and customary practices in the basin. The plan should also ensure consistency among sectors throughout the basin, set management goals, and optimize facility development and environmental management throughout the river basin. An extensive database of hydrological data is needed to develop this plan. (2) Master and action plans are crucial for effectively managing a river. In Japan, the River Law stipulates that river management offices should formulate the Basic Policy for River Improvement as a master plan for the comprehensive conservation and use of water resources, and the River Improvement Plan as an action plan with a timeline of for 20–30 years, specifying actions including individual projects. iica) Japan International Cooperation Agency 24

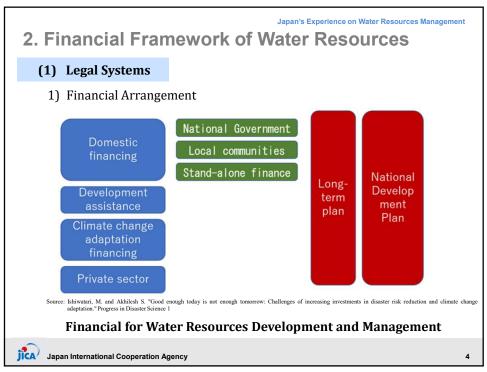


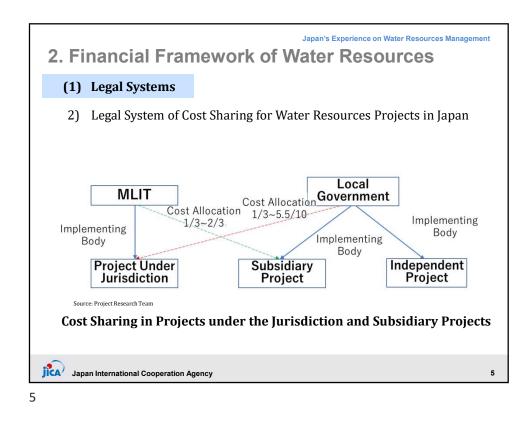
Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management 8. Lessons Learned (4) Collaboration among various stakeholders is needed to recover (5)from water cycle deterioration. Urbanization has resulted in increased basin damage in the water cycle of river flow and groundwater in a river basin. Additionally, an increased water demand has increased groundwater exploitation and subsequent surface water rise, causing environmental function to decline, depleting spring water, and exacerbating water pollution. Japan began formulating river basin plans and management systems by engaging multiple stakeholders to establish a healthy water cycle. jica) Japan International Cooperation Agency 26







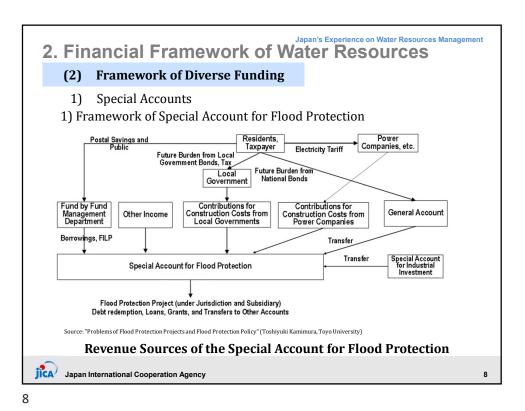


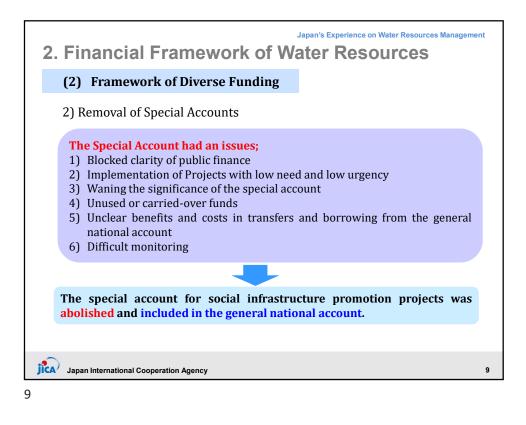


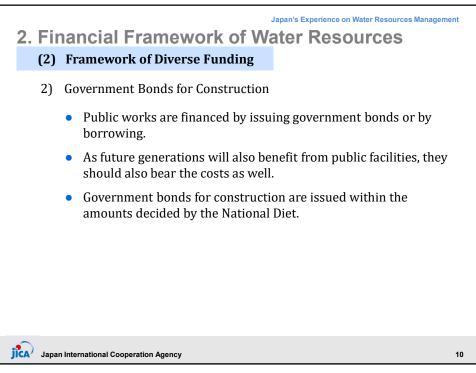
(1) Legal System	ems	Japan's Experience on Water Resources Manageme	nt	
2) Legal Syste	2) Legal System of Cost Sharing for Water Resources Projects in Japan			
	Snar	ing of Project Costs	_	
Purpose	River Type	Cost Sharing		
River Administrator	Class-A River	MLIT 2/3, Prefecture 1/3		
(Flood Protection)	Class-B River	MLIT 1/2, Prefecture 1/2		
Irrigation		Beneficiaries 1/10, of the rest, National Government (MAFF) 3/4, Prefecture ¼		
Water Supply		1/2 - 1/3 of government subsidy (MHLW)		
Sewerage		Public Sewerage : Main Culverts 1/2, Final treatment plant 1/2 or 5.5/10 Basin Sewerage : Main Culverts 1/2, Final treatment plant 1/2 or 2/3)		
Industrial Water Supply		Government subsidy within 40% (METI)		
Power Generation		In principle the cost is to be borne by the power company (charges from the electricity consumers)		
Japan International Co	operation Agency		6	

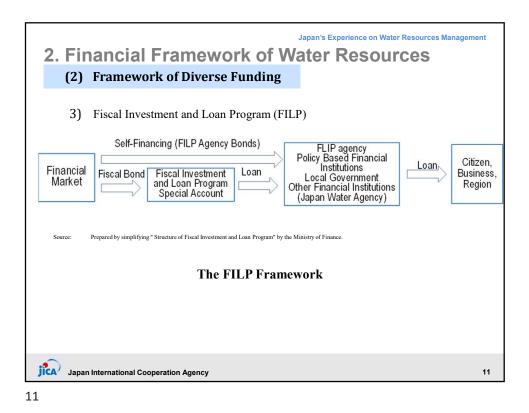
2. Financ	ial Fram	Japan's Experience on Water Resources Managen	ient	
(1) Legal Systems				
3) Histor	y of Financia	l Systems		
History of Act and Subsidy				
Year		Act or Subsidy		
1896	The River Law	1		
1899	Act for Agricu	ltural Land Improvement		
1908	Subsidies for	individual land improvement works		
1911	Special Accou	nt Act for Flood Protection, Electricity Business Act		
1940	Subsidy for riv	ver-water control projects related to Dam and reservoir		
1957	Multi-Purpose	e Dams Act		
1961		ces Development Promotion Act ces Development Corporation Act		
1962	0	ency Measures for Erosion and Flood Protection unt for flood protection		
1966	The governme	ent bonds for construction		
Japan Internatio	onal Cooperation Age	псу	7	

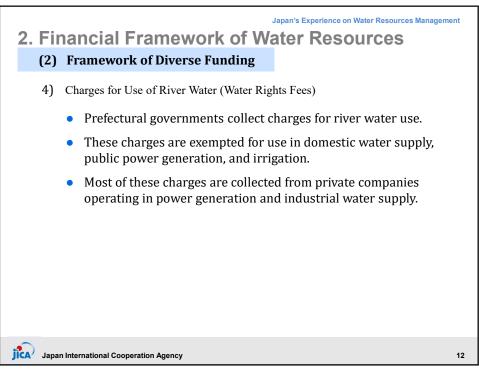


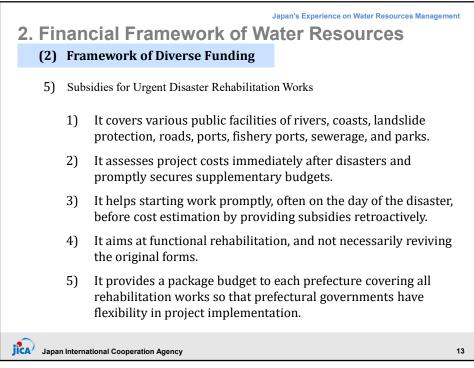


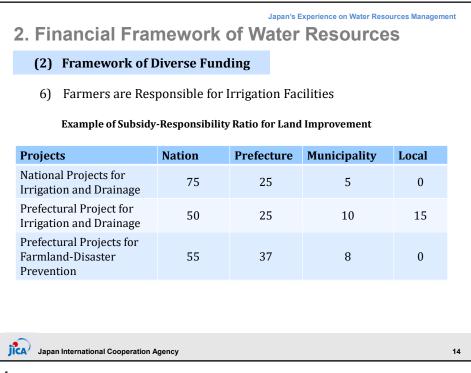


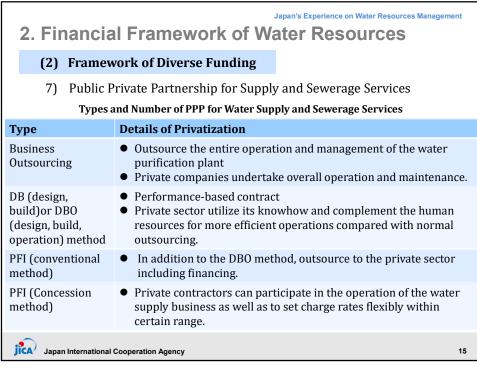




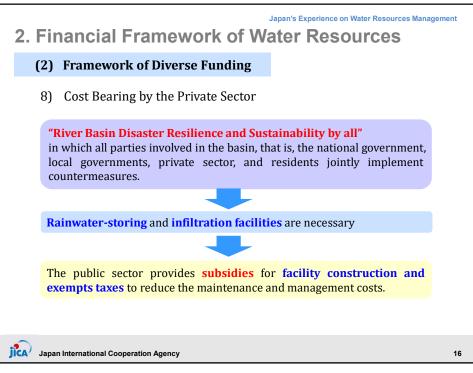


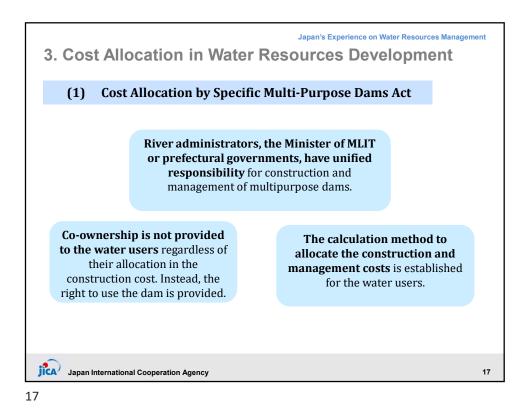


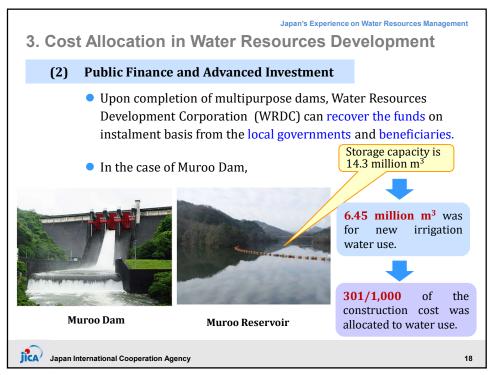


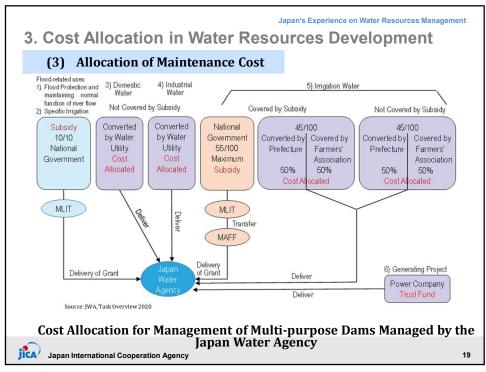


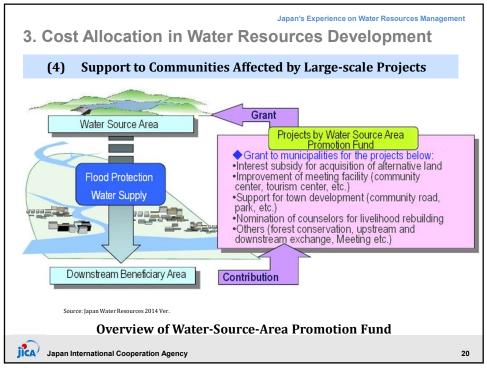


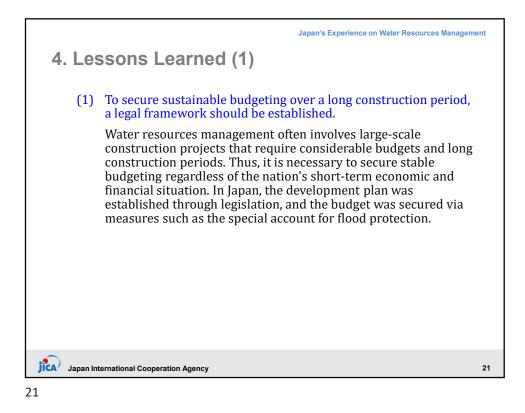


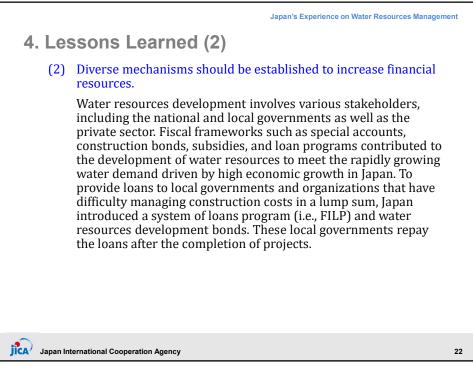


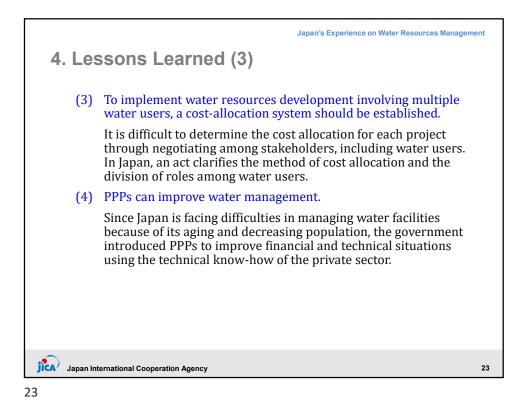


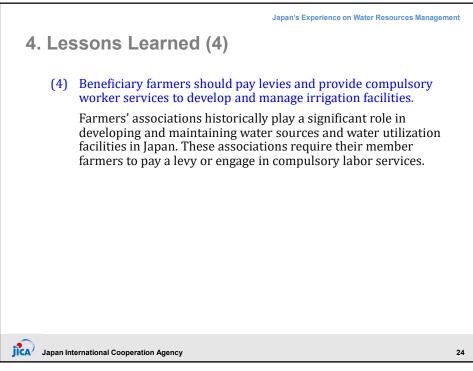


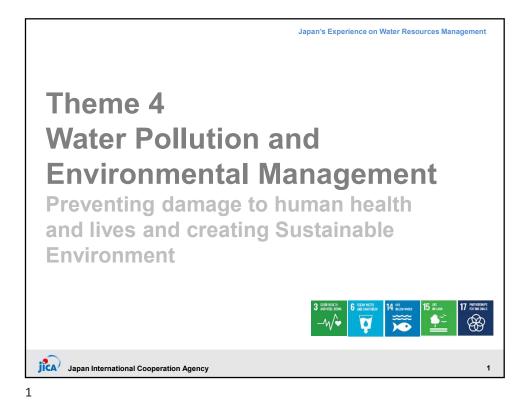


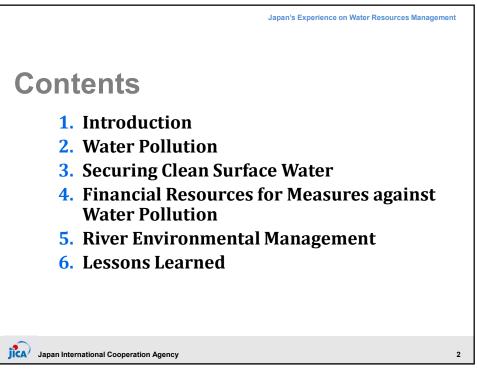


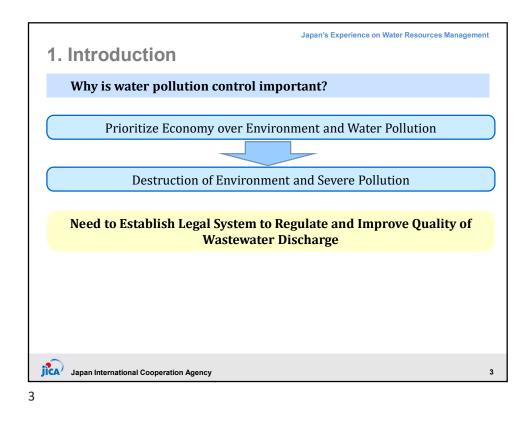


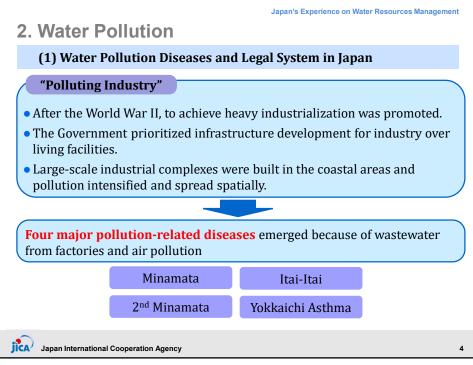


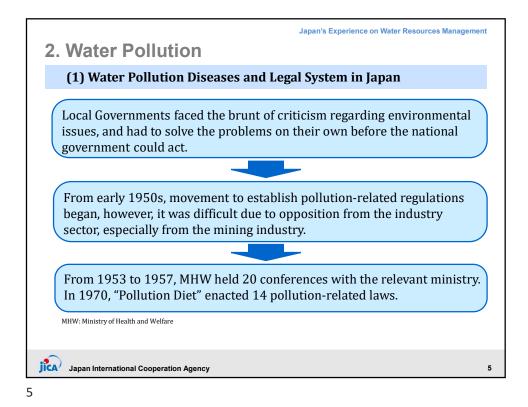


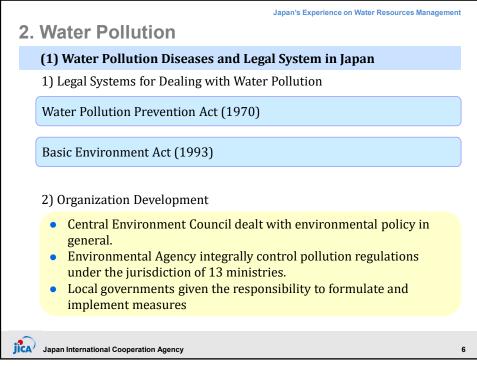


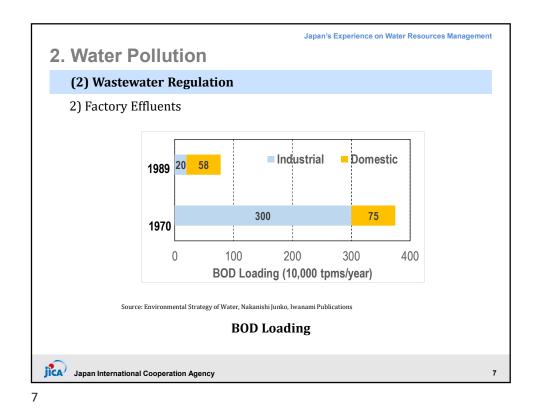


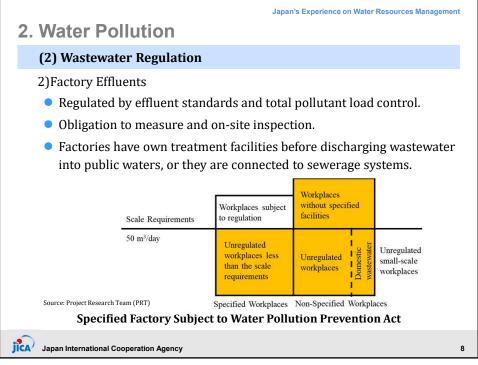


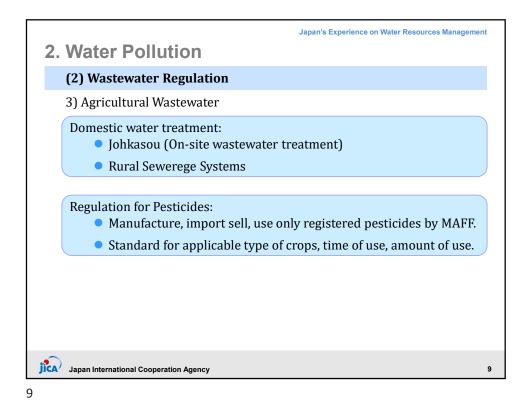


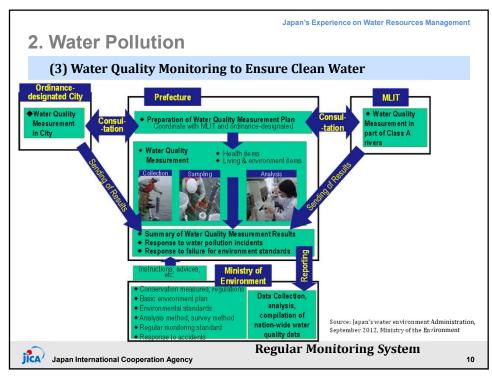


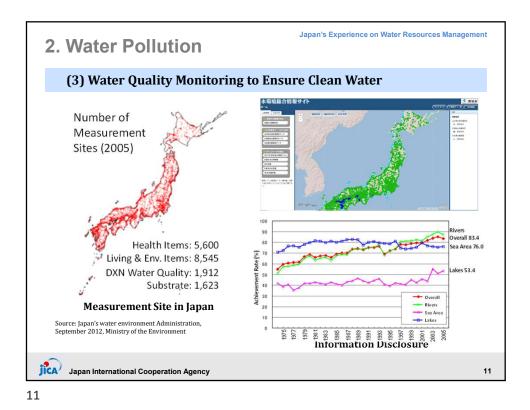


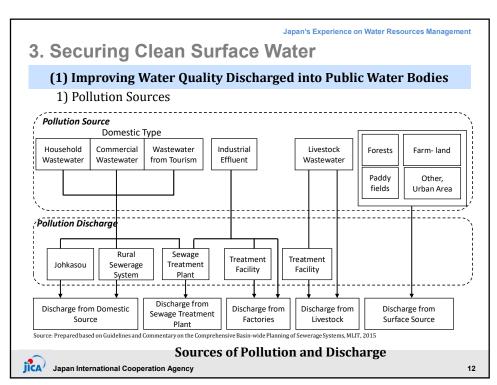


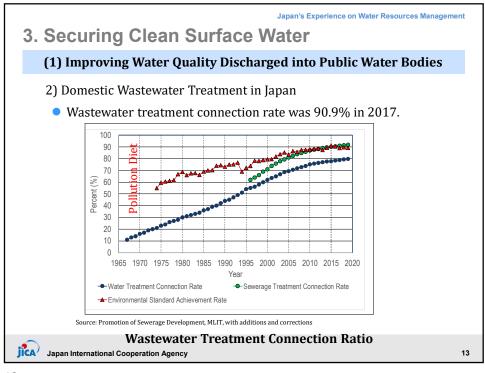




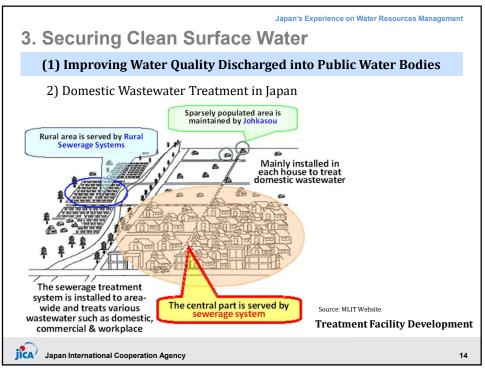


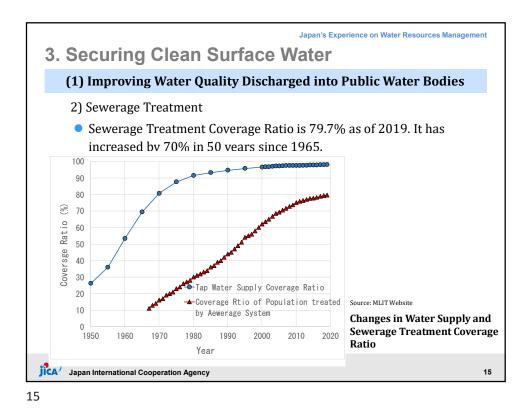


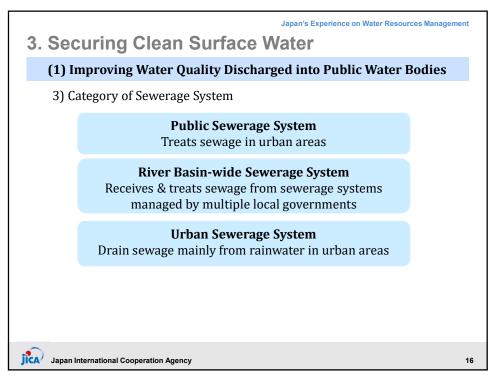


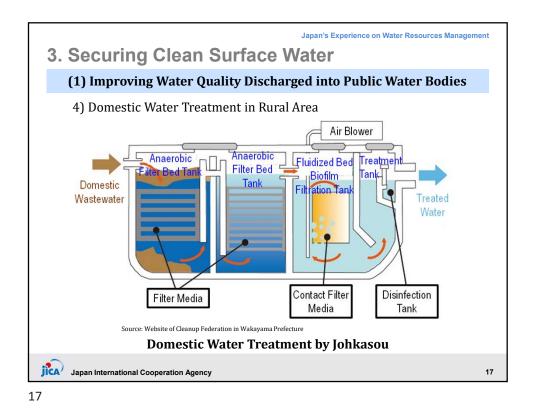


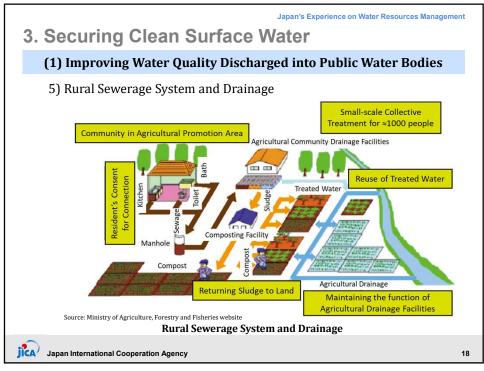


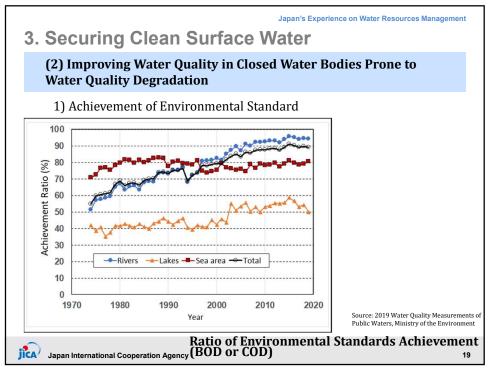




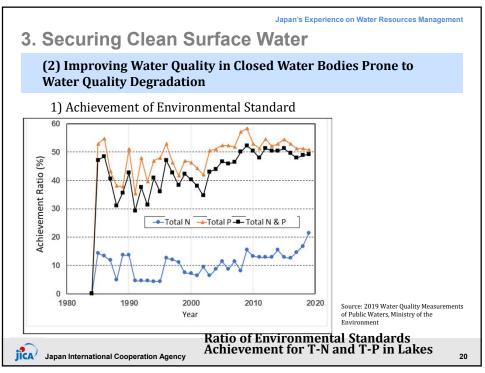


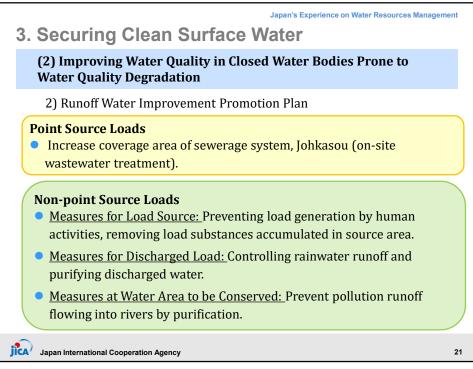




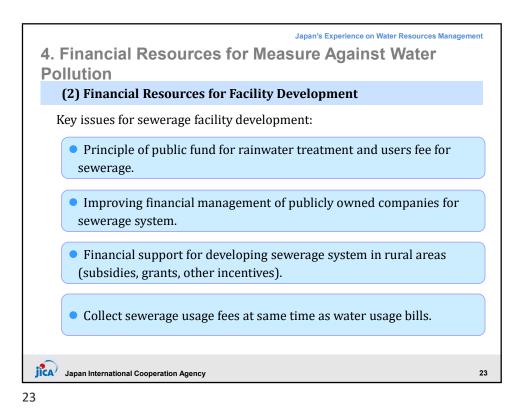


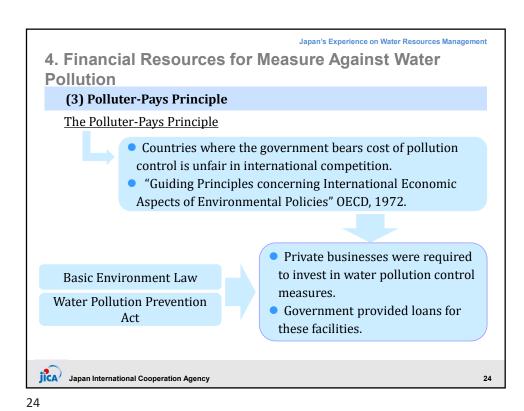


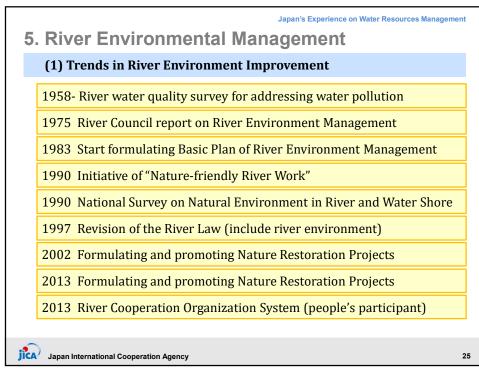


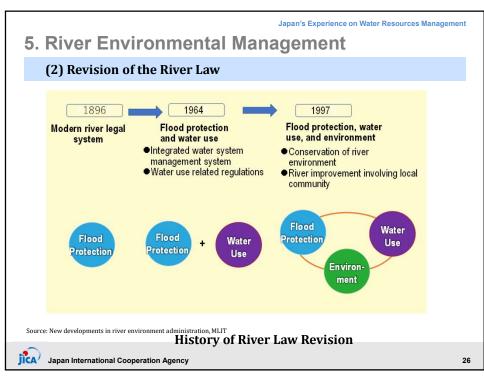


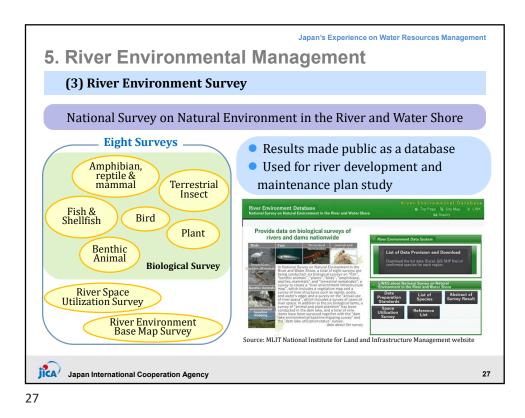
4. Finan Pollutio		Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management OURCES FOR MEASURE Against Water	
(1) Cos	st Sharing		
• Co	nstruction c	ities: publicly owned company financially independent ost: borrowing through local government bond ay principle	
Туре	Construction Costs		
Public Sewerage	Government Local Funds	Funds (Grant Rate: ½ of major pipes, ½ or 5.5/10 of treatment plants) Local government bonds (Appropriation rate 100%) Contribution from users Prefectural subsidies)
River-basin Sewerage	Government Local Funds	 Funds (Grant Rate: ½ of major pipes, ½ or 2/3 of treatment plants) Local government bonds (Subsidies: Appropriation rate 60%, Local government finance: Appropriate rate 90%) Local government cost: Local Government bonds (Subsidies: Appropriation rate 60%, Local government finance: Appropriation rate 90%) Transfer to General Account (cities, towns, villages) Transfer to General Account (Prefectures) 	
Japan Inte	rnational Cooperat	ion Agency 22	2

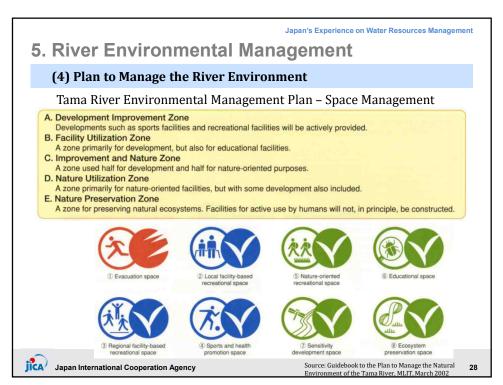


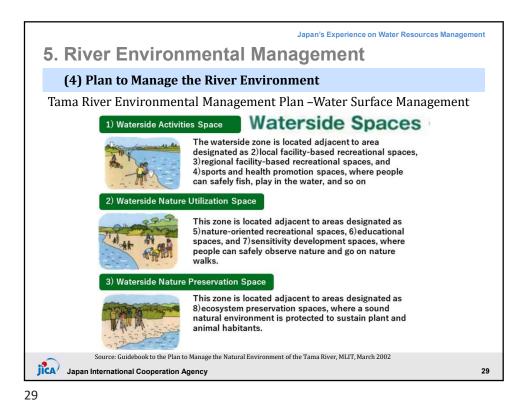


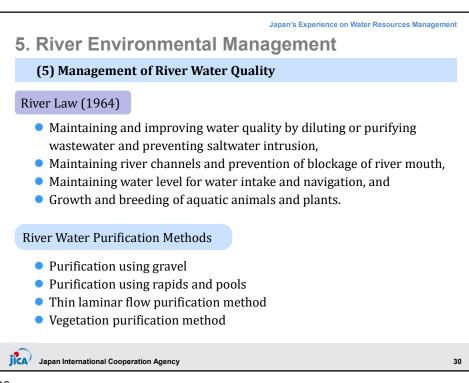


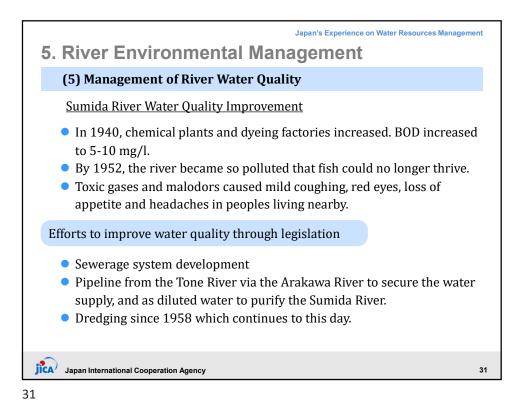


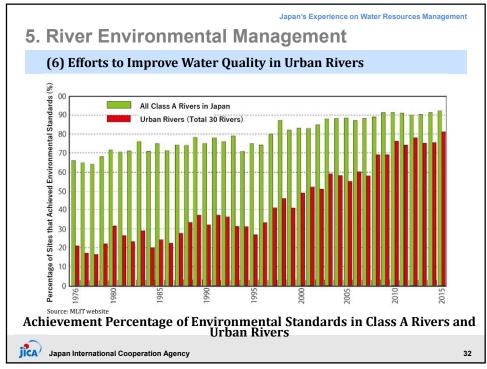


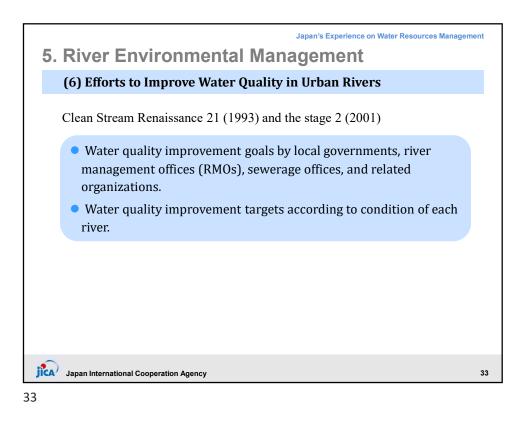


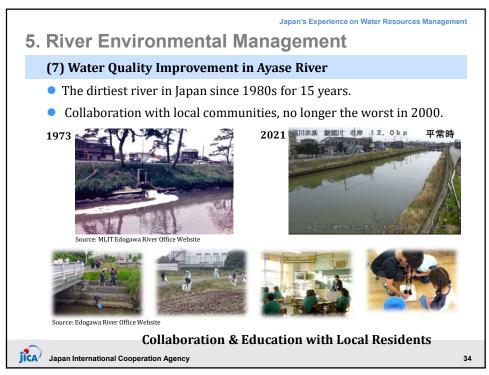


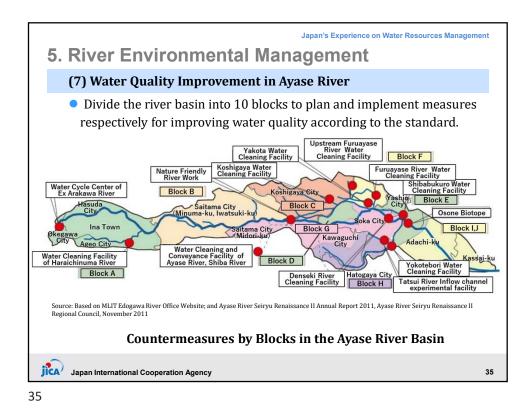










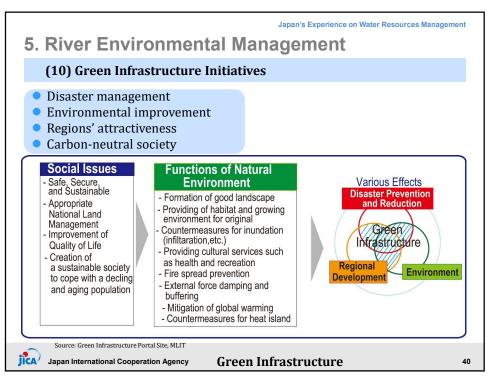


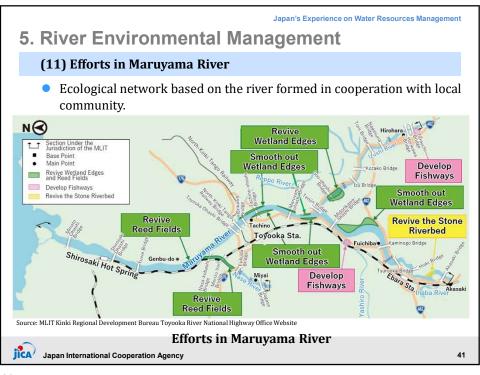




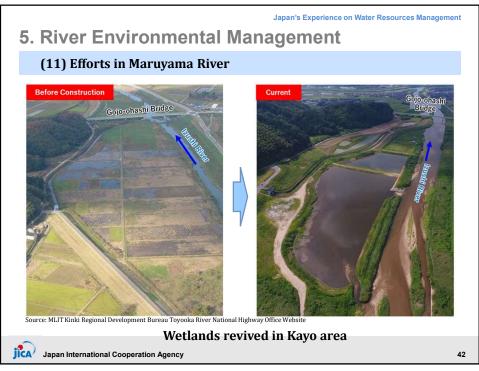


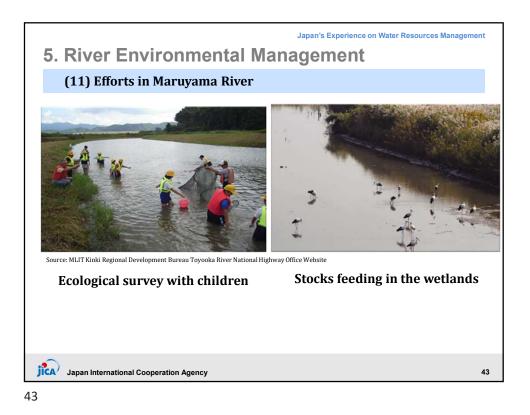


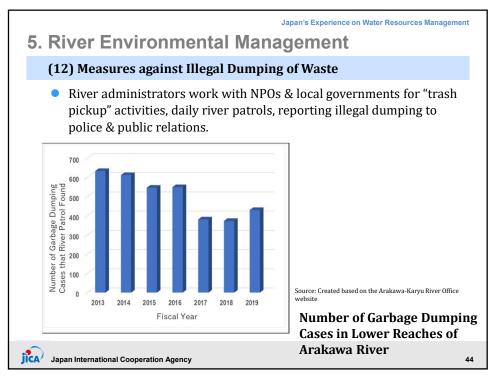


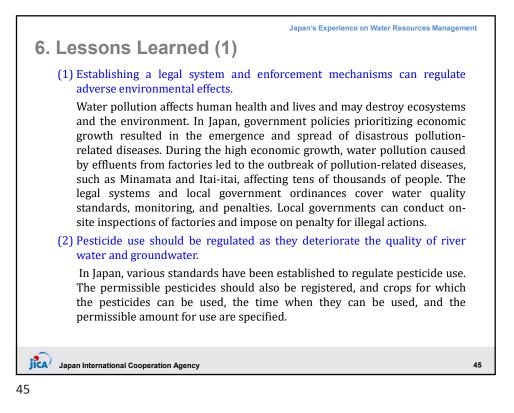




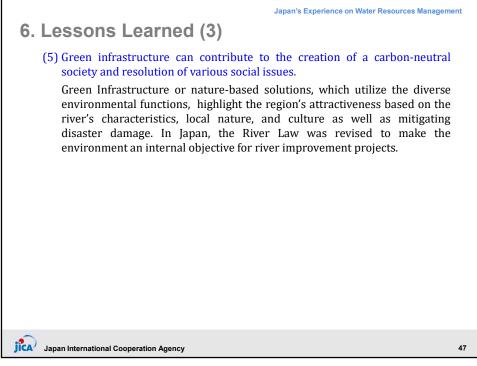


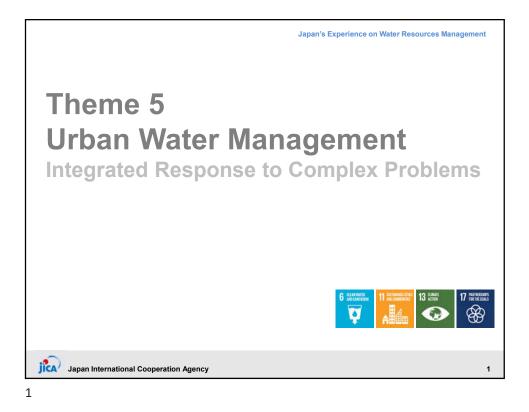


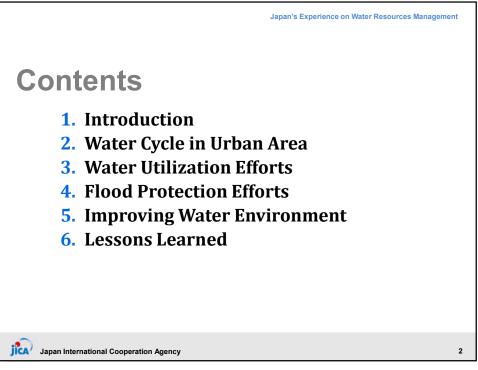


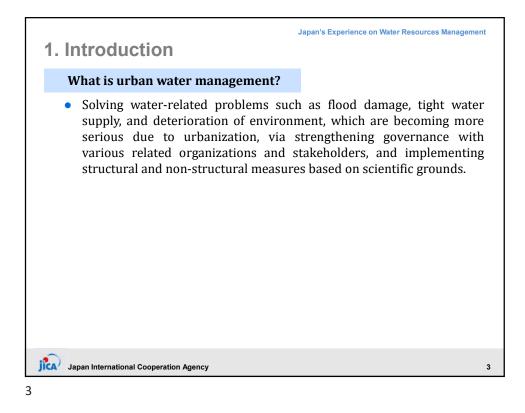


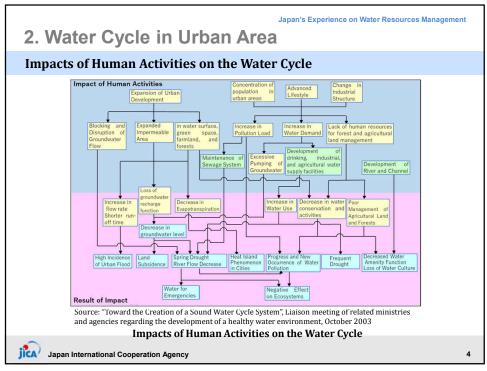
Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management 6. Lessons Learned (2) (3) Domestic wastewater should be treated to achieve quality that meets the standard values. In Japan, local governments have formulated basic plans to develop basinwide sewage systems. Treatment methods can be optimized by the conventional sewerage system and Johksou, on-site treatment facility at the household level, taking into account the population density, topographic conditions, and economic efficiency. (4) For closed water bodies such as lakes and marshes, more stringent measures are essential for preserving water quality. In lakes, marshes, inland bays, land-locked seas, and other closed water areas, improving water quality is difficult once deteriorated. There are two types of pollution loads: point and non-point sources. For the latter, improvement measures are required over large areas because the discharge points of pollutants are difficult to be identified. The act was enacted, followed by the setting of long-term targets, formulation of short-term plans, and implementation of water quality improvement for lakes and marshes in Japan. iica) Japan International Cooperation Agency 46

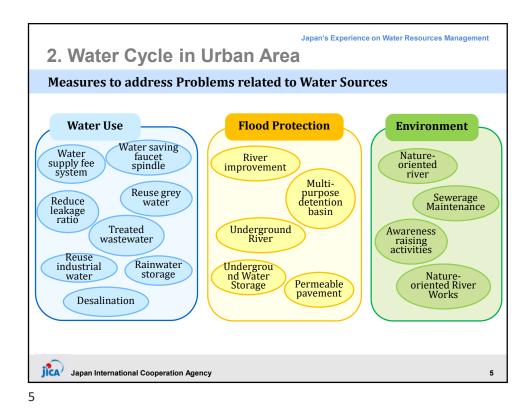


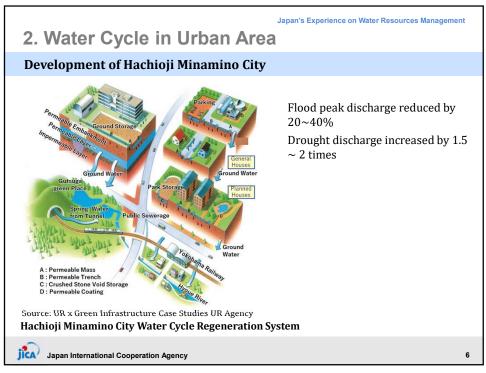


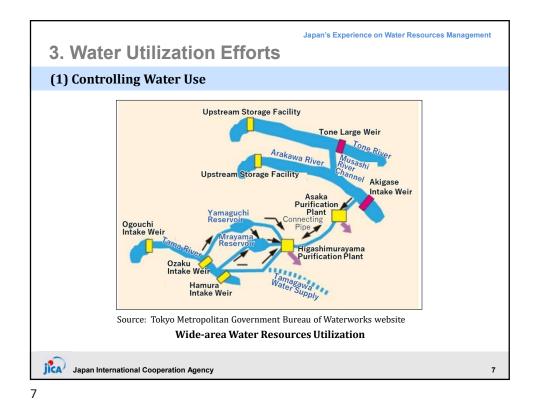


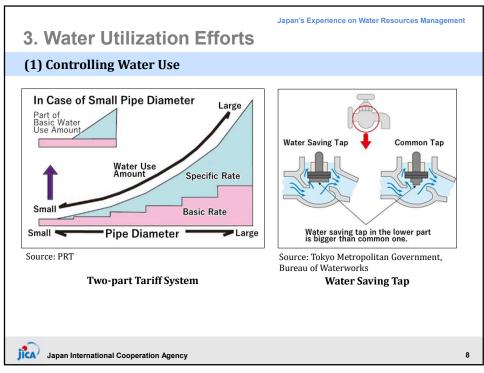


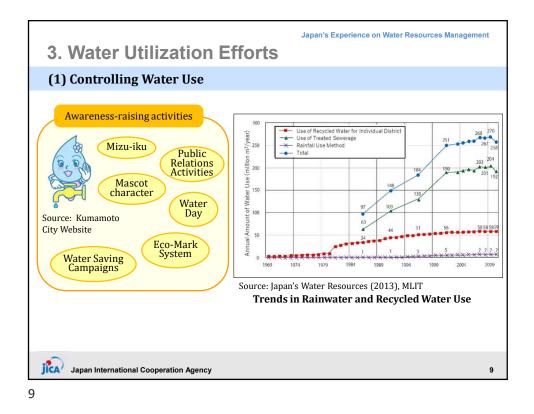


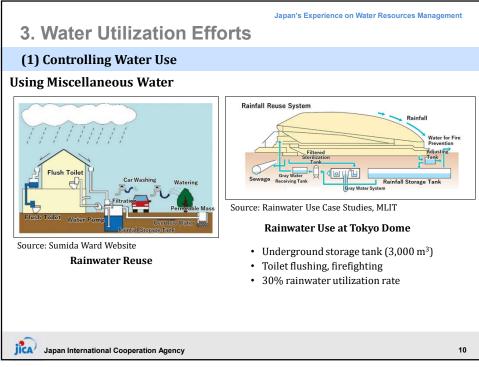


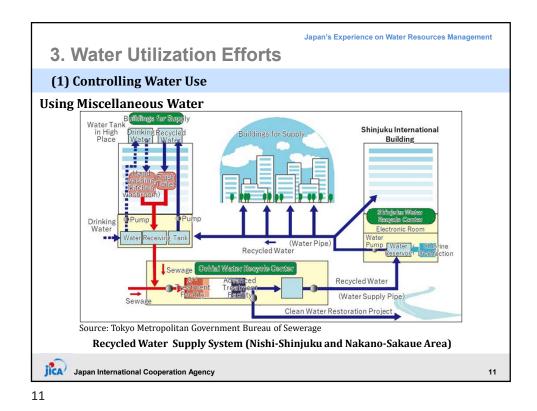


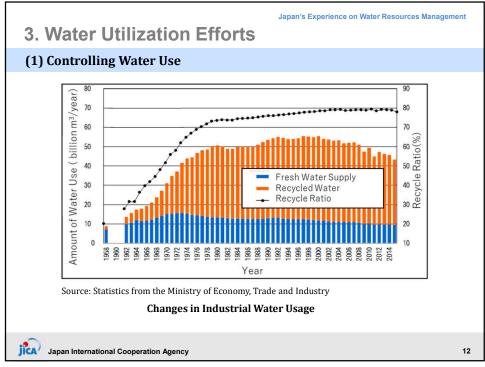


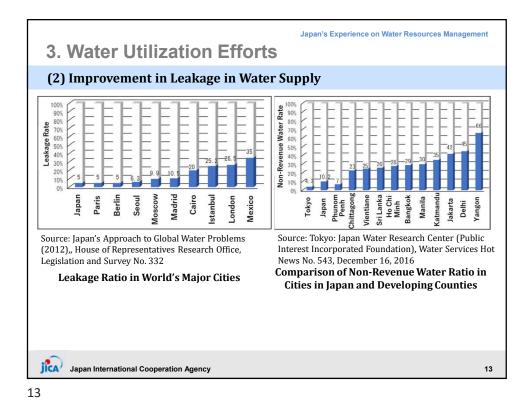


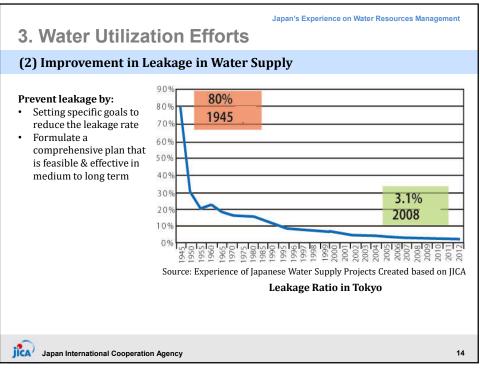


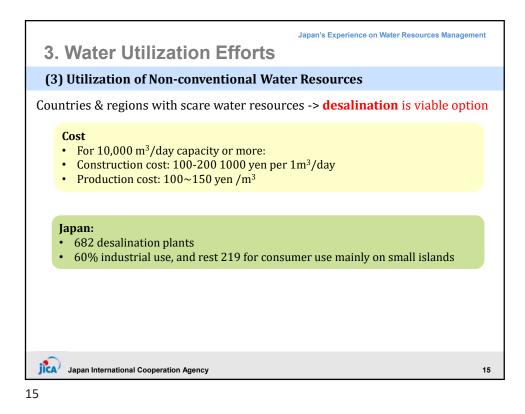


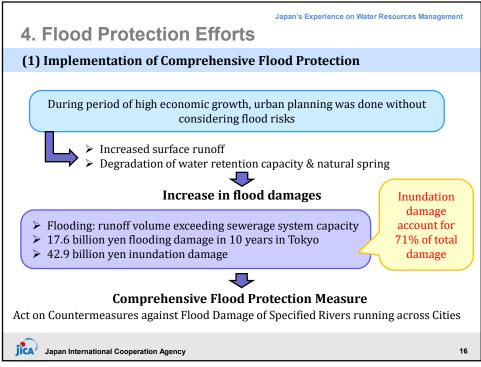


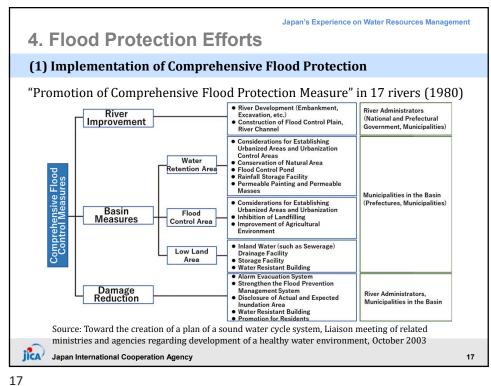




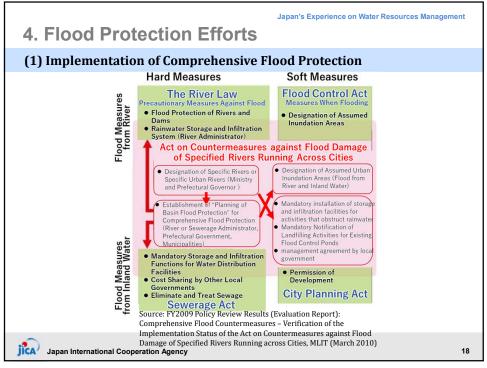


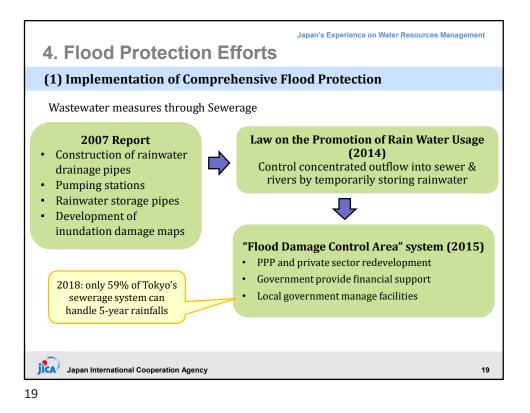


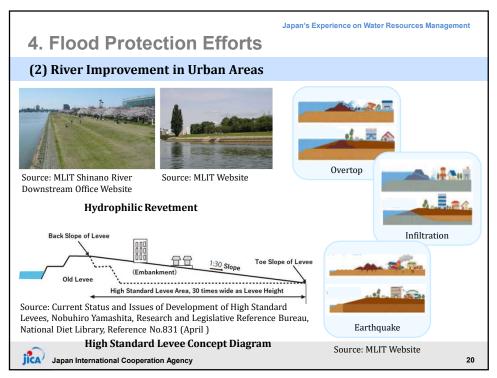


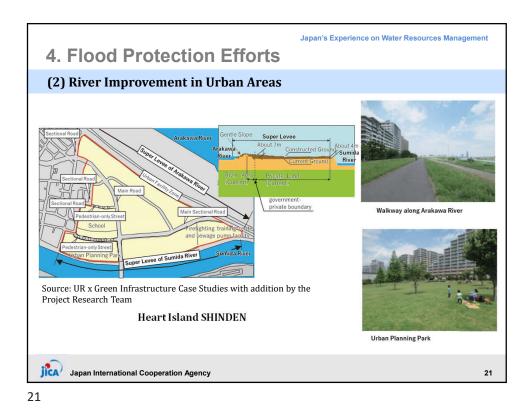


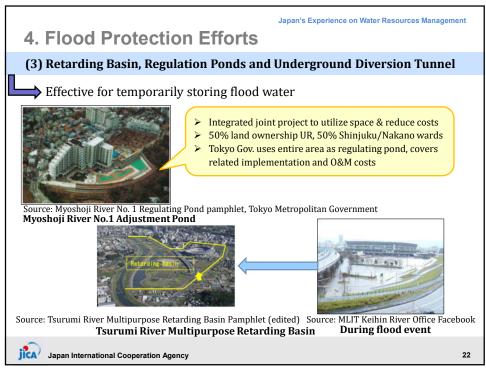


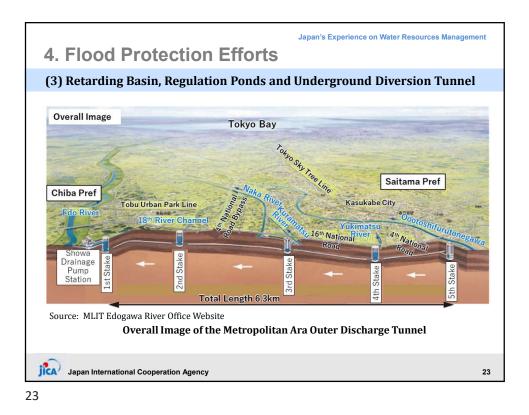






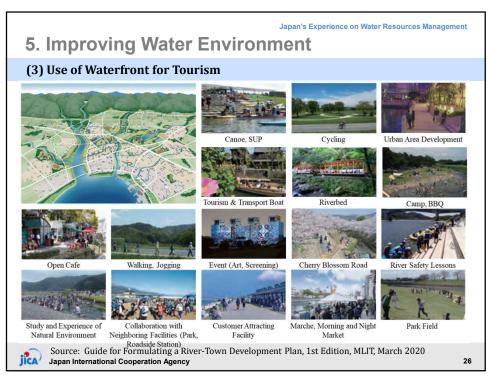


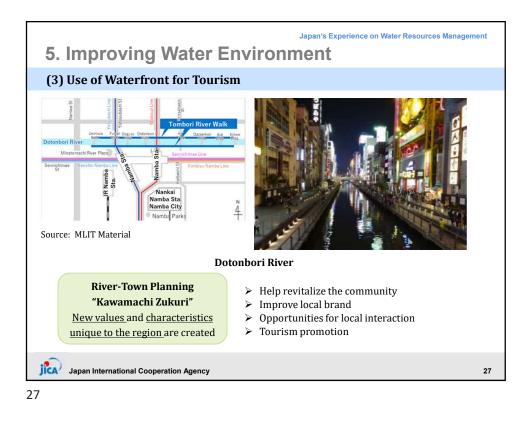


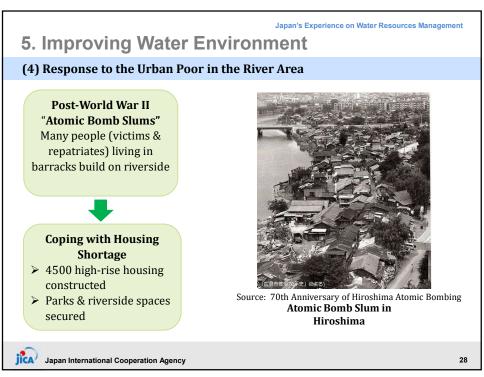


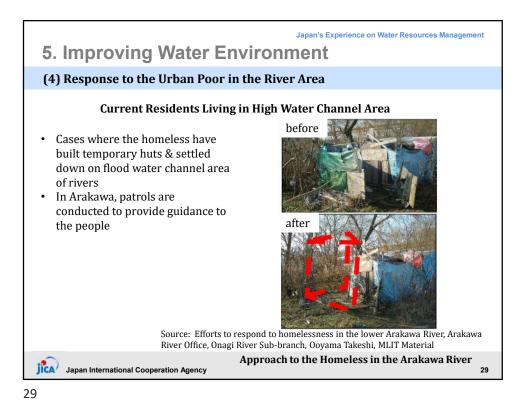


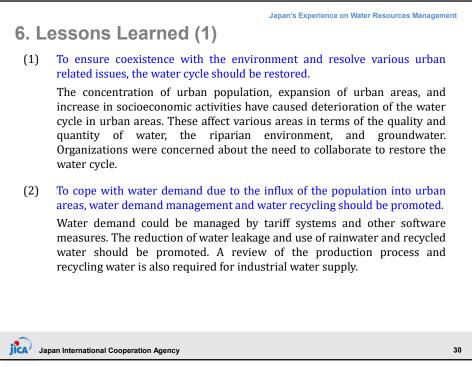


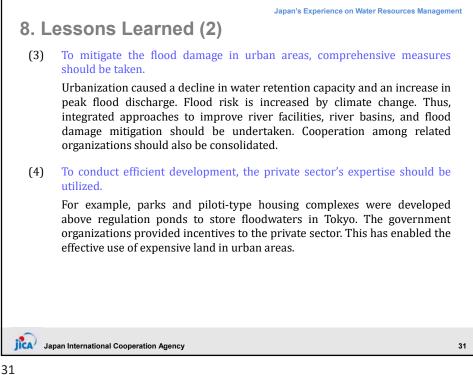


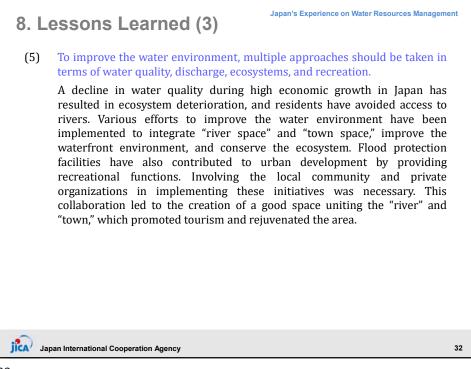


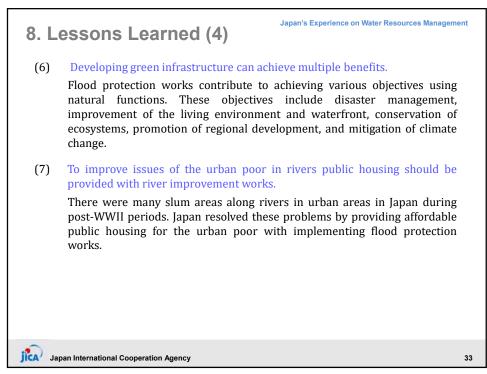


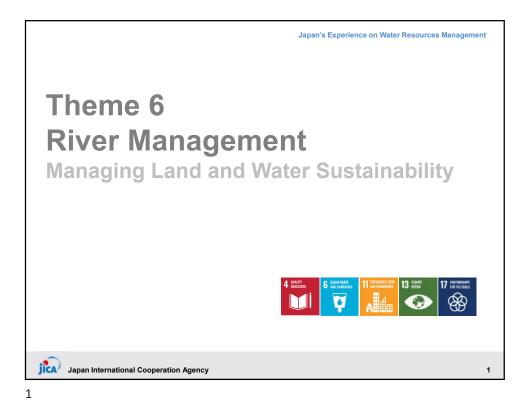


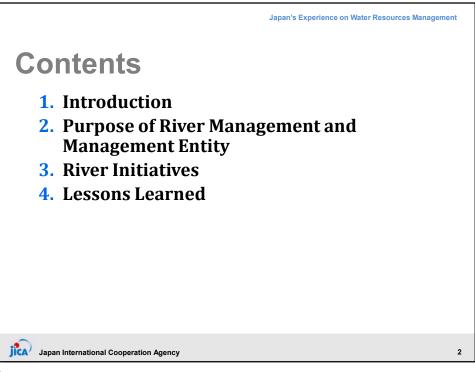


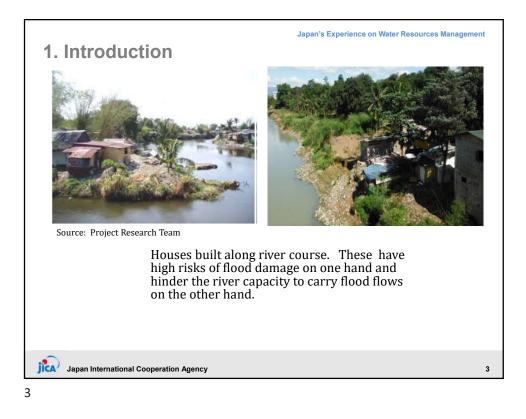


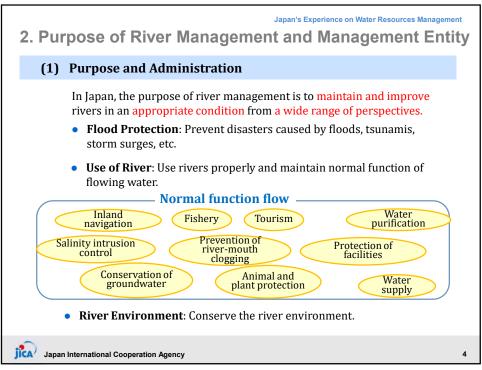


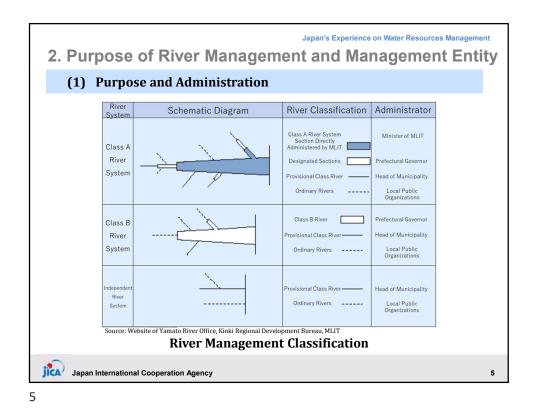


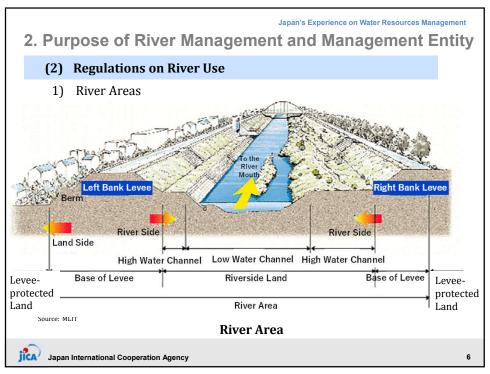


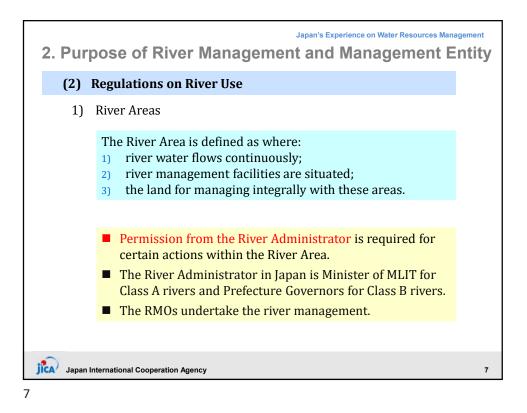


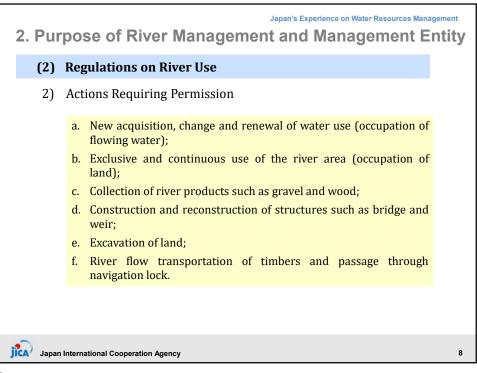


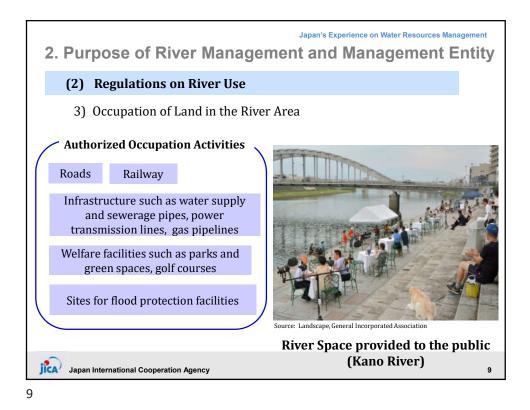




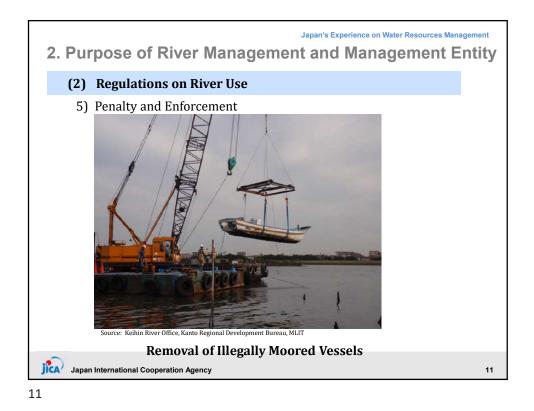


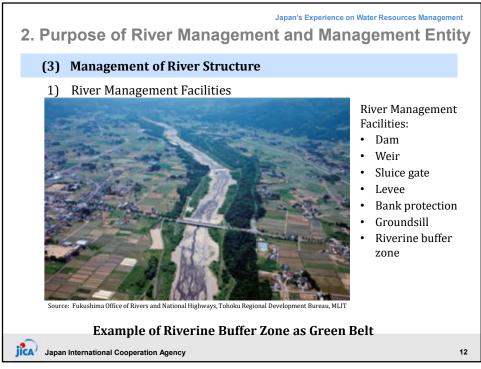


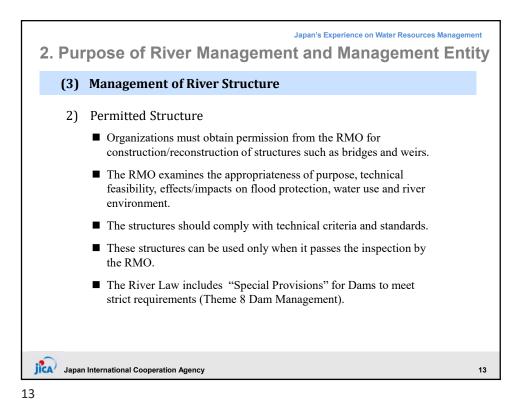


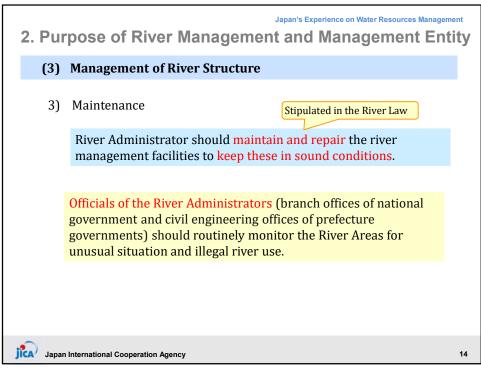


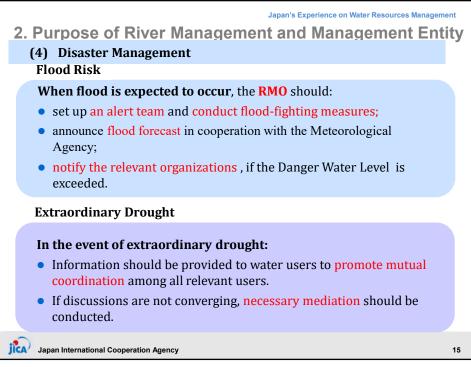






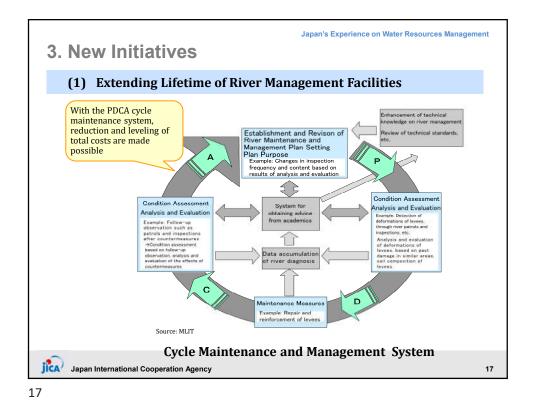




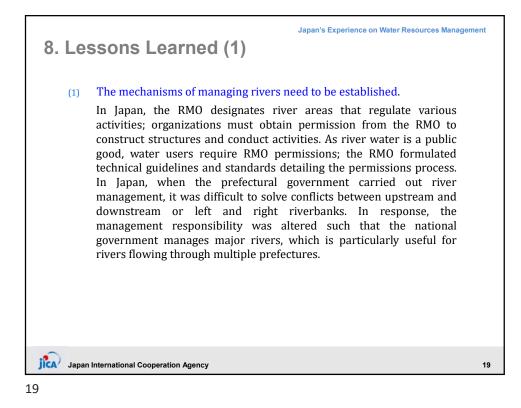


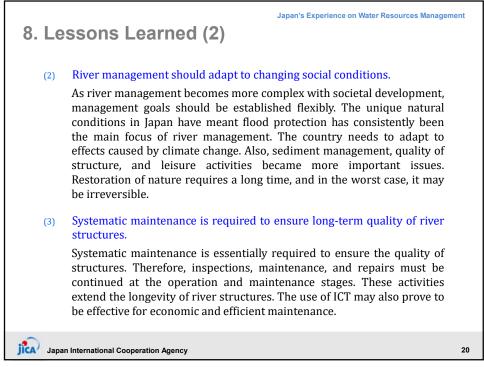


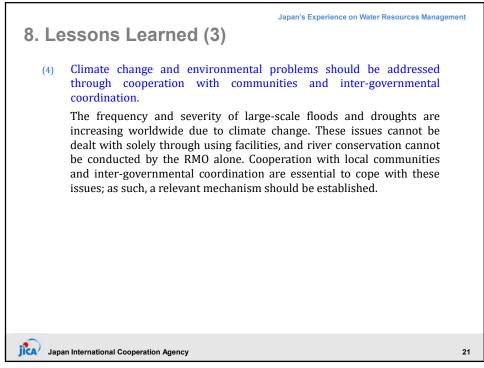


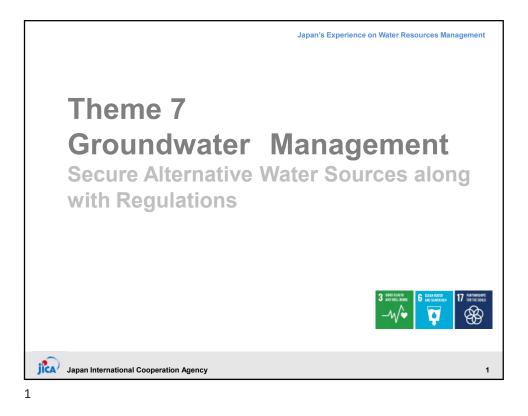


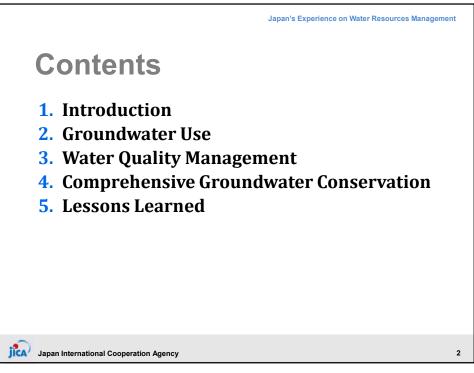
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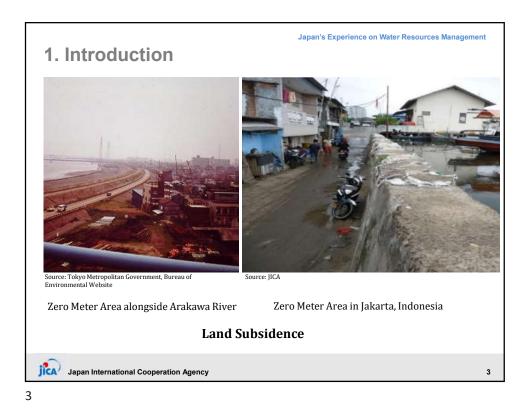


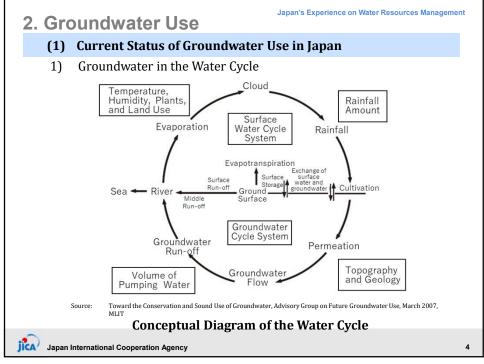


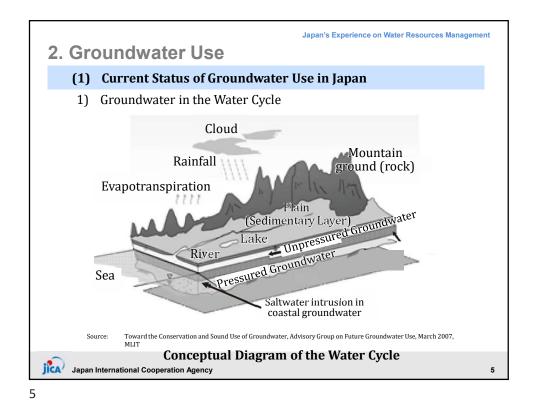


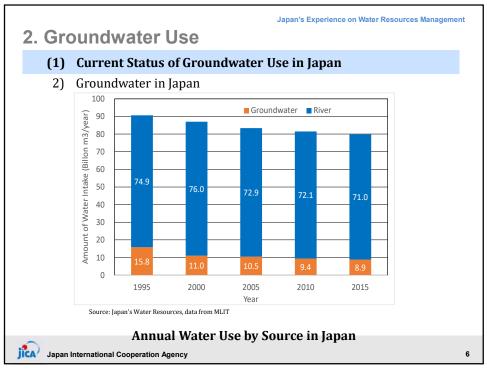


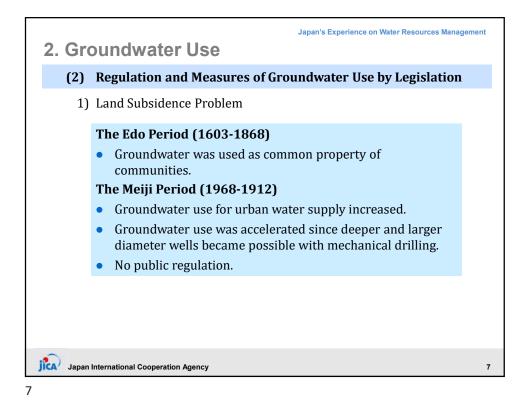


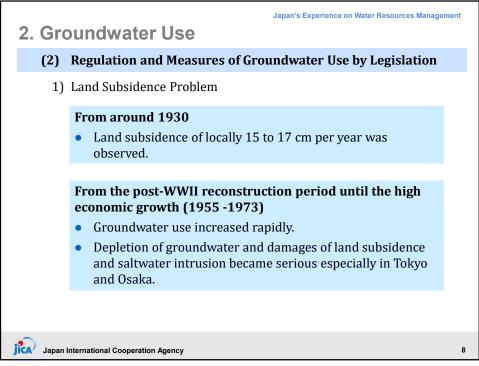


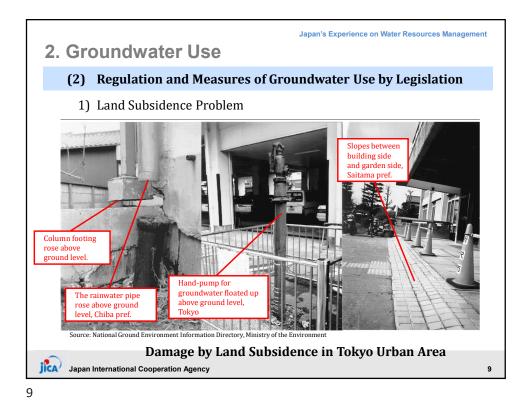


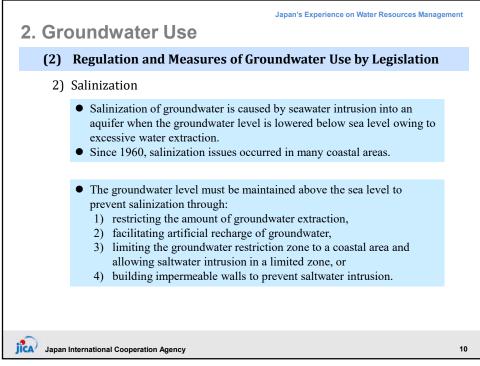


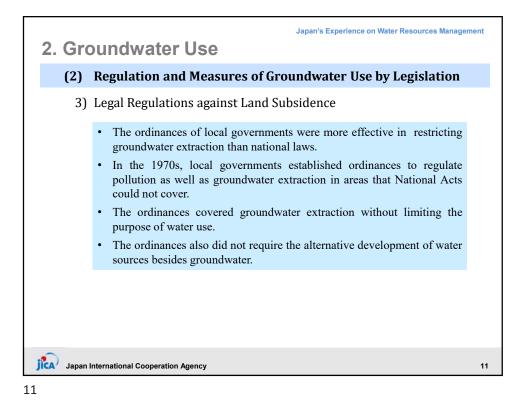


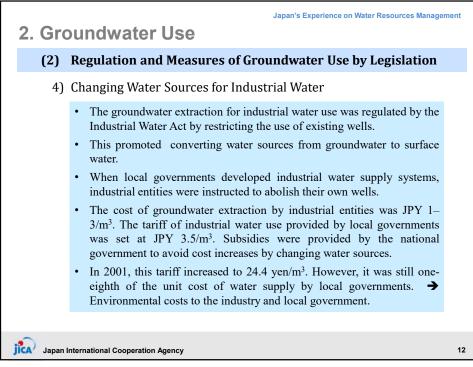


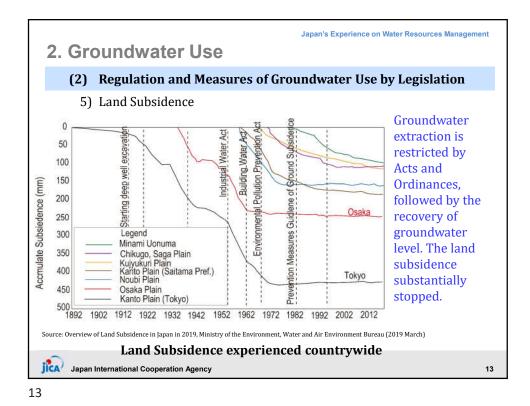


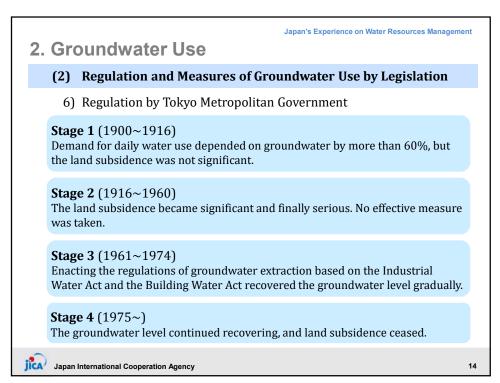


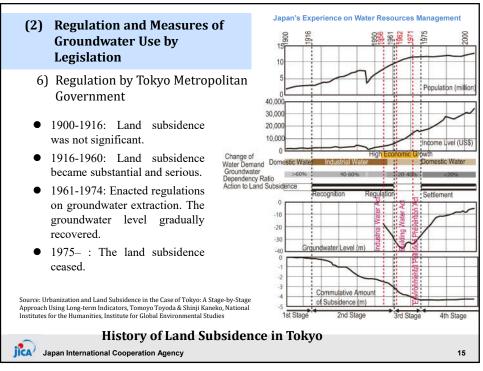


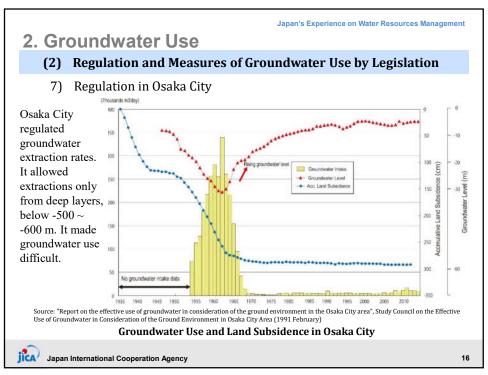


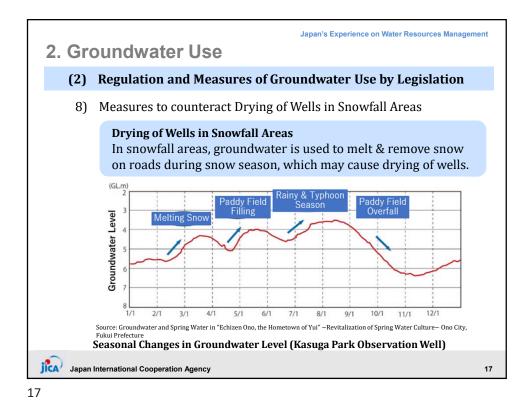


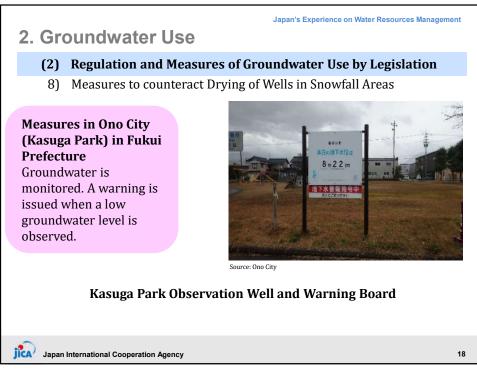


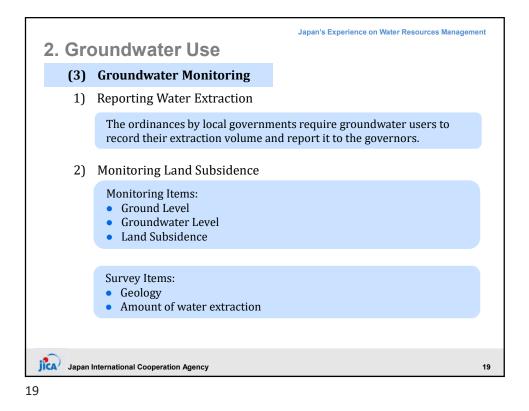


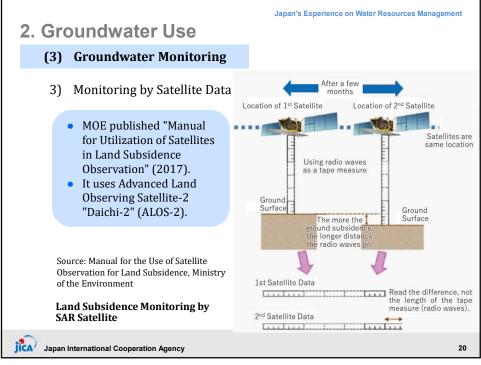


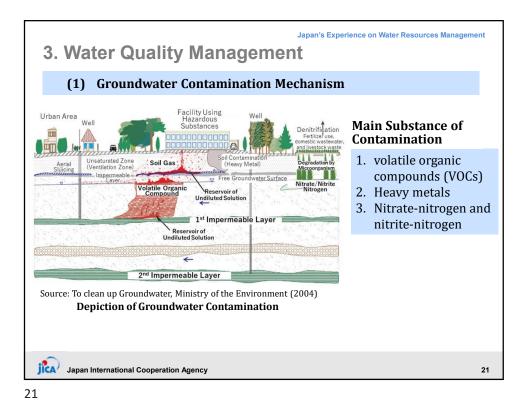


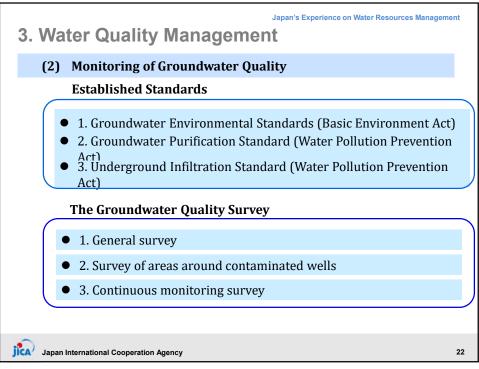


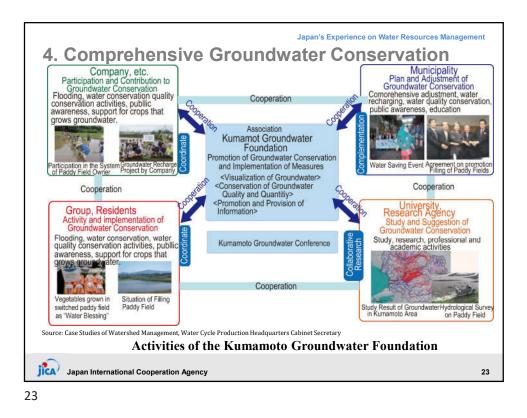


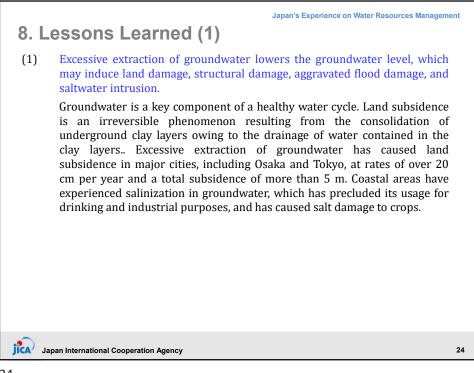


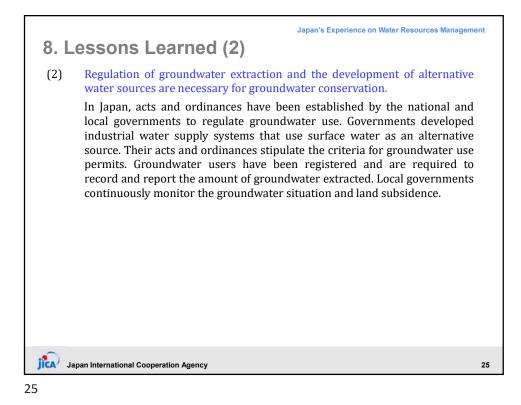


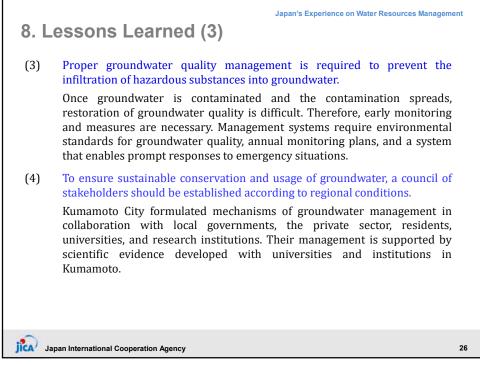


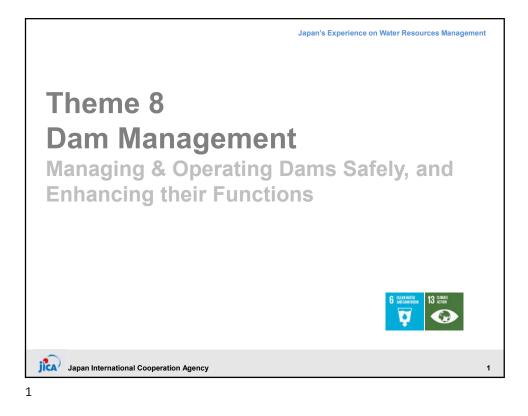


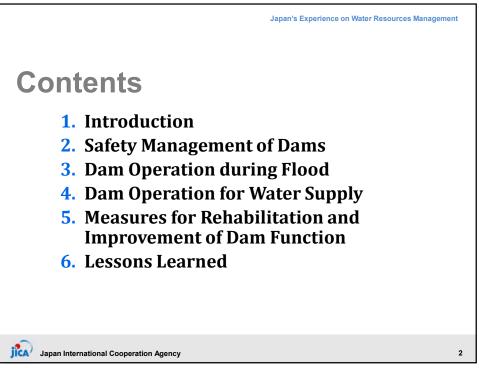


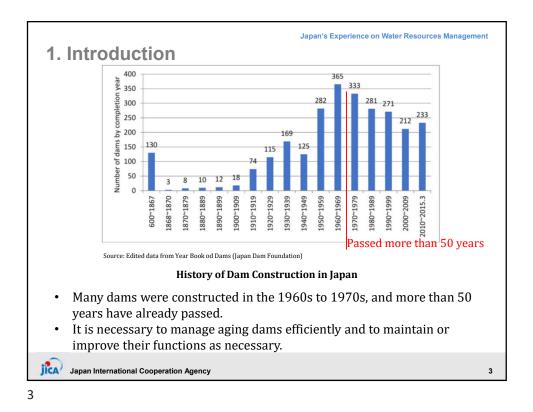




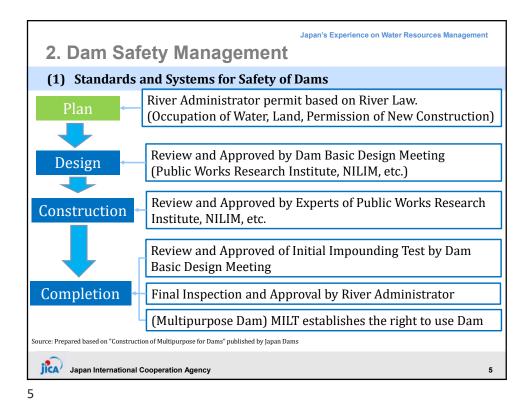


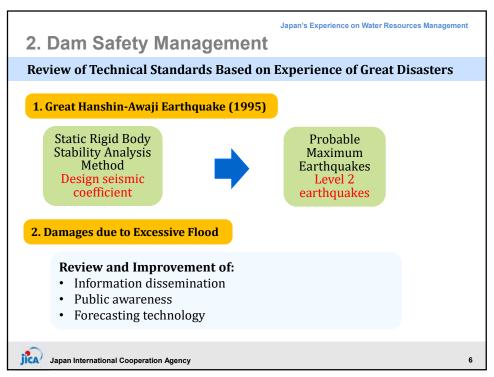


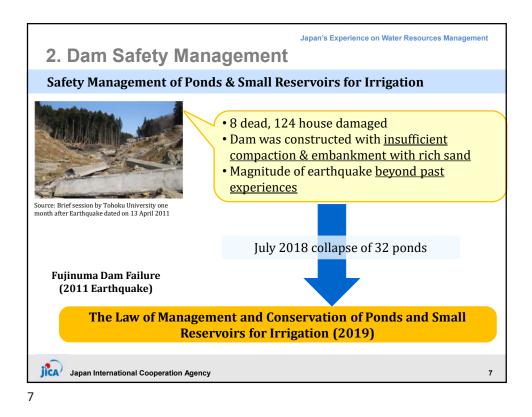


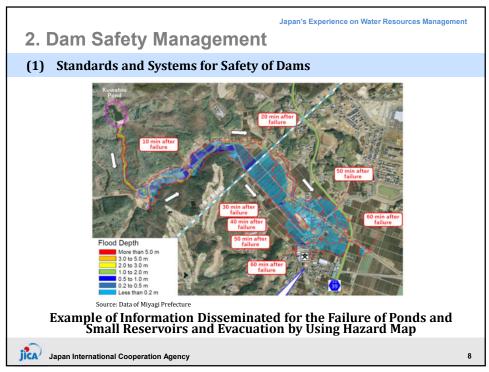


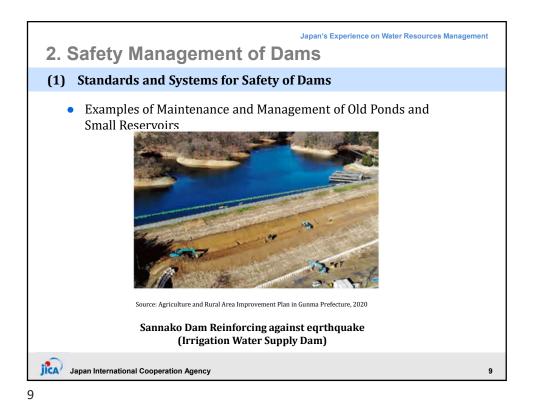
Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management					
(1) Standards and Systems for Safety of Dams					
Name of Dam	Comple- tion	Acci dent	Type of Dam	Purpose	Damages
Iruka-ike	1633	1868	Earthfill dam	Irrigation	941 dead
No.1 Regulating Pond, Komoro Hydropower Station	1927	1928	Buttress type concrete dam	Hydro-power	5 dead
Horonai Dam	1939	1941	Gravity type concrete dam	Hydro-power	60 dead
Heiwa-ike	1949	1951	Earthfill dam	Irrigation	75 dead
Yoake Dam	1952	1953	Gravity type concrete dam	Hydro-power	-
Taisyo-ike	1949	1953	Earthfill dam	Irrigation	105 dead
Wachi Dam	1968	1967	Gravity type concrete dam	Hydro-power	1 dead
Fujinuma Dam	1949	2011	Earthfill dam	Irrigation	8 dead/ missing
Source: Edited data from the documents of No.21 Expert meeting on future policy and concept Japan International Cooperation Agency of flood management					

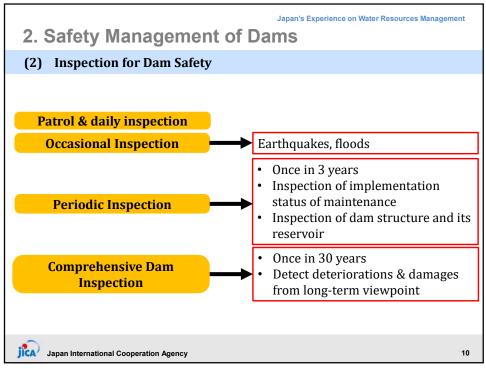


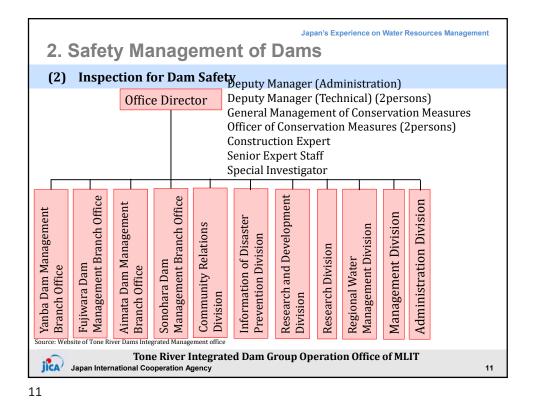


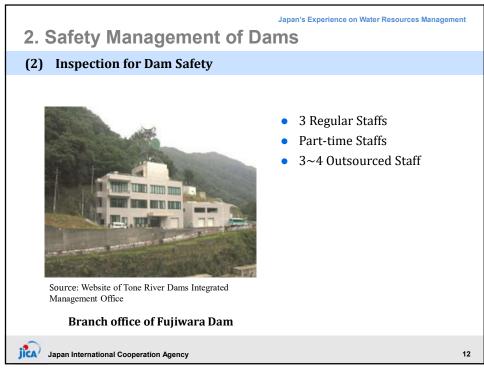


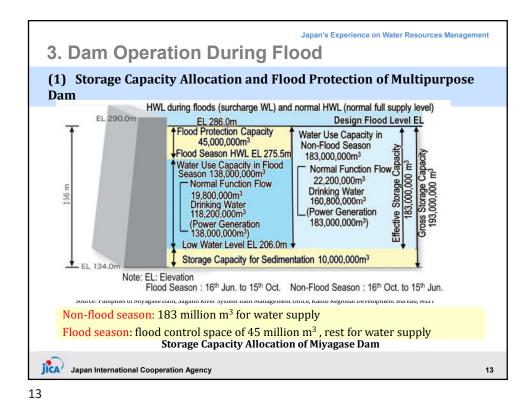


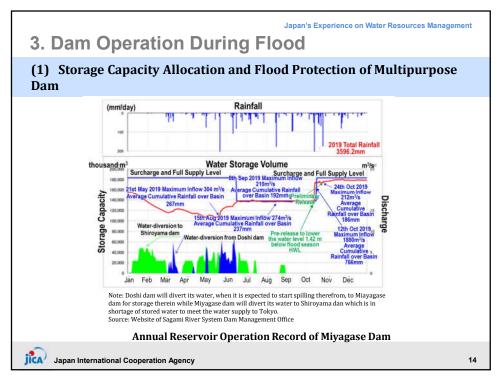


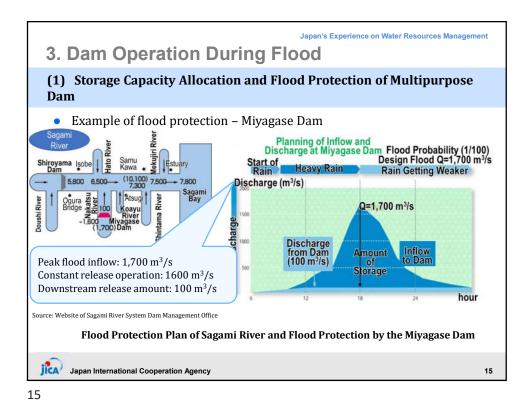


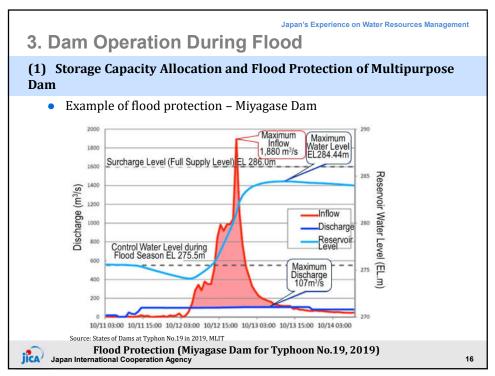


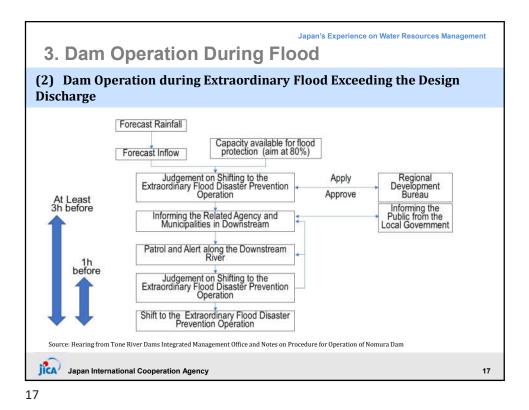


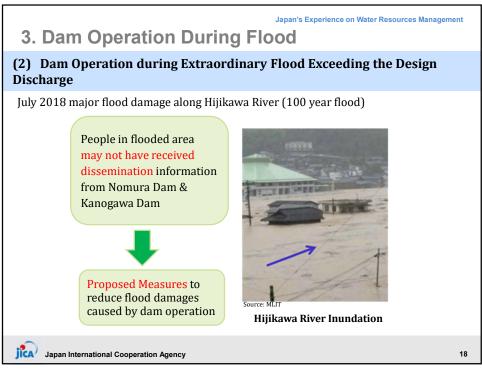


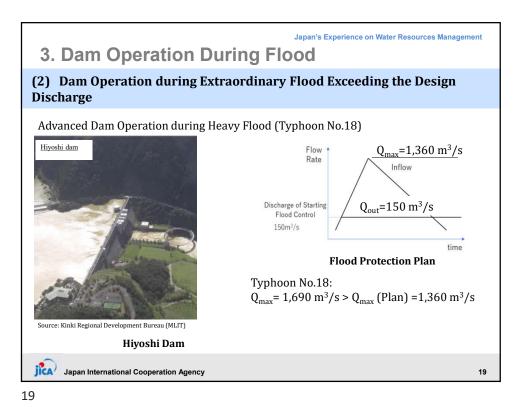


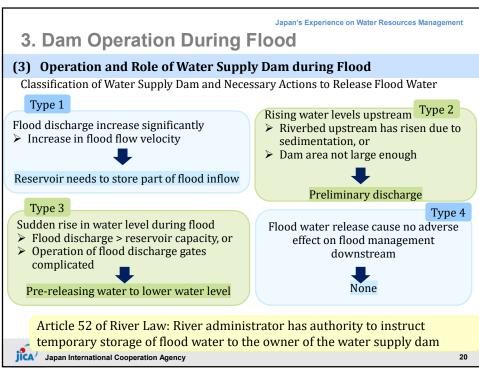


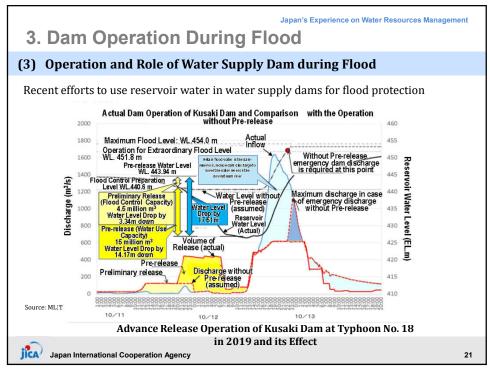


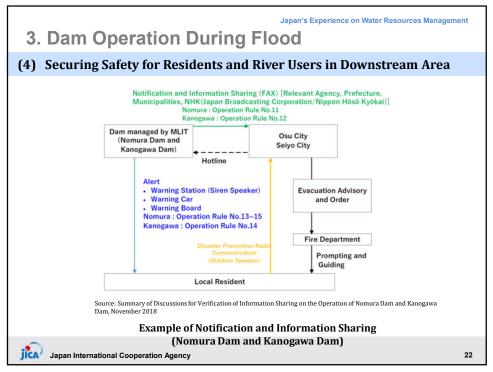


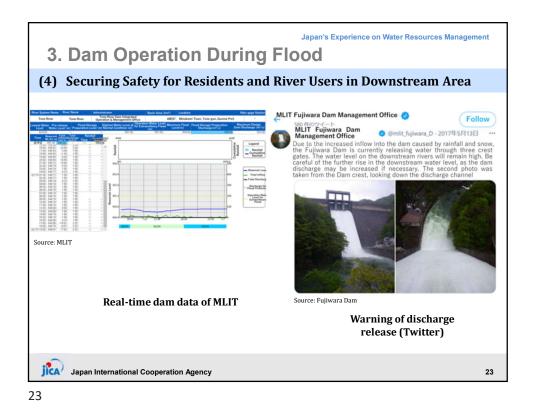


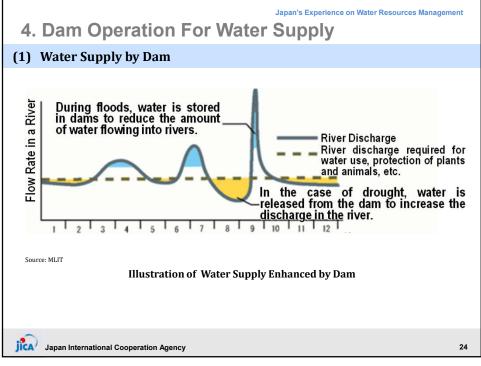


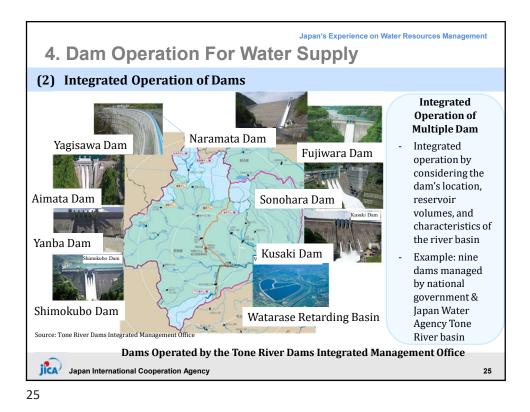


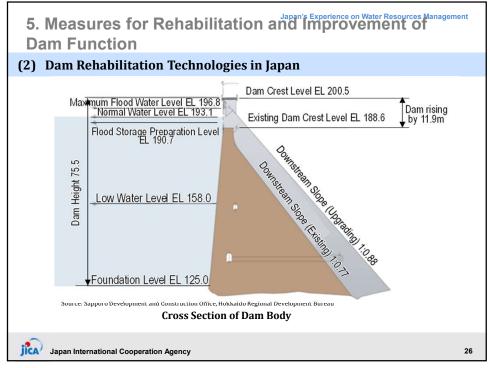


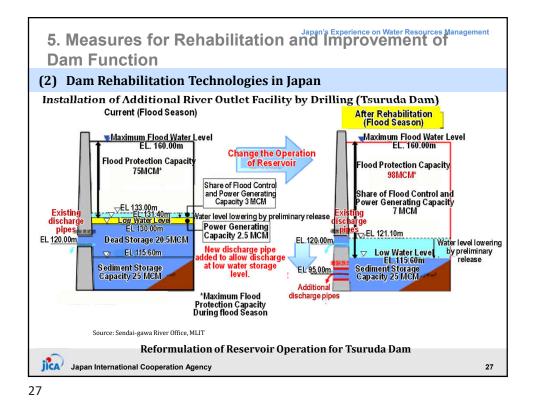


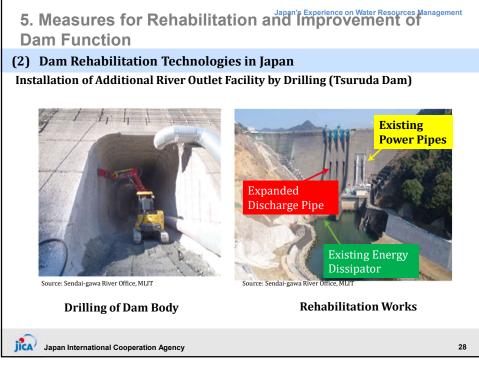


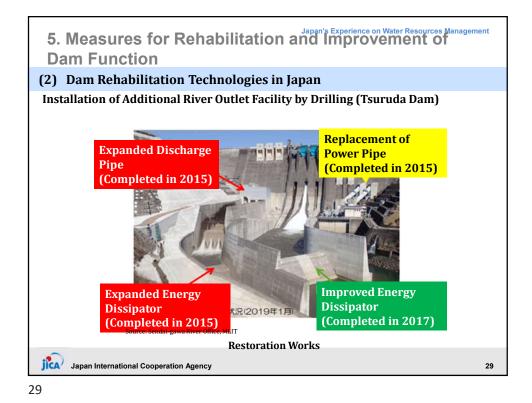


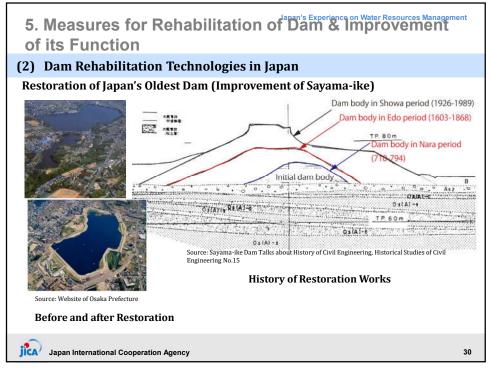


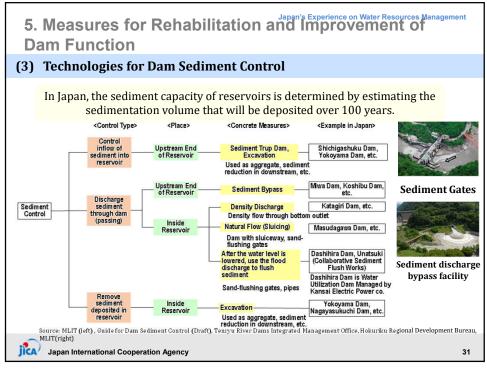




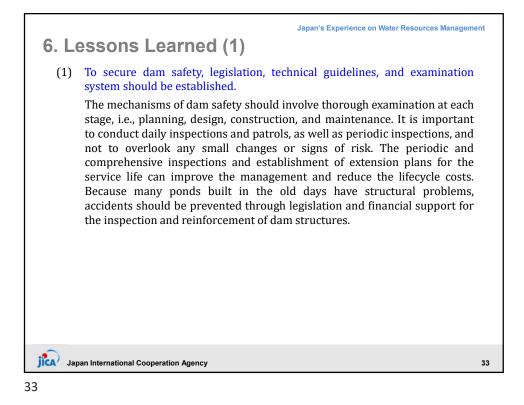


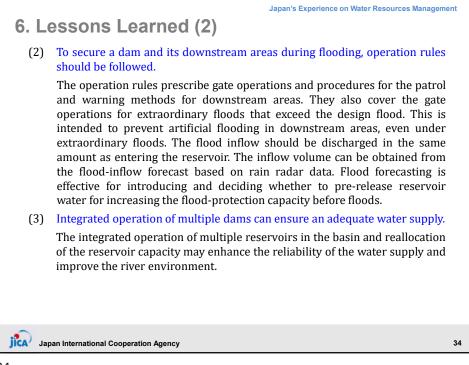


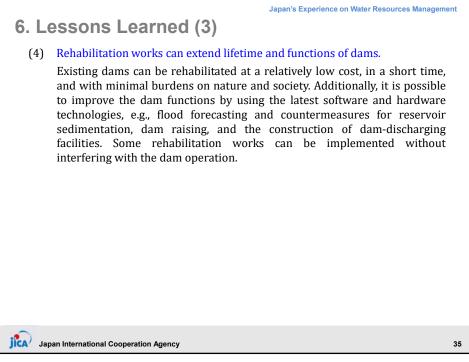


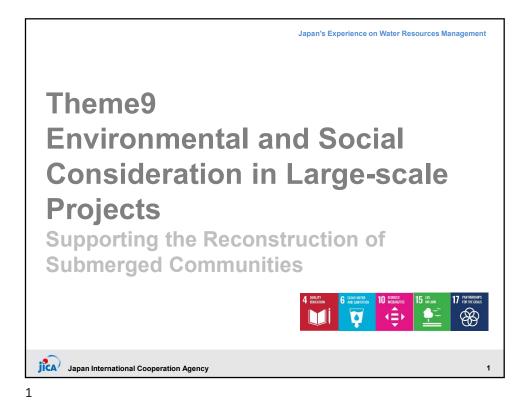


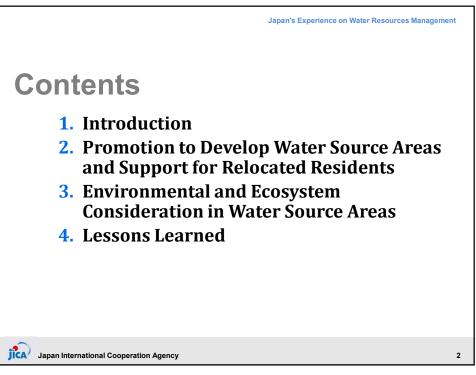


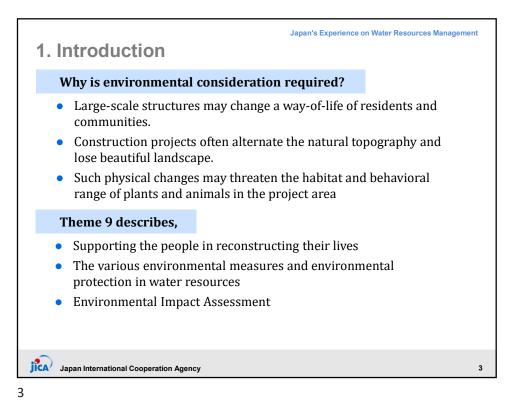


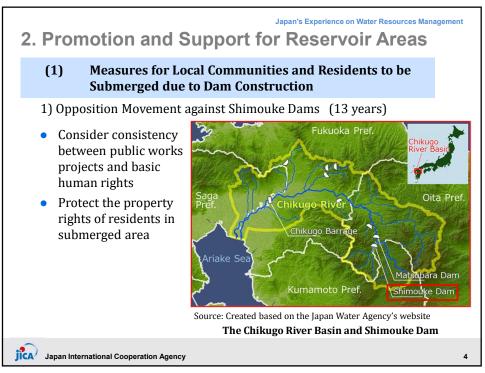


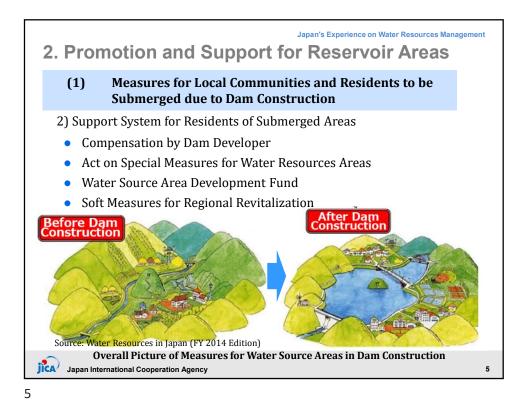


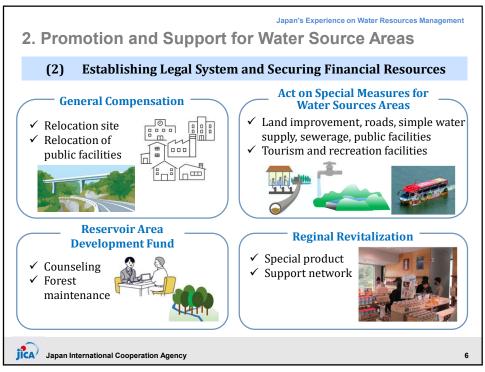


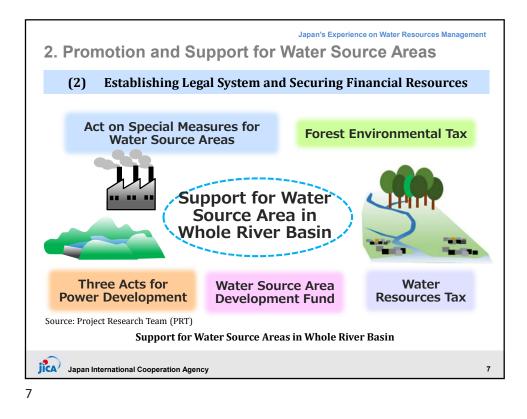


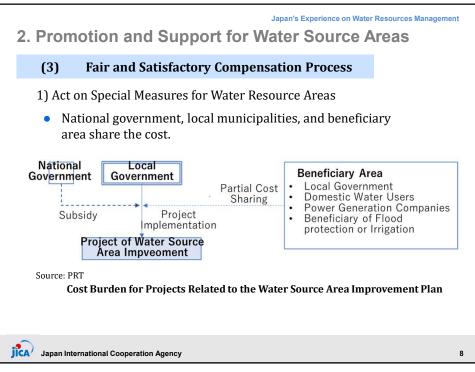


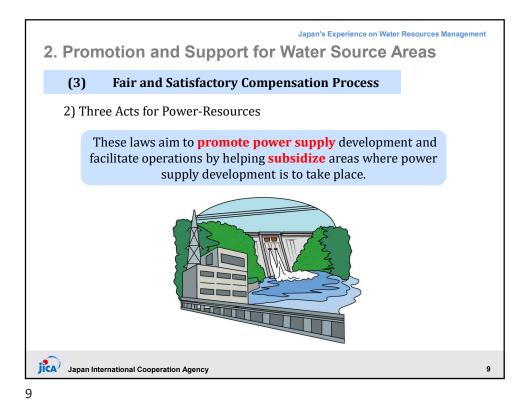


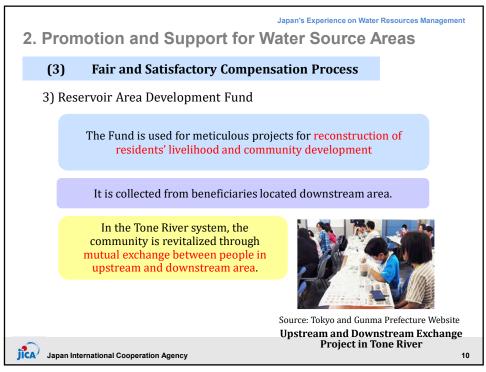


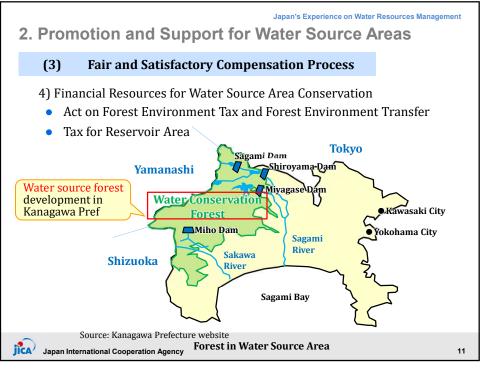


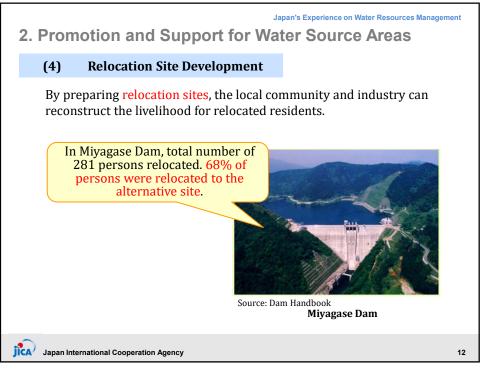


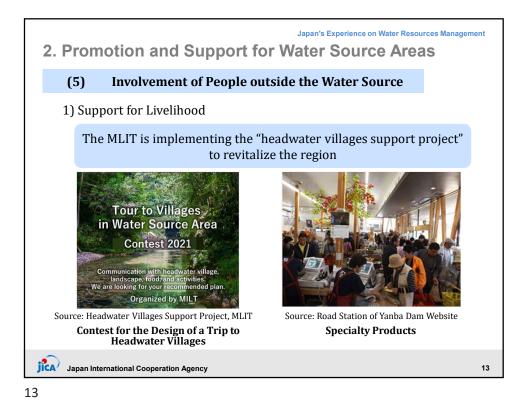


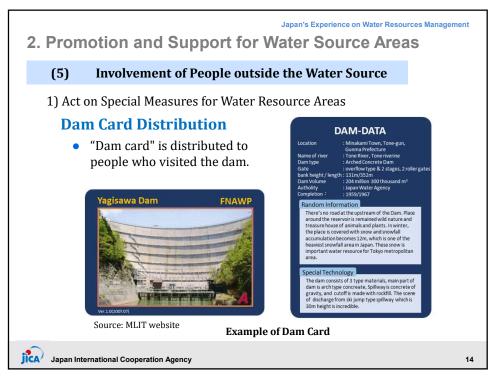


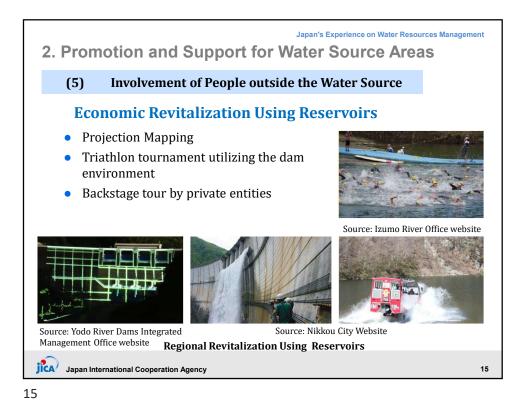


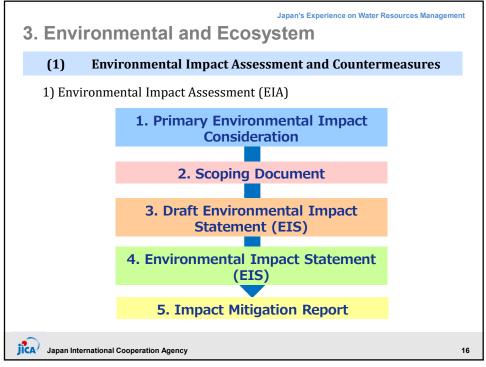


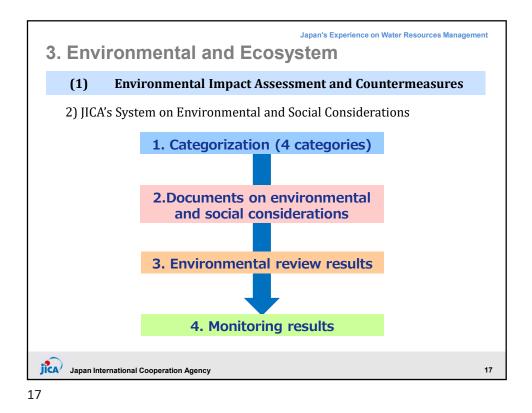




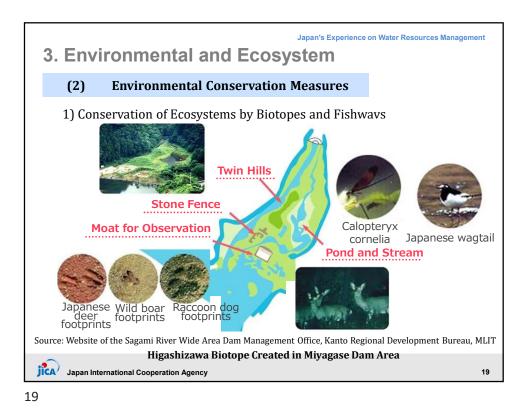




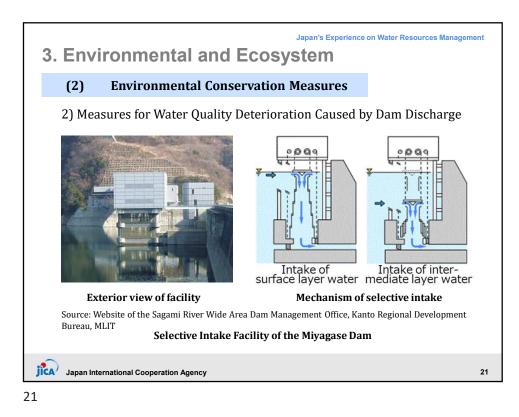


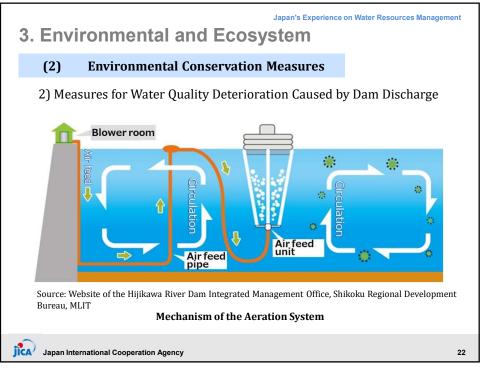


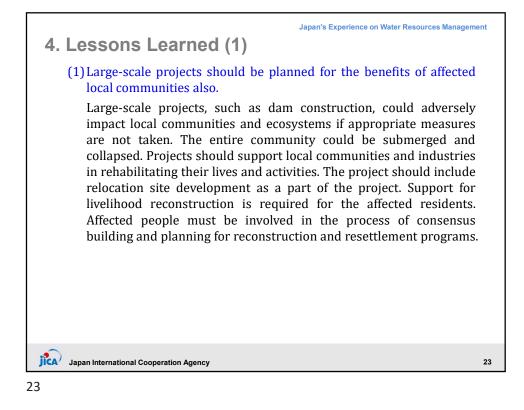


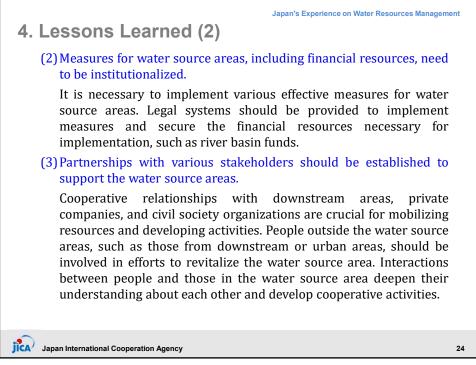


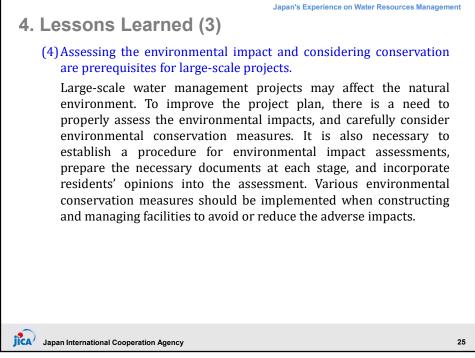


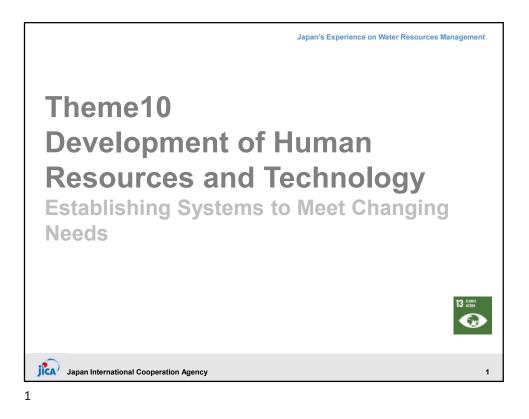


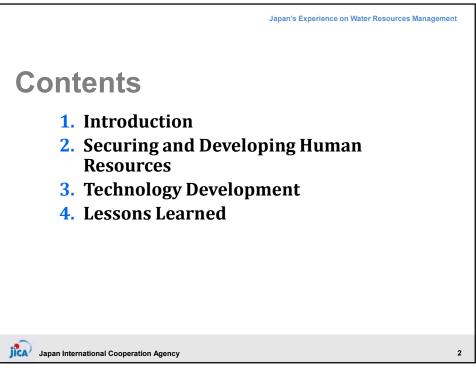


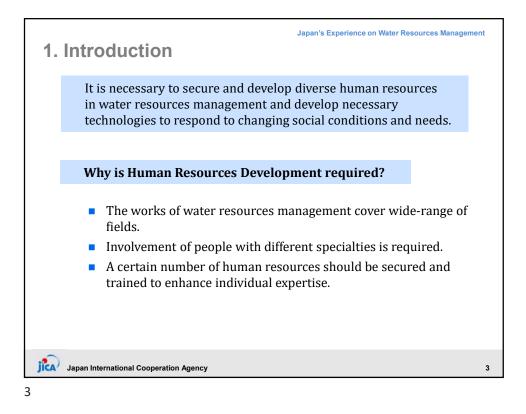


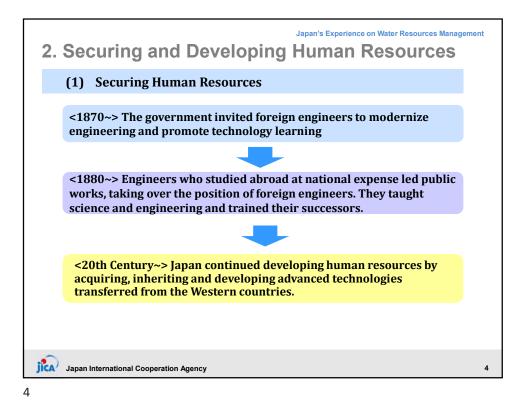


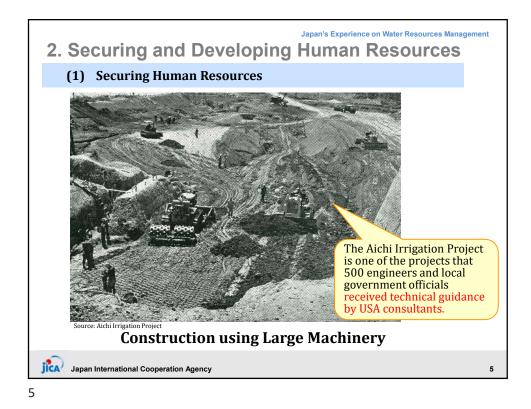


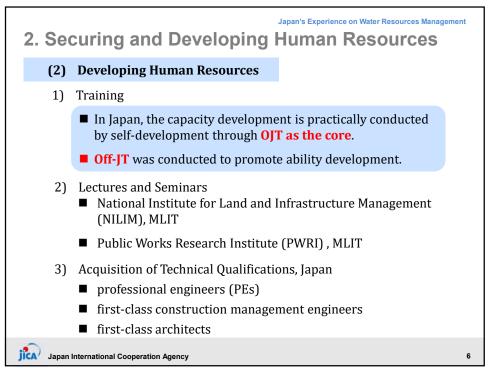


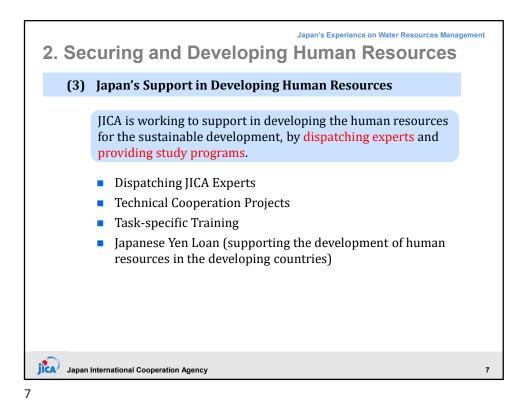




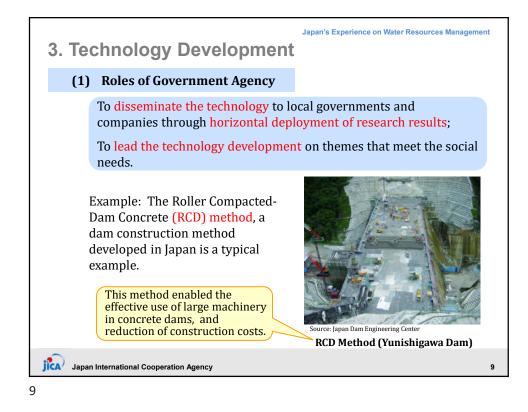


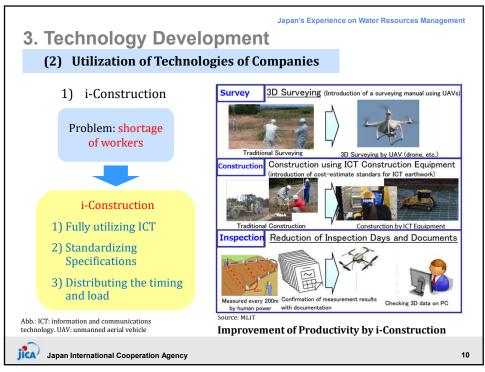


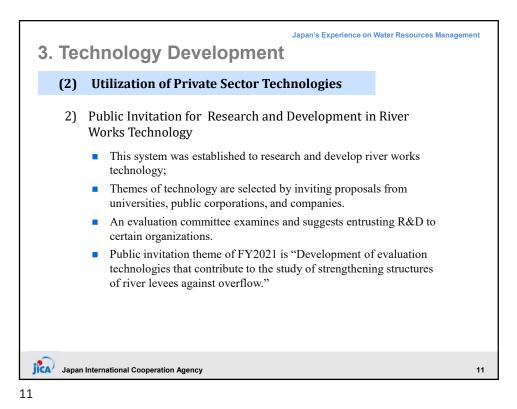


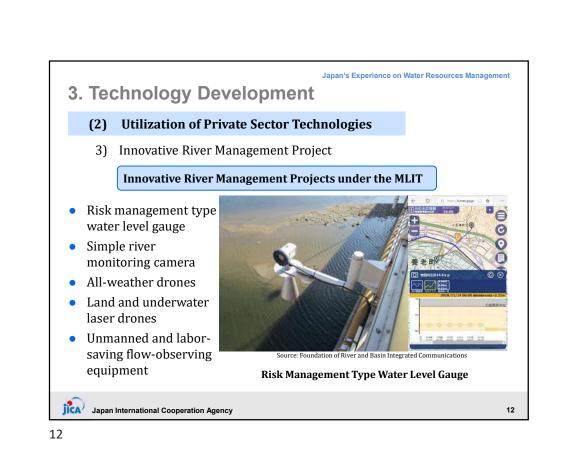


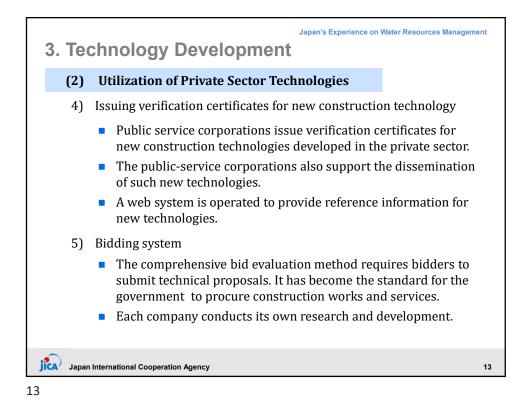


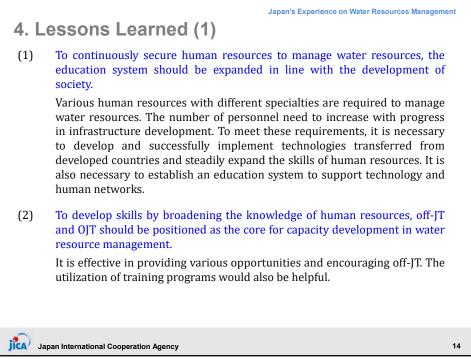


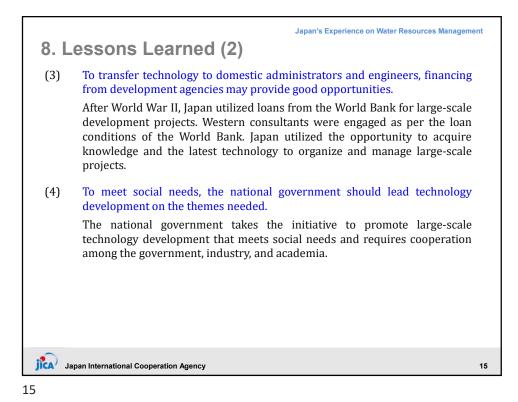












Japan's Experience on Water Resources Management 8. Lessons Learned (3) (5) The national government should strive for the dissemination of research results. It is important to establish unified technical standards that meet national requirements and share these standards among the parties concerned to ensure the quality of water resource management. (6) The government can encourage the private sector to invest in research and development. The Japanese government uses advanced technologies, including those from different fields, to rationalize water resource management through inviting research programs and technical proposal for bidding. Jica Japan International Cooperation Agency 16

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- 4. : Yamada Weir (Traditional Construction Method of Intake Weir), Asakura City
- 5. : River-Town Planning (Kamisaigo River), Fukutsu City
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- 7. : Tame River Basin Advisory Council, MLIT



