

Chapter 4 Yamaguchi Seminar

In postwar Japan, each Ministry and Agency of the government worked to raise the standard of living in rural areas. Especially, agricultural improvement centers, which was under the umbrella of the then Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, carried out activities focused principally on both “increase in production” and “improvement in livelihood”. While agricultural improvement extension workers provided instructions on the improvement in technology and on the increase in productivity, livelihood improvement extension workers promoted improvement in people’s livelihood. Livelihood improvement extension workers employed the method of uncovering daily problems that farm households had, and resolving the problems starting with those that farm households could deal with by self-help endeavors. This method was adapted to other sectors, and developed into the “livelihood improvement movement” beyond the framework of an agricultural improvement extension project. This livelihood improvement movement and roles of livelihood improvement extension workers as facilitators in postwar Japan would be considered as a successful example of pioneering participatory agricultural development, with a lot of important lessons for the agricultural and rural development approach in today’s developing countries.

Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has implemented the “Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan’s Rural Development Cooperation” since FY2001, focusing on experiences of those livelihood improvement activities. With the aim of presenting the results of this Study as well as of sharing experiences of and information on the movement to boost development in an area and the livelihood improvement, JICA held a seminar entitled “Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan’s Rural Development Cooperation” in Yamaguchi Prefecture, which has a profound understanding about international exchange and cooperation activities, as follows.

1) Date:

Wednesday, November 26, 2003 Morning session - 10.30A.M. to 0 30P.M. Afternoon session -
1 30P M to 4:00 P.M

2) Place:

Multi-purpose Hall, PALULU Plaza Yamaguchi

3) Participants: 97 persons

4) Summary:

Morning session

(1) Key-note lecture: "Inter-regional International Exchange and ODA"

Mr. Yoshihiko Kawano, Advisor, Japan Bank for International Cooperation
Recently I visited Thailand to hold a workshop there with people who promoted a movement to boost development in regions. Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC), for which I work, is one of bodies to implement official development assistance (ODA), and has been committed to the promotion of citizen-participatory ODA in cooperation with local governments in Japan in recent years. One of those JBIC's commitments is to offer assistance in rural development in Thailand by sharing Japan's experience of "*michi-no-eki* (a roadside station)" project. Now, I would like to provide a presentation on how JBIC has worked for this project in Thai as well as on some descriptions of communities and municipalities which have participated in those activities

In addition to an example of the rural development in Thailand, my presentation will somewhat include a wide range of participation of various communities in the international cooperation and exchange

International cooperation and assistance may convey an image of helping underdeveloped countries or

underprivileged people. However, “inter-regional international exchange” activities, which the speaker intends to promote are expected not only to be of service to and to be appreciated by the recipient side but also in a certain way to benefit the communities and people in Japan that are concerned with such activities.

In light of those elements I would like to express my opinions on “what the international cooperation and exchange is that harnesses local characteristics and specialties” as well as “how it shall be promoted for successful results” for Yamaguchi city and Yamaguchi Prefecture where participants of this seminar live.

The lecture, which I am going to deliver, will be composed of the followings themes

- 1) Thai version of “One Village, One Product” and other movements to boost development in the community
- 2) JBIC, “*michi-no-eki*” in Japan, and movements to boost development in the community of Thailand
- 3) Towns, villages and residents that participated in international cooperation with JBIC
- 4) Examples of community-based international cooperation and exchange
- 5) Does inter-regional international exchange also lead to a movement to boost development in the community on the Japanese side?
- 6) What activities are appropriate for Yamaguchi Prefecture and Yamaguchi city?

(2) Report: “Aims of ‘Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan’s Rural Development Cooperation’ Project and its Progress”

Mr Hiroshi “Kan” Sato, Senior Researcher, Institute of Developing Economies, JETRO

This is my first lecture to deliver in prefectures other than Tokyo, where I have had a few opportunities to hold seminars on international cooperation as well as on international cooperation and livelihood improvement. The reason why we chose Yamaguchi as the venue of this seminar is that it is one of the most advanced prefectures in the field of livelihood improvement activities. Actually, two years ago I

came here for a survey and conducted interviews at Nishiki and Abu towns on the introduction of Ms. Fujii, a panelist of today's seminar. Rising expectations for a seminar held in Yamaguchi has brought about realization of it today.

Those concerned with this Study, including myself, believe that livelihood improvement activities will include important lessons for village and rural development and other measures to eliminate poverty in developing countries at present. Situations in developing countries at present, of course, differ from those in Japan long ago. We are fully aware that the dispatch of livelihood improvement extension workers from Japan, where those workers achieved certain success before, will not necessarily work well in developing countries

I presume trainees from overseas especially those from developing countries sometimes come to Yamaguchi Prefecture. At some rural areas in this prefecture, a student from Thailand, for example, may have a home stay or a one from China may come to Japan and stay for study. It is the subject of my lecture that how those cases of acceptance of people from overseas should be linked to rural development in developing countries.

Now, I would like to offer a presentation with using PowerPoint data.

(3) Videos (Following videos were shown during lunch break)

- (1) "Water and Our Life", Ministry of Health and Welfare, 1952
- (2) "People's Efforts for Brighter Tomorrow", Takaono-*shuraku*, Kagoshima Prefecture, 1957
- (3) "Community Improvement by the Youth", Okanaru-*shuraku*, Ehime Prefecture, 1957

Afternoon session

(1) First example of activities presented: “My Involvement in Livelihood Improvement and a Japanese Language School”

Ms. Nobuko Kunimoto, Farm Life Improvement Expert

(Outline of the presentation)

Ms. Kunimoto is deep-rooted in Yamaguchi, and at the seminar introduced examples of activities based on her experiences there, along the following themes:

- 1) A gift from mothers -- Livelihood improvement --
- 2) Livelihood improvement activities which change with times
- 3) How to live in a community -- Learning for solution of livelihood and community issues-
- 4) Involvement in “*muraokoshi-kai* (club to boost development in village) -- Founding of Japanese language school --
- 5) Teaching is learning -- Recognition that we are all different
- 6) What I expect of the livelihood improvement in the future -- with enjoyment and hope, without losing sight of objectives -

(2) Second example of activities presented: “Experience in Participating in Cooperation in Livelihood Improvement in the Philippines and Laos”,

Ms. Yoko Yamada, Former Expert, The Training Service Enhancement Project

for Rural Life Improvement in the Philippines, JICA

(Outline of the presentation)

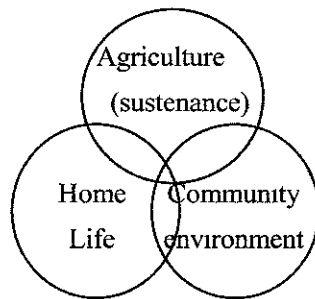
Ms. Yamada worked as an expert for JICA, and at the seminar delivered a presentation based on her experience as JICA expert as follows:

<1> Rural livelihood improvement project

- 1) Objectives of rural livelihood improvement project

- To improve a livelihood of a farm household (making the life better)
 - To nurture thinking farmers
- 2) Concrete measures
- Improvement in rural livelihood technology (use of agricultural products, farming labor, farm management, rural environment)
 - Encouragement of establishing and activating groups (livelihood improvement group, agricultural and community group, collaboration with groups in urban areas)
- 3) Method of the project
- Educational (technology + human resources)

<2> Scope of rural livelihood support



Rural livelihood consists of agriculture (sustenance), home life and community environment, and those aspects intertwine with each other. One can not lead a prosperous life without enhancing and achieving a balance among the three aspects.

- One can not enjoy a good life without income, but income does not necessarily guarantee a good life. - Farm households growing melons have no holiday -
- One can not work for production without maintaining one's good health. - pesticide application, overworking, accident during work -
- Agricultural machinery, seeds, and agricultural products harvested are stored in a house and are sometimes detrimental to a daily life. -- Agricultural products at an entrance, melons and lettuces in a room -

- Garbage and wastewater from houses are sometimes detrimental to agricultural production. - Household detergents, plastic bags -

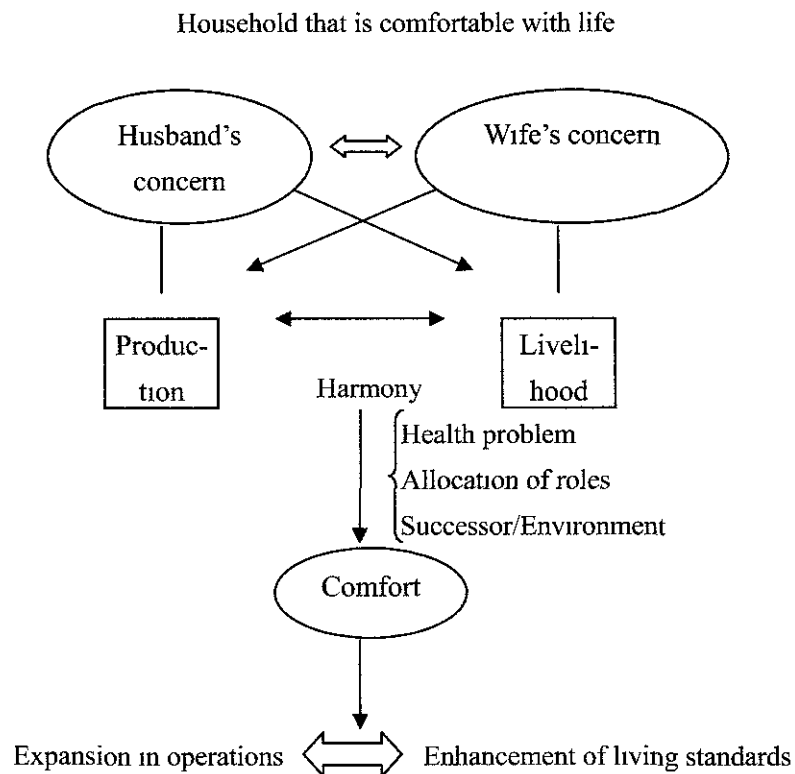
<3> Examples of activities for overseas technical cooperation in livelihood improvement

- Philippines: Improvement in livelihood and production of “ubi (a kind of yam)” growing farm households
- Laos: Group activities through livelihood improvement activities and seminar and workshop to expedite community activities

<4> Need of livelihood improvement in international cooperation>

Holistic nature of livelihood (livelihood improvement requires constant betterment)

“In an extension project, solution of one issue is followed by occurrence of two issues.” (Mr. Vines, General Manager, Extension Office, Arkansas, U.S.)



Spread of livelihood improvement method -- Overseas technical cooperation, activities in Japan

- To have a way to offer a presentation on extension - To apprehend a way of extension that is easy to understand for general residents, from a theoretical and scientific perspective -
- To prepare educational materials on livelihood and activities to boost development in a community - In English, including pictures, graphics and illustrations, videos, etc. -
- To gain language ability -- English, above all
- To train junior extension workers - To teach extension technology and methods to specialists and experts related to JICA -
- To increase the number of people who understand livelihood improvement -- To show theory and reality of residents-participatory livelihood improvement to administration officials in Japan, especially the authorities in charge of health and welfare, school and social education.

(3) Third example of activities presented: “Life in Bangladesh and Example of Rural Development Cooperation”

Mr. Hisashi Takamitsu, Chief, Planning and Promotion Office,
Tabuse Agriculture and Forestry Office, Yamaguchi Prefecture

(Outline of the presentation)

Mr. Takamitsu worked as a Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) volunteer as well as JICA expert, and at the seminar delivered a presentation on his experiences as follows

<1> What brought him to developing countries.

Participation in JOCV (from December, 1986 to December, 1989)

<2> Overview of Bangladesh

- Official Name: People’s Republic of Bangladesh
- Political System Republic

- Capital Dhaka
- Area: 144,000 km² (approximately twice as large as Hokkaido)
- Population: 129,250,000 (as of 2001)
- Race Bengalese
- National Language· Bengali
- Religion: Islamism - 88.1% Hinduism - 10.5% Buddhism - 0.6% Christianity - 0.3%
- Brief History: In the 16th century after Great Akbar of Mogul islamicized in earnest
 1876 -- Colonized by U.K.
 1947 -- Attained independence as a part of Pakistan (East Bengal)
 1971-- Attained independence as a country (Bangladesh)

<3> Life in Bangladesh

- Characteristics of traditional agriculture (multiple cropping centering on rice cropping adapted for flooding)
- Life in a village
 Literacy rate· Men - 49% Women - 26% (Reference: State of the World's Children 2000, UNICEF)
 Average life expectancy: Men - 56.9 Women - 56 (as of 1998)
 Infant mortality rate. 107.5/1,000 infants (as of 1998)
 Public health service (measures against arsenic, etc.)

<4> Examples of village development cooperation

Participated in JICA-Bangladesh “Administrative Support Plan for Resident-participatory Rural Development” project (from December, 2002 to January, 2003)
 Support to acceptance of trainees in Japan

(4) Panelist report 1, “Experience as a Livelihood Extension Worker in Japan and Assistance to Developing Countries”

Ms. Chieko Fujii, Former Counselor of Agriculture and Forestry Department,
Yamaguchi Prefecture

Livelihood improvement is an activity to look at livelihood as it is and to make it better. In postwar Japan, this activity started with improvement of “*kamado* or cooking stove” with the aim of raising the social standing of women in rural areas and promoting public welfare. Then, it was gradually spread outward to the activities such as the collective rice planting and the running of a communal cooking, which progressively contributed to strengthening community agriculture and to strengthening the whole village itself, in the end enabling the women to participate in building the community and the village. In other words, it represents the history in which the domain of women’s activities has evolved from “an individual household” to “the society”

With the constant changes of the times, people’s senses of value and livelihood problems greatly differ age to age. As long as we live, there is no such a thing as the situation where we need no more improvement in livelihood

Livelihood improvement is a universal and timeless concept of improving livelihood into better one.

A livelihood improvement group provides a stage to better ourselves. This includes acquiring of know-how and skills to improve ourselves such as those required for expressing our opinions in front of people. Members, who share the same feeling of “peers are precious” and “that is what I want”, are able to work together for better livelihood in rural areas and cheer up each other. This would be the same in developing countries

Each of us lives with a connection to somebody else Living a better life requires changes in an

environment surrounding us, community where we live, and our family. In rural Japan, there were women who began the first but powerful steps. They led the movement to boost the village economy and persuaded other women to participate in it while exploring “their ways to live”, that is, the way to live and take root in their community.

In rural areas, women have shared the concept of “livelihood improvement” and sixty-year of its practice. Every one of them has learned something from daily life, grown with livelihood improvement taken as a lifelong goal, and endeavored to establish their own selves.

“Improvement” means living better life. Its activities provide an arena to learn about livelihood and also a stage to dare to live in our own way of life. Currently in Japan, it is urgently being called for to renovate agriculture and revitalize villages, based on the kind of life unavailable in cities which should be realized by the efforts using “hands and legs” and “mind and heart”. In this respect, the situation of Japan is the same with that of developing countries, even though the themes to be adopted may differ from each other.

(5) Panelist report 2, “Role of Community in International Contributions”

Ms. Kinko Horike, Advisor, Rural Women Empowerment and Life Improvement Association

One of international contributions is to remove obstacles to livelihood improvement in developing countries to turn the vicious circle in livelihood into a virtuous one.

Among the obstacles due to historical consequences and geographical circumstances, there are those caused by wars and natural disasters. The communities which have been exposed to and afflicted with many of such obstacles cannot adequately cope with them to lift themselves by their own efforts alone. At present, wars and natural disasters bring about more and more new obstacles to life. Natural disasters here include earthquakes, change in climate conditions and epidemics of new diseases. In respect of wars, terrorisms, which stem from religious conflicts or ethnic feuds, are becoming sustained. Those problems are beyond

the reach of residents and require appropriate responses at a national government level. although it will be difficult to solve them with such responses

If everyday efforts on the part of residents of a community are able to control obstacles to any degrees, the speaker believe that the consideration for the following five conditions is the prerequisite:

Ensuring of water supply -- drinking, daily life, agricultural water, etc

Development of self-sufficiency in foods

Ensuring of means to earn money to cover cost of living

Improvement in medical care system

Improvement in educational system

The conditions, which were tentatively numbered, interact with one another according to circumstances in each community. Therefore, it is hard to decide the order of them. If an action on one's own initiative is the beginning of the solution, improvement in education system should come first. In many cases, education to juveniles tends to be given higher priority. However, it is also imperative to educate adults in order to turn the wheels of society. The problem here is the lack of the instructors who can educate adults. One of somewhat successful examples of such instructors in Japan is the extension system and extension workers. Among them is the livelihood improvement extension worker when it comes to livelihood improvement. At present, the extension workers are always the target of budget cut, and have never been able to meet the demand in Japan in terms of the number. Under the tough conditions, they have accomplished certain results for 50 years.

In many developing countries, there is a huge gap between cities and rural areas. Cities provide comfortable living conditions through electricity, gas and water systems as well as improved social infrastructure such as road. As we ride out to rural areas, however, the car has to run on an unpaved road

instead of paved one, and we get the strong impression that the urban culture has not yet reached there.

When arriving after a drive on an uneven road, we are welcomed by farmers with a great smile

I heard that those who came to Japan from developing countries felt relieved when they, after spending a few days in urban areas, visited rural areas which abounded in the greenery of paddy and upland fields, mountains, and forest.

What role can a local community play in the international contribution? Three aspects regarding the interaction between the visitors from developing countries and the host community could be cited as the key elements by which the visitors can profitably learn lessons. They are: to see how the community is dealing with the characteristics of the locality; the direct contact with concrete examples of inventive ideas; the perception of an integrated way of running the whole community. Through direct contact with farm households, people from developing countries feel situations there in their bones. While having many questions due to language barrier and difference in religion as well as customs, they start thinking about why farm households can do those things in Japan. They may sometimes give thought to similarities with those in their countries and take some hints about improvement.

A family is a unit in the society, each member of which aspires to get enough food and drink, work as well as take some rest, maintain clean environment, and continue to live peacefully. The visitors can find there many factors for "living better life" which are common with those in their own family at home. Such development of sympathy should translate into the international contribution

(6) Panel discussion and Q & A

Opinions were actively exchanged, based on the key-note lecture by Mr. Kawano of JBIC --various styles of efforts in international cooperation around Japan--, a report by Mr. Sato of Institute of Developing Economies -- background of the movement involving a community as a whole, like that of livelihood

improvement or livelihood improvement group --, and activity examples introduced by Ms. Kunimoto, Ms Yamada and Mr Takamitsu

Advice and ideas offered by panelists were: “As often mentioned regarding the livelihood improvement, the essence of the approach, in which people try to solve problems for themselves, or extension workers, by various means, induce them to do so, contains useful elements.”; “I was a host family of a student whose way of thinking was fundamentally different from ours due to the national policy and system. But the student had a well-defined goal and understood our intent and good faith, which gave us a great pleasure”; “It is important for an accepting side to visit a country where a trainee lives to understand the current situations in the country, what problems it has, and the aims of training, before the acceptance of training”, “It is effective to provide trainees with an opportunity to talk to members of rural women’s group for understanding of why Japanese women can carry out such activities at present”, and “In Malaysia, a resident, who was making paper under the instruction of an extension worker, showed me the paper she made, saying ‘I have tried and failed many times to make paper, and managed to get this’. Try something new. For good or bad, this will change livelihood a little, and will give someone motivation for starting another try”.

Questions and requests from participants at the hall were “What efforts or devices lead to ‘thinking’ rural women?”, “It would be necessary to provide training for an accepting side before it accepts trainees”, “Livelihood improvement extension workers’ know-how is valuable and should be passed on to not only people in developing countries but also to young people in Japan”

Ms Fujii, a panelist of the seminar, made a positive suggestion to set up an incorporated nonprofit organization (NPO) that conducts international cooperation in the exploitation of “the treasure” that is livelihood improvement, at a private-sector level.

Chapter 5 Study in Japan

5-1 Outline of Okinawa Prefecture study

1) Dates:

March 3 to 6, 2003 (4 days)

2) Visited places:

Yomitan-village, Yaeyama Agricultural Improvement and Extension Center, Akaishi-*shuraku*, Akaishi Community Center, etc

3) Team members:

Hiroshi “Kan” Sato, Chairman of Committee (Senior Researcher, Institute of Developing Economies, JETRO)

Tomoko Hattori, Water Research Co

Miho Ota, Member of Committee (Doctoral program, The University of Reading, UK)

Masafumi Ikeno, Researcher, KRI International Corp.

Yukiko Maki, Member of Committee (Economic Affairs Division, Higashi Village Office, Okinawa Prefecture)

4) Details:

The team provided cooperation for the training conducted in Okinawa Prefecture for a C/P who visited Japan as a C/P trainee from “Project for Strengthening Regional Health Network of Santa Cruz Prefecture, Bolivia” under the jurisdiction of Medical Cooperation Department, JICA. With cooperation of Okinawa Prefecture and Okinawa Nursing Association, the team held a seminar on “livelihood and public health in the community”. In addition, the team performed an interview survey with a leader of “*Seikatsu-Kaizen-*

Kenkyukai (Livelihood Improvement Study Group)”, the first livelihood extension worker in Ishigaki Island, women entrepreneurs and farm households of pioneers. Upon the completion of training for the C/P (March 14), an evaluation meeting was held at the International Medical Center of Japan, and members of this Study Committee attended it.

5) Itinerary:

Date	Schedule	Visited place	Accommodations
March 3 (Mon)	Haneda at 8:00P.M. by ANA91→ →Naha at 10:45P.M.		Naha city
March 4 (Tue)	Information collection at Reference Room at Yomitan village, etc. Interview with a leader of “ <i>Seikatsu-Kaizen-Kenkyukai</i> ”	Zakimi, Yomitan village	
March 5 (Wed)	Seminar “Livelihood and Public Health in the Community” Naha at 5:05P.M. by NU0621→ →Ishigaki at 6:05P.M.	Okinawa Nursing Association	Ishigaki city
March 6 (Thurs)	Interview with three women entrepreneurs Interview with the first livelihood improvement extension worker in the island Interview with an agricultural pioneer Ishigaki at 7:30P.M. by NU620→ →Naha at 8:20P.M. Naha at 10:30P.M. by ANA092→Haneda	Agricultural Improvement and Extension Center Akaishi Community Center Farmer’s Market	

6) Colligation:

Reported by: Mr Hiroshi “Kan” Sato, Institute of Developing Economies

Following the study at the end of January of 2003 (of which outline is described in Report of FY2002), the team conducted the second Okinawa Prefecture study. The study of this time mainly aimed at keeping track of a “multi-sector approach” between livelihood improvement extension workers and public health nurses (*kokan-san*), focusing on the activities of the nurses that played an active role in collaboration with

extension workers.

(1) Public health nurses (*kokan-san*)

Okinawa Prefecture had a “*koushu-eisei-kangofu* (public health nurse)” system, which was equivalent to “*hokenfu* (also public health nurse in English)” in Japan, before its return to Japan. This system significantly contributed to improvement in public sanitation in isolated islands in particular -- another Okinawa’s unique and important system in the field of healthcare was that of “*ikaiho*”^{*}, who served as a health worker in a village without a doctor. Experiences of this public health nurse system, which contributed to health care in a remote area, may offer an important hint for improvement in public sanitation in developing countries at present. From this standpoint, Ms. Sumiko Ogawa, Faculty of Medicine, University of Ryukyus and Mr. Yoichi Yamagata, Senior Advisor of JICA have played a central role in conducting interviews with *kokan-san* and discovering documents on them. Their efforts have just come to fruition as eight training videos completed with cooperation of JICA Okinawa International Center -- those videos should be very informative when considering results of our Study. Although they were produced mainly as training materials for C/Ps from South Pacific island countries -- since Okinawa International Center serves as a contact of training for Pacific countries --, those videos include a lot of information useful for trainees from other developing countries as well as those in fields other than health care ¹⁾

“*Kokan-san*” system was established under the instruction of the United States Civil Administration of the Ryukyu Islands (USCAR). In Okinawa, an agricultural extension system was also adopted on the initiative of USCAR. Extension activities were carried out mainly by the University of the Ryukyus with the support of the Universities of Hawaii and Michigan, unlike the case with other prefectures in Japan -- both systems were merged into those in Japan upon its return to Japan in 1972.

* Health assistant performing doctors’ jobs

¹⁾ Especially helpful are “Public Health Nurses in Okinawa” (January, 2002) and “Public Health Nurses in Okinawa -- Practice Edition Tuberculosis” (January, 2003). The former was also produced in English and Spanish

Kokan-san and *seikai-san* (livelihood improvement extension workers) had in common in that some of them were stationed at isolated islands, and that they carried out their activities for all the residents in rural communities. They seem to have worked in collaboration when necessary.

In Okinawa Prefecture study of this time, the team also performed an experiment regarding the procedure of instruction for trainees from developing countries, by applying the results of the Study to practice. The reporter, chairman of this Study Committee, was asked by the International Medical Center of Japan, which implemented JICA's medical cooperation project, if it was possible to include a lecture on "livelihood improvement" in its training course for a C/P (public health nurse) of a medical project in Bolivia. In response to this, the team devised and implemented a training plan to be held at Okinawa that consisted of two parts: (1) studying of training materials prepared for public health nurses and an interview with former *kokan-san*²⁾ and (2) a lecture using a PowerPoint training material (Spanish version) on livelihood improvement extension workers developed by this Study Committee and an interview with former *seikai-san*³⁾. We believe that this experiment accomplished certain results. It would be worthy to consider to continue studying in future as well the effectiveness of the training course in which the trainees who are engaged in providing services in developing countries receive instruction in the experiences of both "*kokan-san*" and "*seikai-san*" as examples of "Japanese style multi-sectoral approach"

(2) Livelihood improvement group activities in Okinawa Prefecture

Interview surveys of this time were conducted with Ms. Keiko Matsuda, a leader of a "livelihood improvement group" at Yomitan village in Okinawa Main Island, as a follow-up survey. Surveys were

²⁾ Okinawa Prefecture has implemented a mini-project of public sanitation in Bolivia for some eight years, and accepted trainees of nurses and public health nurses from Warnes city and county. A contact person of training of this time was Ms. Atsuko Niizato, Administrator of Okinawa Nursing Association

³⁾ A contact person of Prefectural Office was Ms. Chieko Yasato, Assistant Director, Farming Promotion Division, Department of Agriculture and Forestry (as of March, 2003). Ms. Sachiko Chihana, a former livelihood improvement extension worker, served as a lecturer at training

also conducted about activities of a livelihood improvement group (processing activities) which is now in operation in Ishigaki Island, and about activities performed at reclaimed areas in Ishigaki Island.

Okinawa Main Island was greatly damaged by the Battle of Okinawa at the end of World War II. During the maelstrom of the battle, most of residents there barely escaped alive. After the war, those survived the battle gradually returned to Yomitan village, but a large portion of the village was requisitioned by U.S. forces as their bases, resulting in the loss of most of farm lands. Under the extremely difficult circumstances, they were said to have ridden out the postwar turmoil by helping each other. U.S. forces had a dominating presence in Okinawa Main Island. At Yomitan village in particular, residents prepared their meals by using combat helmets that they picked up as pots, and made clothes for their children out of bags of flour. Moreover, jobs associated with bases were important sources of cash income. In order to obtain cash income, men worked at U.S. bases while women served as housemaids in households of American people staying in Okinawa. When the payment of compensation related to U.S. bases started, there appeared some residents who were lavish with money with which they were unfamiliar. Livelihood improvement extension workers, who saw the situations, pointed out that the bases would not provide jobs forever and that it was necessary for residents to spend money according to a plan for preparing for the future. It is said that this led to a seminar on keeping a household account book, which accelerated the organization of a livelihood improvement group. Those activities are “livelihood improvement extension workers’ method” that extension workers not only provide guidance on improvement in foods, clothing and shelters for survival, but also explore appropriate ways to respond if there occur specific problems in the area (the increase of income from the employment at base). It is very interesting that this method was developed also in Okinawa Prefecture before its return to Japan

In Ishigaki Island, interviewees were members of a livelihood improvement group that is currently engaged in vigorous activities in food processing. An agricultural improvement and extension center in Ishigaki accepted C/Ps of JICA’s agricultural extension project in Dominica some years ago. The C/Ps visited

various places of the community and observed a food processing business by women. A business entity like this would be a promising candidate for an on-site observation of "livelihood improvement training" in the future

Some members of the food processing group in Ishigaki were daughters of former members of the livelihood improvement group. The livelihood improvement group has a program to save some amount of money every month for a trip to Europe. It seems that the group places emphasis on "entrepreneurship" to find a sense of purpose in life, rather than on just "livelihood improvement" at present. Many successful entrepreneurs have started operations by themselves while receiving guidance from extension workers on a group basis -- an extension center is used as a place to learn skills, for example, training courses on packaging, sealing and other skills. In this sense, the group is positioned as the "first step to learn knowledge and skills". Livelihood improvement extension workers themselves said that it would be all right if an extension center was used as a place to study and learn something. The entrepreneurs make up for the shortage of hand through employment, rather than with the help from members of the livelihood improvement group. For example, one of manufacturing factories, which the team visited, employed a housewife who married into a neighbor. This would be one form of creation of new jobs in the community.

It is an interesting fact that, while large-scale full-time farm households can live on only agricultural products without need to expand their operations into processing, part-time farm households and those operated by old people for a hobby, may have incentives to do so to raise income. This should be one of the points to be noted when transferring the technology of processing agricultural products to developing countries

Entrepreneurs, having specific skills, initially have no processing facilities. It has become common that entrepreneurs first have a processing machine installed at a community center, which is constructed by a

local government, and then start participating in the business by utilizing it. This is an important way to avoid risks associated with initial investment. They seem to install the machine at their factory after becoming financially stable. This method should also be noted when transferring the technology of processing agricultural products to developing countries.

Women in rural areas historically had never sold what they produced, if shared with neighbors. They are said to have had an inhibition about the act of selling. Livelihood improvement extension workers taught skills to farm households, but that was not enough. One former extension worker said reminiscently that they had to carry out enlightenment activities to motivate those farm households that had no sense of selling something. At first, when agricultural products were exhibited in an agricultural fair, housewives were ashamed to sell those products, and extension workers had to act as sales ladies in their place. As the sale got going, and the products were shipped with labels bearing their names, it is said that they seemed to have gained a sense of pride by feeling that they made their debut into society, which enhanced further their motivation. A successful woman entrepreneur, who is a member of a livelihood improvement group, became a member of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Ishigaki and is recognized as a business owner. Those examples would have something common with the arguments about “empowerment”.

(3) *Seikai-san* and *kokan-san* in areas reclaimed by settlers

At *Akaishi-shuraku* in the north of Ishigaki Island, which was an area reclaimed by settlers, interviewees told the story which was almost the same as the one at reclaimed areas in Hokkaido Prefecture. There were stationed only agricultural and livelihood improvement extension workers, a veterinary, public health nurse and policeman at that time. A livelihood improvement extension worker and public health nurse, both were women, seem to have worked together.

Akaishi-shuraku was a community of settlers from various areas in Okinawa Main Island, and lacked unity

at first. Through efforts such as integration of different events and festivals according to home village and setting of a holiday for farmers, the community is said to have gradually become united.

Communities of settlers were disadvantaged. Therefore, a livelihood improvement extension worker visited each community for a cooking seminar, bringing pots and pans with her. As for *kamado* (cooking stove), the first improvement activity was the change from “*mitsuishi-kamado* (very simple *kamado* of three stones arranged on the ground) to “*tsuchi-kamado* (earthen cooking stove). In terms of livelihood improvement, it can be said that settler communities were more disadvantaged than general communities at the starting line. A monthly meeting was set on 15th of the lunar calendar for a livelihood improvement group at Akaishi-*shuraku*. This was because we have full moon on 15th of each month by the lunar calendar, and the moonlight was helpful for residents to walk on the road at night. A tin lump was used at a meeting held at night in those days. An extension worker sometimes prepared dinner and waited for farmers coming back from work. One of the strengths possessed by settler villages was the fact that people are less resistant to new ideas. When young daughters-in-law attended a meeting for study, their fathers- and mothers-in-law waited outside of the venue caring for a baby. If a baby cried, the mother came out for nursing. It is said that such collaborative relationship was seen in those villages.

According to a former member of the group, their first activity was to “simplify ceremonial functions”. This was based on the idea that expenses on those functions out of ostentation should seriously affect household budgets which were already very tight. For example, they agreed not to serve “*tempura* (Japanese deep-fried food)” at a wedding ceremony, and decided to limit “*bugarinaoshi* (meal to reward for labor offered as mutual aid) to “a piece of ‘*tofu* (soybean curd)’”. Those agreements are said to have been complained about by many residents who worked expecting a substantial meal, but at the same time appreciated by needy residents. An activity to “simplify ceremonial functions” was carried out in other areas in Japan. This example indicates that the simplification activity can be one of major elements in the “poverty elimination” strategy in needy villages.

According to a former livelihood improvement extension worker who was in charge of this community, her first activity was the extension of birth control. Behind the demand of birth control, there could have been the fact that the limited productivity on the limited farm land limited the population to be fed, as well as the necessity of avoiding prospects that pregnancy, delivery and child-care would exclude housewives from farm labor force. Birth control extension was the activities in the field of health care. *Seikai-san* and *kokan-san* are said to have worked together to visit villages. They divided their tasks into two: namely gathering residents by *seikai-san* and practical seminars by *kokan-san*. In addition, they collaborated in exerting efforts at health and nutrition education based on the recognition that “it comes first for pioneers to build up physical strength”. The better nourished and the stronger we become, the lower the rate of suffering from malaria, sunstroke, etc. goes down.

Formation of livelihood improvement groups was promoted by livelihood improvement extension workers. Even for them, it was difficult to include all needy residents. For example, some residents could not become a member because membership fee of ten cent a month -- the currency in Okinawa was U.S. dollar before its return to Japan -- was unaffordable for them. This aspect should be noted as a screening effect for independent and purpose-specific groups when organizing residents. It goes without saying that members, who could pay the fee, were also far from being prosperous. Groups, which saved on operating expenses, always worried themselves about how to raise transportation expense when their representatives attended a meeting or seminar held in Ishigaki city. It is said that they jointly grew peanuts to earn money for transportation of the representatives. If representatives of a group attended a seminar, they could bring new knowledge into a village that should be absorbed by other members. After their activities got under way with some leeway in their budget, they are said to have carried out activities such as joint purchase and joint study -- book club and subscription of “*Ie-no-Hikari*” -- on a date previously set. Through a system of livelihood improvement mutual aid financing association, in which a member paid one dollar a month, they purchased hygiene products (birth-control device, etc.) and chests of drawers.

Those examples indicate that livelihood improvement groups were an important element in the survival strategy for needy people in reclaimed areas.

5-2 Outline of Kyoto Prefecture seminar

1) Date:

2 00P.M. to 6:00P.M , Monday, March 17, 2003

2) Place:

Room, Common Building 3rd floor, Center for Southeast Asian Studies, Kyoto University
46, Shumoadachi town, Yoshida, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto

3) Presented by:

Takeko Matsuda, Assistant Director, Agricultural Improvement and Extension Center, Kameoka city,
Kyoto Prefecture

Noriko Nishigata, Member of Committee (Former Assistant Director, Nishikanbara Agricultural
Improvement and Extension Center, Niigata Prefecture)

Kazuo Ando, Member of Committee (Associate Professor, Kyoto University)

4) Participants: 17 (excluding presenters)

Kazuko Oguni (Member of Committee), Miho Ota (Member of Committee), Akira Munakata
(Member of Committee), Keshu, Yuko Yamashita, Yuko Ito, Akashi, Adachi, Tanida, Nishizaki, Iwai,
Shimagami, Nishikawa, Murayama, Masami Mizuno (Member of Committee), Hiroshi "Kan" Sato
(Chairman of Committee), Makiko Ogasawara

5) Details:

In the seminar entitled “Joint Study Meeting ‘Regional Characteristics in the Rural Development -- Agricultural Extension, Local Administration and Life & Culture --’ ”, the reports of studies on village leaders and on projects of improvement extension were presented, followed by Q & A

5-3 Outline of Tokyo and Kanagawa Prefectures study

1) Dates:

April 24 and 27, 2003 (2 days)

2) Place:

Seminar Room, Department of Medical Entomology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases and Izumi-ku, Yokohama City

3) Members of group:

Hiroshi “Kan” Sato, Chairman of Committee (Senior Researcher, Institute of Developing Economies, JETRO)

Masafumi Ikeno, Researcher, KRI International Corp.

Yuko Ito, Doctoral program, Graduate School, Hiroshima University

Naomi Seki, Ikebukuro Health Center, Tokyo

4) Details:

The team conducted an interview survey focusing on the following items:

(1) The actors in the “movement for a life without mosquitoes and flies”

(2) The legal ground for the “movement for a life without mosquitoes and flies”

(3) Roles of specialist personnel in the “movement for a life without mosquitoes and flies”

(4) Comparison with international cooperation

5-4 Outline of visit to Koibuchi College of Agriculture in Ibaraki Prefecture

Reported by: Ms. Noriko Nishigata, Former Assistant Director, Nishikanbara Agricultural Improvement
and Extension Center, Niigata Prefecture

Ms. Miho Ota, Doctoral program, The University of Reading, UK

1) Dates:

May 29 to 30, 2003

2) Place:

Koibuchi College of Agriculture -- Koibuchi, Uchiyama town, Ibaraki Prefecture

3) Members of group:

Noriko Nishigata, Former Assistant Director, Nishikanbara Agricultural Improvement and Extension
Center, Niigata Prefecture

Miho Ota, Doctoral program, The University of Reading, UK

Yuko Ito, Doctoral program, Graduate School, Hiroshima University

4) Objectives:

With focus on the following three elements, the team gained information from interviewees at
Koibuchi College of Agriculture, which has produced many efficient agricultural and livelihood
improvement extension workers as well as JOCV agricultural volunteers, about its past and the present
situation:

(1) Profile and 50-year history of Koibuchi College

(2) The curriculum at Life Department from the mid-1940's to mid-1960's

- (3) The information about the circumstances due to which the college started the acceptance of trainees of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) and those from overseas as well as the information about the actual training for them

5) Method of study:

Interview survey and on-site observation

6) Interviewees:

Emeritus Professor who has been associated with the college since the mid-1940's, former and present Directors of Instruction Department, teaching staff associated with Life Department, President of Alumni Association, teaching staff in charge of supplementary technical training for JOCV candidates, JOCV candidates under training at the college, students, etc.

7) Details:

(1) Profile of Koibuchi College of Agriculture

Koibuchi College of Agriculture (hereinafter called "the college") was established in 1945 as a three-year advanced agricultural training school through the organizational efforts of National Agricultural Association, inheriting land (about 140ha) and facilities of the training center for cadre members of Volunteer Pioneer Corps of Manchuria and Mongolia, which was closed soon after World War II. The college aimed at nurturing agricultural instructors who would carve out a path to new age with a practical approach during the period of severe food shortage after the war. The first principal, Mr Manji Koide was a man of democratic spirit with experience of agricultural education in the western countries, establishing the liberal view of education as the educational philosophy of the college. Mr. Jun Kurata, the second principal -- being inaugurated in 1955 -- inherited Mr. Koide's educational philosophy, and developed a theory of guidance for farmers and what the guidance activities should be, that would pave a way to new agriculture. Since then, in the college, there has

been a long tradition of nurturing agricultural instructors dedicated to practical approaches. History of the college is described in detail in “Koibuchi College -- A record of postwar footsteps of agriculture --” (Tsukuba Shorin, 1981) written by Mr Yukio Ishibashi, and “Fifty-year History of Koibuchi College” (Fifty-year Anniversary Executive Committee, 1996) edited by Fifty-year History Editing Committee.

Agricultural improvement extension workers were trained at the agricultural training center of each prefecture after 1949. However, there were a limited number of institutions to train livelihood improvement extension workers; Life Department at Agricultural Training Centers in three prefectures (Iwate, Nagano, and Kagawa) as well as Koibuchi College, Yamato Women’s Agricultural Training School in Kanagawa Prefecture and other private educational institutions. Life Department of Agricultural Training Center in Kagawa Prefecture was abolished in 1973 after the training for extension workers was placed under the agricultural department of a four-year university in 1967.

The college is a four-year technical training school with two departments of “Agricultural Management” and “Life and Nutrition Science” at present. All-out effort of the college is devoted to the “thorough education of food and agriculture” with the aim of nurturing “agricultural instructors who are familiar with all the processes from production to consumption, inclusive of distribution, processing, storage, etc.” and “nutritionists who are familiar with production sites of foodstuff and who walk around fields”. Adopting “from sowing to table” as its motto, the college places emphasis on letting students learn the practice of occupation by themselves through experience of all forms of practical skills, experiments and drills on actual labor.

All freshmen have to live in a dormitory to acquire ability to take care of their personal matters by themselves through the dormitory life which is “the field of practice of living”. The dormitory is operated by students, with all autonomy being granted to students.

Its school culture is liberal and educational system is unique. The college is characterized by students coming from all over Japan (from 40 prefectures this fiscal year), providing opportunities to perform cultural exchange with students from other prefectures and learn together through “experiences of different cultures”

(2) The curriculum at Life Department from the mid-1940’s to mid-1960’s

In respect of the curriculum at Life Department, an interviewee was a former professor in charge of nutrition science, who reminisced about lessons associated with nutrition at the time when Life Department was newly created. Unfortunately, the team could not conduct a detailed interview mainly due to limited time. Based on other information obtained from two-day interviews with professors, former students and students, the team recognized that the residence in the campus dormitory which was required of all freshmen was “the very field of practice of living” which characterized Koibuchi College. All former students talked about their many pleasant memories of the life in the dormitory. A former student said, “At the mid-1940’s, the college evoked an image of an agricultural military academy. However, there was neither strict hierarchical relations between seniors and juniors, nor hard discipline in the dormitories, which were independently and democratically managed mainly by each boarding master”. It seems that many lessons, which were learned through self-management and independent communal life in dormitories, were bound up with their ways of living and activities afterwards.

The life in dormitories of the college is managed by a student body. Among others, all tasks associated with meals at the dormitory are left entirely to “*eiyo-bu* (nutrition department)” composed of student volunteers, with some instructions and consultations of professors in charge of student matters. All meals -- three meals a day -- are planned by students of Life Department (present Life and Nutrition Science Department), which gives an opportunity for practical experiences. Young students from all over the country are said to be experiencing all aspects of the life in dormitory,

taking turns in doing chores like sweeping floors and preparing/cleaning the bath, which enables them to learn to know and accept differences in personality each other through casual chats with other students.

At the college, students are also keen on club activities. At that time, those interested in reading, chorus, folkdance, theatrical performance and *The Capital* got together on their own initiatives to form clubs in which professors and other staff of the college participated. It seems that unrestricted development of those various activities enriched the life at the college further.

One professor, who was in charge of student matters for 15 years since the mid-1940's, reminiscently said, "Students lived in the dormitory away from their parents. So, I felt I had to be like father and mother of 300 students. I loved them so much". He considered that his job should start at 5 o'clock in the morning. He always kept the light of his office on and was ready to receive and listen tenderly to any student who might drop in. With such support of professors, students could have been able to lead carefree dormitory life and study peacefully at the college. This shows that the family-like culture of the college helped to strengthen the bond between students as well as between students and teaching staff, contributing to building their character.

Life Department of Agricultural Training Center in Kagawa Prefecture produced 288 graduates -- all of them passed the examination for qualifications of a livelihood improvement extension worker -- for 21 years from its establishment in 1952. The department was the only training institution in western Japan, and about half of its students came from other prefectures. Like Koibuchi College, the department is said to have provided fruitful dormitory life. Former livelihood improvement extension workers in Hiroshima Prefecture, who graduated from the department in the mid-1950's, recalled that everything they learned at the department served as a basis for activities they performed afterwards, and that the dormitory life offered them a lot of lessons through spending time with others.

The thing common to both Koibuchi College and the Agricultural Training Center is the fact that the students learned about human relations through the communal life in dormitories. The dormitory life would have been as beneficial as lessons, experiments and practical training, and exerted an influence on students' activities after graduation.

- (3) The background information about how it started acceptance of trainees of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) and those from overseas, and actual training programs

<1> Supplementary technical training for JOCV candidates

Supplementary technical training for JOCV candidates commissioned by JICA -- is a program to provide actual farming experience for persons designated as "trainees for fostering" who have passed JICA's screening tests and been classed as eligible for potential nomination after undergoing a long term training to supplement the insufficiency in their occupational experience with on-farm practicals. In 1990, the training courses were offered at Miyako Agricultural Training Center of Tokyo University of Agriculture, Yatsugatake Chuo Agricultural College, and the college, which has been formally commissioned to train "trainees for fostering" since 1993. The duration of the training course was shortened from one year to nine months in 1997.

The course is mainly composed of two parts: "practical agricultural training" and "project study". "Practical agricultural training" provides an opportunity to understand the real quality and quantity of labor as well as to learn basically organic cultivation technique of vegetables, flowers, rice, etc. "Project study" focuses on devising and implementation of a plan corresponding with realities of the area, to which each trainee will be dispatched, on an individual basis. The college is trying to meet the needs of trainees flexibly by devising programs appropriate to individuals.

"Project study" covers various areas ranging from land reclamation, production of organic

fertilizer, raising poultry -- including the construction of henhouses with using the lumber obtained by thinning plantations, slaughtering, dressing and smoking -- and the repair, of flat tire on a bicycle, to the processing of agricultural products. In addition, the college offers special lectures and practical training specific to each field such as "current information on overseas agriculture", "crop protection", "soil diagnosis", "agricultural extension", "farming", "rural society", "meat processing", "vegetable cooking", "agricultural product/flour processing", "engine maintenance", "wild plant observation" and "livestock husbandry", in response to trainees' request.

For JOCV volunteers who puzzle over their tasks that are different from what they learned at the training course and geographical conditions in a developing country where they are stationed after dispatch, the college provides new information and technical data as well as support to solve their problems upon their request.

JOCV volunteers, who attended the supplementary technical training course at Koibuchi College, highly appreciated its practical training course saying that it had been just right for the immediate application on their sites. Quite a lot of the volunteers have visited the college upon the completion of their two years activities in developing countries to inform the college staff of their return, their experience, and the latest news about themselves. Natural and educational environments there provide emotional support for many JOCV volunteers, and many of them visit the college for that reason. All those visitors bring fresh information to students. The college values the exchange between students and JOCV volunteers as an opportunity for the former to learn about current overseas information.

<2> Acceptance of overseas trainees

The college accepted 20 Taiwanese in the field of agricultural extension for three weeks in 1955

on a request from ICA (U. S. International Cooperation Administration), which was the first time for it to accept overseas trainees. In 1959, it offered 16-month training to settlers going to South American countries, at the request of the then Development Bureau, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Koibuchi College provides cooperation to eight-month basic and specialized training with farmers in ASEAN countries conducted by Japan Agricultural Exchange Council (JAEC). The two- or three-week training course, which the college provides, includes grafting of tomato, eggplant and watermelon seedlings, rice cropping, disease/insect control and cultivation management of vegetables and flowers, management of rearing dairy cattle, beef cattle, and chicken, planning of farm management, bookkeeping, marketing, laboratory experiments -- it accepted on-site training at farms for the first three to four years -- and others. Women were provided with lectures and experiments on cooking/food processing, composition of clothes, maternal and child healthcare, food hygiene and living environment, in addition to the specific field(s) they elected out of those mentioned above. The college also separately implements training for women on home economics for about a week.

Besides, since 1991, the college has accepted children of Japanese settlers in Central and South Americas, offering them guidance on farm management and farm planning. Researchers in Peru, Paraguay, the Philippines and Nepal are accepted by the college, for cooperation in the technical assistance in developing countries.

For “technical assistance associated with construction of the Agricultural Technology Center in Cambodia”, the college dispatched its professor as an expert for about two years from 1960 upon the request of JICA.

The accumulated experiences of grassroots level exchange with farmers have expanded the scope of the college’s international exchange. A Thai student, who came to Japan for study, served as

an interpreter for and took care of trainees from ASEAN countries. He returned to Thai to become a university professor, and now contributes to the college as a host family for farm-stay students sent there from the college. In reciprocation, the college invites students of his university to Japan at the expense of the college.

5-5 Outline of Training in Oita and Yamaguchi Prefectures

Reported by Ms. Miho Ota, Doctoral program, The University of Reading, UK

1) Dates:

June 29 to July 5, 2003

2) Places:

Oita and Yamaguchi Prefectures

3) Objectives:

The reporter suggested a training to be conducted for C/Ps in Japan when the reporter visited Malaysia for study on the development study project “the Study on Development for Enhancing Rural Women Entrepreneurs in Sabah” in FY2002. In response to this suggestion, three C/Ps of this project were nominated to come to Japan to participate in training in Japan for about two weeks. The reporter was to accompany the trainees who were scheduled to visit Oita and Yamaguchi Prefectures. This study was undertaken to examine what the training should be for those who came from overseas to learn about “livelihood improvement”. Additionally, while helping them to learn about “livelihood improvement in Japan”, the reporter intended to deepen the understanding of how the “livelihood improvement” had been put into practice in both Sabah and Japan.

4) Method of study:

On-site observation

5) Visited organizations:

(1) Oita Prefecture

- 1) Oita International Center (Oita city)
- 2) Maerchen Rose Co., Ltd., a rose garden (Kusu town)
- 3) Oyama Agricultural Co-operative (Oyama town)
- 4) Azemichi Livelihood Improvement Group Food Processing Association (Amagase town)
- 5) Traditional Bamboo Crafts Center (Beppu city)
- 6) Hot Spring Heat and Flower Research and Instruction Center (Beppu city)

(2) Yamaguchi Prefecture

- 1) “Rural Welcome Center”, Agriculture and Forestry Department, Yamaguchi Prefecture
- 2) Mr. OY-N, farm household livelihood improvement expert (Mine city)
- 3) “*Oshio Inaka-no Mise*” /Farmers’ market of Livelihood Improvement Group (Shunan city)
- 4) Wada Agricultural Product Processing Factory (Shunan city)

6) Details:

The following report will mainly comprise of overall comments on two training courses and suggestions about acceptance of trainees who will take a course on rural development and livelihood improvement in the future. It will also include things that the reporter noted during this trip as well as through discussion on July 5 with the trainees, regarding training for foreign people to be accepted in the future.

(1) Content of training

<1> Involvement of prefectural government, agricultural co-operatives and residents in “One Village, One Product” movement

Since the movement has attracted attention of Dr. Mahathir, former Malaysian President, and its activities have started in Sabah, the trainees showed keen interest in this topic. It seemed that

the information on why Oita Prefecture advocated "One Village, One Product" movement and stories about difficulties in starting a business were more instructive than stories after success. Trainees looked amazed at the increased income due to the movement and women's positive activities. More information on concrete know-how, such as an operational system of agricultural co-operatives and the way to promote a bottom-up approach involving residents, should have been provided. However, it is difficult to teach such know-how in a short-term training course. Additionally, it would be desirable to provide professional advice according to realities of each site in the developing countries. It might be more effective to dispatch an expert in operations of agricultural co-operatives to the country concerned.

<2> *Distribution and commercialization of agricultural products*

The assistance to rural women in their efforts to become entrepreneurs was one of the subjects of the development study projects which were being conducted in Sabah, and a major issue for the trainees. This time, the trainees visited some women entrepreneurs groups. The questions they often asked those groups were about marketing, product development, commercialization, marketing strategy through well-thought-out packaging, quality control and label design, governmental support and the way to divide earnings. The method of sales, including farmers' market, by which prices were set by farmers themselves, attracted their attention.

For traditional agricultural products of a community, there should be some specific processing technique. It seemed that the common strategy of groups, which the trainees visited, was to improve the advantages of the technique and add values for commercialization. Some trainees analyzed the situation and concluded that the strong purchasing power of general consumers in Japan brought about the success of those small-scale business of processing agricultural products by women entrepreneurs. They said that, in this sense, an entrepreneur might find it difficult to achieve success in a rural community in Sabah with very limited purchasing power in the society.

Regarding “One Village, One Product” movement in Oita Prefecture, outlined was a success story of a depopulated village that it had improved the quality of its specialty to the highest standard in Japan to establish the brand. For deepening discussion, an opportunity should be offered to, for example, learn about an example of this village in detail and discuss with those related to the movement.

<3> Governmental support for “One Village, One Product” and livelihood improvement movements

The trainees seemed to have had an impression that Japan’s administrative structure generally performed its functions, established a system to work in harmony with Japan Agricultural Co-operatives and other organizations to support residents’ initiatives, and gained the trust of residents. In Sabah, a political party and the government is not separated. According to a biennial change of the administration, administrative officers are replaced. There was an opinion that it was impossible to build a long-term relationship of trust between the government and residents under such a system. The trainees were also amazed at the competent and highly motivated civil servants with strong sense of responsibility, and regretted that it would be difficult to expect such attitudes from civil servants in Sabah with a two-year “stopgap administration”.

Concrete questions were asked by trainees include “Japan’s government seems to be flexibly developing a community-oriented approach based on characteristics of each community. How much control do the instruction system and the program guideline of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries and other central governmental agencies have?” and “How does the community-oriented approach come to terms with the instruction system and the program guideline? And how about its balance?”

The dependence of farmers on subsidies is also a problem in Sabah. Therefore, the trainees

seemed to have sympathized with the circumstances under which “One Village, One Product” movement had been planned. The training provided a good opportunity for them to consider how the movement activities should actually be carried out in Sabah.

A group approach has been adopted in agricultural extension activities also in Sabah. Sabah seems to have a system where while activities for a group formation up to the start of a project are subsidized, subsidy is terminated upon the launch of the project. This system is completely opposite to the one in Japan where a group is subsidized for the construction cost of processing facility, etc. only after it becomes more active, while no subsidy is provided for the process of forming the group. For example, “*Oshio Inaka-no Mise*” had carried out activities with self-help endeavor for 13 years before it upgraded processing facilities using a subsidy it received. This enables the governments, which invest huge funds, to expect continued activities of residents. On the other hand, a Sabah’s method leads to a lot of groups formed, which will disappear when a support of subsidy ends before the development of their activities. It would be necessary to examine how, when and to whom a subsidy should be paid to produce effective results, taking this difference into consideration. Also meaningful would be comparison of each subsidy system, a way to use the system, and effect of the system, among livelihood improvement groups, agricultural groups, and agricultural co-operatives in Japan.

All processing facilities, which the trainees visited, were better equipped, which might give the impression that Japan’s government also provides “*hakomono-enjo*”, a support for hardware by a donor. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the livelihood extension project produced various effects for the first ten years without paying any subsidy to women’s activities -- in fact, that was because no budget was allocated. It is exceptional even in Japan, but shows that a project is viable even if its budget is limited. Efforts of a livelihood improvement extension project are different in characters at three periods: postwar reconstruction -- age of undeveloped subsidy

system, high-growth -- age of well-used subsidy system, and the current -- age of reduced subsidy. The transition could be used as an example to explain the nature of subsidy system from a standpoint of "its utility".

<4> Method of extension

The trainees, who saw farm households' housewives work with vigor and enthusiasm, seemed to have taken a keen interest in the possible method which livelihood improvement extension workers had adopted. At a seminar center in Yamaguchi Prefecture, one trainee asked this question. An interpreter seemed not to be able to understand technical terms related to a method of extension in Japan, such as problem-based learning, three-tier five-step method of thinking and nurturing of thinking farmers, and did not translate the entire answer to the question. The only part the interpreter translated was "plan, do, see, and check", which is easy to understand. Someone familiar with the method had to add more information. When answering this kind of question, it would be effective to answer by citing a group approach and other concrete methods or examples.

(2) Overall training

<1> Method for conducting discussion

The trainees were highly motivated and seemed to have had a lot of questions. The training course which included more discussion than lectures seemed to be suitable for their needs. Q & A style lectures allow a lecturer to ascertain what kinds of subject the trainees have an interest in. This style of lecture looked easier to deliver for accepting sides, too.

<2> Videos

When trainees make a presentation on the training course they took in Japan to people at their workplace after return to their country, the use of a video with a plot would be more persuasive

than that of still pictures. A video also can be used at a presentation or seminar on the training in Japan offered by trainees in the future. It would be a good idea to make an arrangement to prepare copies of the videos which have been used in a training course, so that trainees can bring them to their countries after the course. The following videos were considered especially useful through the on-site observation of this time.

- (i) "Eyes looking at the future" (English and latest version, running time 43 minutes), produced by Oyama Agricultural Co-operative, Oita Prefecture -- It is said that Oyama Agricultural Co-operative has produced a promotion video about every six years since 1955 with 20 million yen. Either one would be all right if available. It is an idea worth considering to trace chronologically through the videos how it has changed.
- (ii) General information videos on "One Village, One Product" and livelihood improvement
- (iii) "Promoting the Family Management Agreement in Japan", produced by Rural Women Empowerment and Life Improvement Association
- (iv) General information video on agricultural co-operatives in Japan -- videos produced by the Institute for the Development of Agricultural Cooperation in Asia (IDACA) and other organizations

<3> Literature

Brochures of the organizations, "One Village, One Dish" maps, morning market leaflets, and other literatures with pictures, which were easy to understand even for those not able to understand what was written there, seemed to be instructive in terms of their layout and idea itself. The trainees appreciated those literatures so much that one of them wanted to know how to produce them.

Each organization also prepared enough literatures to go around that included only text in Japanese. A matter of concern is the cost borne by an accepting organization. For trainees, it

was impossible to understand what was written in those literatures. They were not sure if the literatures were useful back in their country and were puzzled over how to deal with them, which took up much space. For a literature with only text, an interpreter can translate it before a trainee's visit if one set of the literature is prepared in advance. This would be more effective without wasting time upon an observation visit.

<4> On-site observation

Everything trainees see and hear is new to them. They sometimes ask a question which is not to the point. For example, when the trainees visited a rose garden, they asked a lot of questions like "What kind of rose sells well?" or "Which smell is popular?" Those questions were considered somewhat irrelevant to the objectives of the observation. In order to make effective use of a short observation, one should talk with trainees in advance about why the place was chosen for an observation, what should be observed, what should be learned so that they could focus their attention on those points.

<5> Interpreters

Rough time allocation should be decided in advance between a lecturer and an interpreter. At one lecture which was planned to be comprised of one-hour presentation and one-hour discussion, there was left no time for discussion as the presentation took two hours and fifteen minutes. This was because the interpreter translated what the lecturer said word by word. It is necessary to allocate time so that a Q & A session can be secured.

<6> Arrangements with accepting organizations

All accepting organizations seemed to have given special consideration in arranging meals. What trainees eat and do not; if they drink green tea; which is better, Japanese food or western-style food; if they use chopsticks; and if forks and knives need to be prepared. Such

information should be conveyed to them beforehand to ensure not to increase burdens and concerns on the accepting side.

5-6 Outline of Nagasaki Prefecture study

1) Dates:

July 26 to 27 and August 5 to 7 (5 days)

2) Place:

Nagasaki Prefecture

3) Objectives:

- (1) Survey on development of a livelihood improvement project in Nagasaki Prefecture
- (2) Identification of activities and the way of extension that were performed by livelihood improvement extension workers and technical experts from the mid-1940's to mid-1960's
- (3) Ascertaining activities of public health nurses, maternity nurses and women's club

4) Method of study:

Interview survey, on-site observation

5) Interviewees:

Five former livelihood improvement extension workers, one leader of a livelihood improvement group, two former public health nurses and those persons associated with women's club

6) Details:

Nagasaki Prefecture started employing livelihood improvement extension workers in 1949, with one

under the control of the prefectural office and one under agricultural improvement center -- 88 agricultural improvement extension workers were employed across the country in that year. In 1956 the proportional figures of agricultural improvement extension workers to livelihood improvement extension workers were 151:11. Scooters were not available for the activities of livelihood improvement workers until as late as 1957, when three units were allocated to 11 agents. This was three years behind the precedents with agricultural improvement extension workers.

It is said that Nagasaki attached the highest priority to the improvement in productivity for its agricultural administration, and somewhat fell behind in efforts in livelihood improvement. Through attendance at "Kyushu bloc seminar for livelihood improvement extension workers" and other seminars, the prefecture learned about the ways and details of activities from other prefectures -- Kagoshima and Kumamoto -- both advanced in Kyushu in the field of livelihood improvement, and promoted the project as if following the trail of those prefectures. Assignment of technical experts was later than other prefectures. It was 1957 when the prefecture changed its one-person system for livelihood technology expert (in food) and added a new technical expert in extension technology (method of extension) -- in that year the number of agricultural technical experts was 11. The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry increased the number of technical experts in extension technology/method by one at each prefecture in 1954. The new technical expert in extension method was transferred from Kagoshima, the advanced prefecture. Until then, livelihood improvement extension activities had to depend only on individual extension workers' livelihood technology -- knowledge and experiences on foods, clothing and shelters as well as home economics -- in Nagasaki Prefecture. In respect of a method of extension, there was neither seminar conducted by the prefectural government nor opportunity to attend a training course provided by the central government. The state of groping continued at the site of the extension. In early days, most of extension workers were former teachers, who had some extent of teaching ability and livelihood technology, and war-bereaved widows, whose children grew up and required less care. Those extension workers

seemed to have understood and developed “rural livelihood improvement” in their own way.

The number of livelihood improvement extension workers basically unchanged at less than ten until 1957, when the prefecture increased it to 17. Next year, it added further eight workers including new graduates from a girls’ high school. The number of livelihood improvement extension workers finally reached 40 in 1964 -- the number of agricultural improvement extension workers was 191 in that year. Around that time, there were deployed various activities and projects such as trials to examine the adaptability of farm households to livelihood improvement, “classes” to teach things related to livelihood, environmental improvement project, and healthy livelihood management project. However, agricultural projects still remained significantly dominant over livelihood improvement projects. The advent of the rapid economic growth strengthened the production-oriented agricultural administration. It is said that technical experts in livelihood, who worked for the prefectural office, exerted themselves for the continuation of a livelihood improvement extension project. Developing countries tend to develop with the absence of balance between production and livelihood. Therefore, the last-ditch effort in Nagasaki, a developing prefecture in the field of livelihood improvement at that time, would be instructive for agricultural policies and development strategies in the developing countries.

In the mid-1940’s, public health nurses’ activities were mainly immunization, X-ray and health examinations of residents in a community. In some communities, special emphasis was put on prevention measures against tuberculosis. In 1951 a public health nurse, who was in charge of Goto Islands, was on an examination tour to isolated islands boarding a ship named “*Hato-maru*” for six months a year. She worked excessively hard. The average number of school children and residents on whose health she conducted an examination was 1,200 a day. The public health nurses, who were mainly responsible for healthcare activities, went to all corners of each village with the cooperation of local welfare commissioners, for hygiene education using a magic lantern -- family planning,

prevention measures against tuberculosis, etc. -- and for visits to individual households with a tubercular patient, pregnant woman and infant. In respect of examinations for tubercular, they gathered residents through a neighborhood association, judging from the results of comparison between townships as to the rate of population which had had consultation previously. "*Aiiku-han* (affectionate mothers' group)" was appreciated in urban areas by young mothers without a person to consult, as a valuable information source. However, it was pointed out that this system did not work in rural areas where kinship was strong and most of households consisted of two married generations or more. When a resident became a member of *aiiku-han* and visited a household, she was sometimes accused of "acting high and mighty". Members were mostly wives of bonzes, presidents of women's clubs and other "persons in higher positions". It is said that other residents, who were different in lifestyle and economic conditions from the members, presumed its activities were for "persons in higher positions", which prevented the activities from rapidly expanding. This trend may often be seen in the process of "creating an organization for a project".

In towns, public health nurses were not in charge of tuberculosis, but were mainly responsible for visits to households, the examination of infants and pregnant women, mothers' class, immunization, and guidance on birth control.

Some livelihood improvement extension workers, who were in charge of the communities where public health nurses were assigned, worked with the nurses for activities in the communities. Those activities included establishment of a nursery center to take care of small children during a busy farming season and activities for maternal and child health.

In Ojika town, women's club carried out very vigorous activities, playing a leading role in establishment of a nursery center, development of small water supply system and a school road named "*aijo-doro*". Men, who offered some help, sometimes criticized them, dismissingly saying "How

women dare be so bold to do such a thing!” The club started operations of a nursery center/day-care center -- now public kindergarten -- in 1949, with its president serving as director of the center. A small water supply system was developed with a suggestion of the women’s club, being subsidized by the village office. A red soil road in the village became muddy whenever it rained. The club wanted to improve the road, and decided to start with a part of it on which children could walk to go to school. The construction cost for paving the road, by cementing the strip of 2 m in width in the middle of it, was partly financed by a subsidy received through a petition to the village office. To finance the rest, the women’s club raised funds by showing some performance -- singing songs, “*onna-zumo* (sumo by women)”, etc. -- to sailors on the fishing boats visiting a nearby port. Members of the club also worked to bring sand and gravel from the beach to the construction site. The road was completed in 1953, and named as “*aijo-doro*” (road of care) by the governor. It is said that similar school roads were constructed in the north, south, east and west on the island -- children were forced to walk on the side of the road as cars began to run on them later, which made those roads meaningless.

In a community without water supply system, a small water supply system was installed in 1960 at the suggestion of women who wanted to be relieved of laborious water drawing, with using an agricultural improvement fund. This activity was followed by an establishment of a women’s group of fruit tree study club, in which all households in the community participated. This group launched “joint purchase”, “*Okachantachi-no-mikanen* (moms’ Japanese mandarin orange garden)”, “vegetable garden” and “morning market”. All those activities were carried out by women in the community under the guidance of a livelihood improvement extension worker. The women expanded their activities and activated the community. Those can be said to be good examples of the movement to boost the community development, which was expanded from the viewpoints of women.

5-7 Outline of small water supply system study (small water supply system and rural livelihood improvement movement)

Reported by: Ms. Keiko Yamamoto, Senior Advisor, JICA

1) Introduction

At present, the coverage of the water supply system is 96.7% in Japan (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, as of the end of FY2001), which means 123 million people enjoy safe water supply 24 hours a day. Japanese people lead a daily life in a very clean environment that is very unusual in the world. The average Japanese life span is the longest in the world for both men and women. One of the reasons which brought about the situation would be the safe water available throughout the country and a living environment that is kept sanitary.

If looking at the world, reportedly at least 1,100 million people can not obtain safe water, and 2,400 million do not have even a simple form of toilets.¹⁾

As the coverage of the water supply system is especially low in rural areas in developing countries, the development of a water supply system in those areas is becoming a high-priority issue in the international society.

Japan has conducted a lot of projects through ODA to supply safe water to rural areas in developing countries. For the past dozen years, it has worked not only to provide facilities, but also to make residents capable of maintaining and managing a facility, by following the assistance method of international organizations to employ a resident-participatory approach. However, many projects are implemented in a resident-participatory approach that is stereotypical and perfunctory, and there is a doubt about their effectiveness and continuity.

A movement to seek an effective method of assistance based on Japan's experiences has become active for

the past several years. Japan's postwar "small water supply system development" could supply some lessons for a water supply system in rural areas in developing countries. Such development project in Japan had already adopted a resident-participatory approach, and received some influence from the rural livelihood improvement movements which expanded in rural areas in Japan at that time. In three-year activities of Study Committee of "Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan's Rural Development Cooperation", we analyzed the factors which led to the success of small water supply system development in Japan with the focus of the study laid on relation between the development project and livelihood improvement movements, and explored the way to apply the experiences to water supply projects in rural areas in developing countries.

2) Small water supply system in Japan

In postwar Japan, unsanitary conditions especially in rural areas became a problem with coverage of the water supply system being less than 30%. As the postwar reconstruction progressed, water supply system development was pursued. Coverage of the water supply system rapidly rose from 26% in 1950 to more than 50% after 10 years, and then reached over 80% after 20 years (see Figure 1).²⁾

One of the factors of this rapid increase in 20 years was the small water supply system extension project³⁾. In order to solve the problems of unsanitary conditions in rural area after World War II, the Ministry of Health and Welfare promoted the extension of small water supply systems in rural and mountainous areas, by subsidizing up to one fourth of their project cost. This small water supply extension project was for a community with the population of less than 5,000 which were supplied with water. The population supplied with water increased tenfold over ten years from 1952 when the subsidy system started. During that time, the ratio of a small water supply system in all the water supply systems rose from 2.8% to 19.4%, reaching almost 20%. This shows that the small water supply system project quickly expanded in the rural areas, and many residents used the system. On the other hand, administrative guidance did not reign in all entities due to the emergence of numerous small-scale small water supply system entities. As the

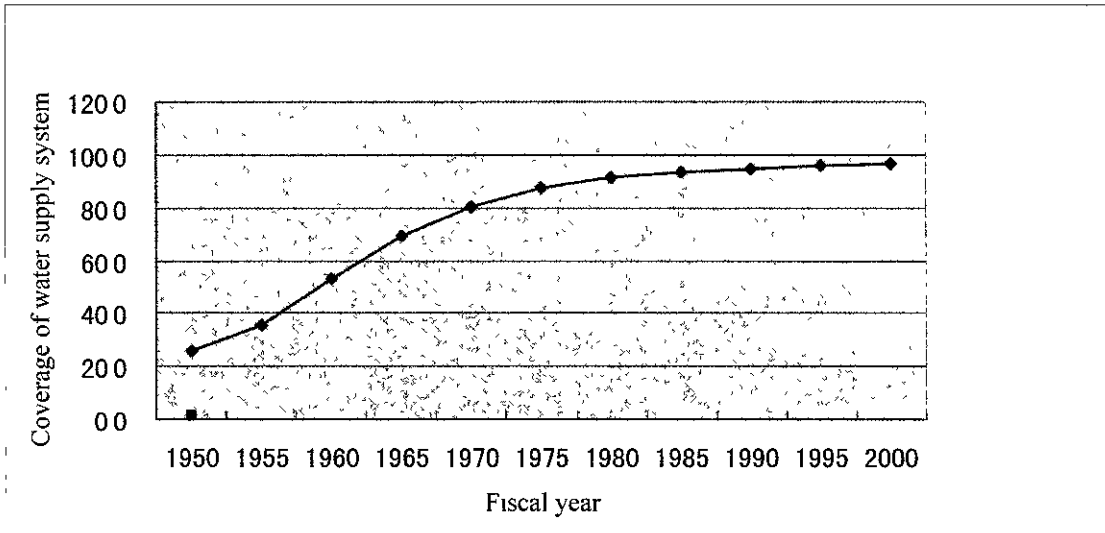


Figure 1 Coverage of water supply system in Japan

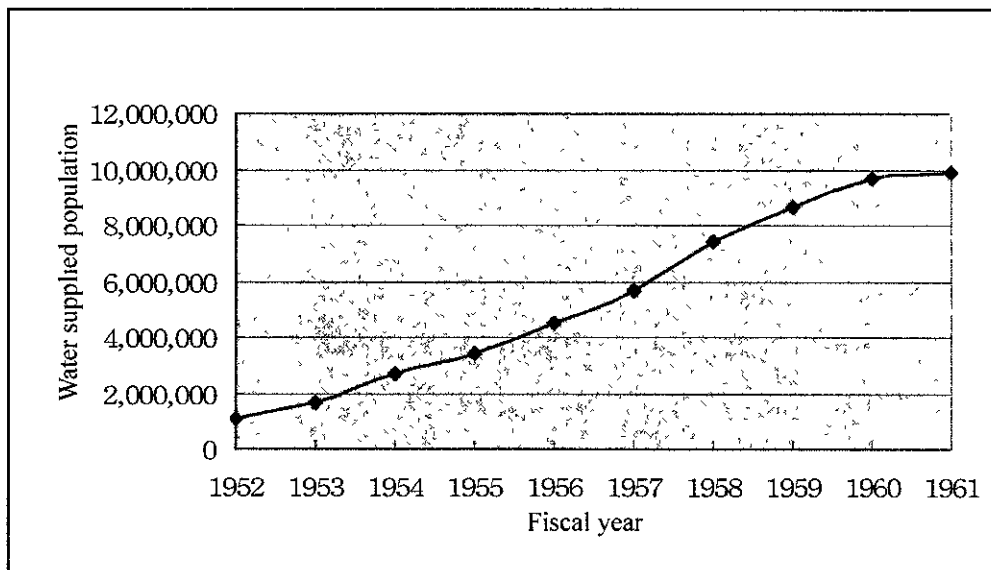


Figure 2 Small water supply system installed in 10 years after introduction of subsidy system

number of entities with inappropriate maintenance increased, those systems were gradually integrated and became a regular water supply system -- with this integration, the population supplied with water exceeded 5,000 -- under the initiative of the government. The momentum seen in the rural areas stimulated the development of water supply systems in small- and medium-sized local cities. This led to gradual decrease in the population supplied with a small water supply system as well as in its ratio in all the water supply systems after 1965. At present, coverage of water supply system is 96.6%, of which 5% being that

by small water supply system.⁴⁾

At that time, objectives of small water supply system development were as follows:

- (1) Improvement in sanitation in rural areas
- (2) Improvement in livelihood in rural areas
- (3) Reduction of women's water drawing labor
- (4) Fire prevention in a community
- (5) Promotion of fishery on isolated islands

Of those, most the beneficial was the release of housewives from water drawing labor. There are various stories and data that show how laborious water drawing was at that time. This includes stories like "It was said, 'No woman will marry into a family without water supply system in the household'" and "Housewives shed tears of joy when a small water supply system was installed". Koune Island -- Setoda town, Hiroshima Prefecture -- suffered from lack of water. Regarding laboriousness before the installation of small water supply system, Ms. Chieko Nakata wrote, "Water drawing was women's job. When a well dried up, we had to go to a place about 300m away, drew water using a wooden tub with a capacity of about 18 liter and carried it to the house, repeating this work three times. We felt pain in the shoulder, and were unable to stand erect. It was so painful that we nearly cried."⁵⁾

The following calculation, which is included in a petition for a government budget in 1957 from Japan Small Scale Water Works Association, shows how laborious the water drawing labor was:

- (1) Distance housewives walked for water drawing in their lifetime

Quantity of water consumed per person ··· 60 liter/day (four buckets with capacity of 15 liter)

Family of five ··· $5 \times 60 = 300$ liter (20 buckets)/day per household

For 50m of carrying-water-distance ··· 50×2 (to and from) $\times 20 = 2,000$ m

For thirty-year water drawing (from 20 when a housewife get married till 50 when her son get

married) . . .

. . . 300 days × 30 years × 2km = 18,000km (of which 50%, 15kg of water is carried)

(2) Time spent for water drawing

Presuming drawing 50m of water takes 5 minutes at a time · 20 times/day × 5 = 100 minutes/day

365 days × 100 minutes = 36,500 minutes = 650 hours/year⁶⁾

At that time, not all of households had a bath in them. It was common that those without a bath went to their neighbor's house with a bath and used that one. Housewives drew water also for a bath. The person who took the bath first was the head of a household, followed by other men of the household and neighbors. At the very end, a housewife took a bath where water became dirty and viscous. It was said, "We do not want to marry into a farm household."⁷⁾

Not all the small water supply systems were subsidized. Upon a request of a specific community, municipal governments collaborated in carrying out the procedure to apply for a government subsidy by designating the intended system as a municipal facility. A portion of project costs unsubsidized was often borne by a community. It is said that residents saved money through "*tamago-chokin* (savings of money obtained by sale of eggs)", "*aisai-chokin* (savings for beloved wives)" and other savings, or provided labor to complete the construction. Those activities are exactly a resident-participatory approach which is presently being employed in developing countries.

3) Postwar livelihood improvement movement

As the Agricultural Improvement Promotion Law was enacted in 1948, each prefecture set up an agricultural improvement and extension center and assigned agricultural improvement extension workers and livelihood improvement and extension workers there. The agricultural improvement extension workers -- mainly men -- offered guidance on agricultural technology and production while livelihood improvement extension workers -- mainly women -- were in charge of livelihood improvement in rural

areas. Their actual activities were launched in 1949. Objectives of livelihood improvement extension workers were to raise the social standing of women who had been oppressed in the rural society to promote democratization as well as to improve the standard of living from the standpoint of social welfare

There were a lot of aspects of life needing improvement in postwar rural areas where there was no water and gas supply. Those included women's hard labor of water drawing and firewood gathering as well as unsanitary habitations. Livelihood improvement extension workers in early days were former teachers and highly-educated women. They painstakingly walked around the village and forged relations of trust with residents. It was their role, not to serve as an instructor, but to encourage women in rural areas to begin to act of their own voluntary will by helping them in various ways to identify their problems and improvement measures by themselves. Improvement in rural livelihood was, at the same time, propelled not only through a "livelihood improvement extension project" by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, but also through "nutrition improvement" by the Ministry of Health and Welfare, "new-life movement" by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, and other movements. Those diverse types of movements and projects overlapped and worked together to expedite the improvement

A livelihood improvement movement was a group activity. Group activities brought about mutual encouragement and cooperation, which enabled improvement. Improvement included clothing, nutrition/meals, shelters, bedclothes, and domestic human relationship. A basis of activities was existing bodies in a village such as women's group of an agricultural co-operative and women's club in a community. They mainly took up immediate problems and made improvement which required only a small investment

Those activities were self-contained movements in which a solution of a problem found was discussed within a single group to sort out a solution which is then implemented to effect the improvement. Those movements existed in each of communities. Information on other movements was conveyed by livelihood

improvement extension workers to each group, which also visited and saw other groups' activities. Extension workers also conveyed information obtained from national and prefectural governments to groups while transmitting requests of residents to a governmental section in charge. In those horizontal and vertical flows of information, livelihood improvement extension workers played a key role.⁸⁾

4) Small water supply system and livelihood improvement movement

A livelihood improvement movement spread as a community-based and woman-centered activity. One of its major themes was water. Common problems and items of wish lists for improvement included the laborious water drawing, low quality of water, dark and inconvenient kitchen, and a bath and toilet situated outside of a house. It seems that awareness of the issue and the momentum of independent efforts, which were motivated and heightened in and by the livelihood improvement movement, were also directed to the development of small water supply systems.

In Kumamoto Prefecture, Ms. Kiyota resigned as a teacher at a girls' high school to apply for a post of livelihood improvement extension worker in hopes of contribution to the raise of the social standing of women. After being employed as the first worker, she had a briefing on extension worker's activities from Ms. Matsuyo Yamamoto, Director of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. At that time, Ms. Yamamoto is said to have introduced one method as an example of activities carried out by a livelihood improvement extension worker in a village. The method was to instruct residents, in order to make them recognize the problem, to calculate how much time housewives would spend on water drawing from the time they married until becoming 68. It is interesting that exactly the same method was used as the grounds for request of a subsidy for a small water supply system, of which the project had started a little later than a livelihood improvement movement -- the former started in 1952 while the latter in 1949 (See the preceding section). This fact might mean that it was affected by a livelihood improvement movement. Ms. Kiyota put the example in practice in a mountainous area, which was the first place to visit for her as an extension worker. In an attempt to deal with the problem of the laboriousness of water carrying, she

installed a conducting tube with using bamboo stalks, which were locally available, to distribute water to a place near residents' households. It is said that men helped with the cut of bamboo trees and the installation of the tube. More improvement was conducted such as mounting of a hand pump to a well and the construction of a concrete tank at each household. Then, it is said that the encouragement of a small water supply system project by the Ministry of Health and Welfare led to the development of their small water supply system.⁹⁾

An example in Ehime Prefecture is that a young people's group formed a "culture promotion association" with the aim of escaping from poverty soon after World War II. A livelihood improvement extension worker, 4 H club, young men's association and women's club participated in the association, which mobilized villagers to embark on the first project. This was a small water supply system project. They first installed bamboo gutters to enable the distribution of water from the spring to the place 300 to 500m away, and then mounted a pump. It is said that in 1955 when smaller municipalities were consolidated, they applied to the municipal office to realize the installation of a water supply system. This process bears a resemblance to the above quoted example in Kumamoto Prefecture. Livelihood improvement extension workers in both areas used the method of solution that residents can work out by themselves with using materials that are available¹⁰⁾

Ms. Kiyota carried out the following activity according to a "scientific support" which is one of extension workers' methods. Having known that areas with low quality of water were adjacent to each other and covered a wide range, she produced a contamination map and asked a public health center for water examination. With a result of the examination in her hand, she requested the development of a small water supply system in those areas.

A result of the examination of the whole community showed that the community, which was land reclaimed along the shore, was affected by seawater, and that water was not fit for drinking almost

throughout the community. This allowed her to objectively prove to the municipal office that it was necessary to develop a water supply system in the community, which led to the implementation of the project.¹¹⁾

In Nagasaki Prefecture, Ms. Asai was very surprised, after marriage, at the laboriousness of walking up a slope with carrying water on her shoulders from a river running beneath her household. She suggested to the community that they should dig a well to lead water to a place near their households. Fourteen households in the community worked together to install a small water supply system. This eventually brought about a formation of rural livelihood improvement group, which is a reverse case. Ms. Asai came from another community and was sensitive to the laboriousness of life. In addition, the family, into which she married, played a leading role in the community and was able to group neighbors together to conduct improvement. Thereafter, she took an active part in various improvement efforts as a leader of a livelihood improvement group, whose activities were introduced all over the country.¹²⁾

In one community in Sado in Niigata Prefecture, river water was contaminated to become unusable in the mid-1950's. A livelihood improvement extension worker introduced the community to a subsidy system for a small water supply system. It is said that residents in the community formed a water supply association to install a small water supply system.¹³⁾

Although the relationship with a livelihood improvement extension worker is not clear, there were many cases that a community and residents played a leading role in development of small water supply systems. Omiya ward in Saitama Prefecture suffered from lack of drinking water. A head of one land improvement district in the ward, in a private capacity, assembled advocates in the community to set up a water supply association. He also dug a well at his own expense to develop a small water supply system. Senior members of a neighbor association in another community took a central part in installation of a small water supply system to solve the problem of water shortage, erecting a monument to commemorate this touching

story afterwards.¹⁴⁾

In Fukue city in Nagasaki Prefecture, a village mayor and president of a neighbor association took the lead in setting up a small water supply project. Some of income from a forested mountain owned by the village was devoted to a portion of project cost, which could not be covered by the subsidy. They bought pipes with that money, and asked each resident household to provide labor in turn. The residents helped with installation of pipe. All those efforts led to the development of a small water supply system.¹⁵⁾

On Kuga Island, an isolated island also at Fukue city of Nagasaki Prefecture, residents are commissioned to operate and maintain a small water supply system. Commissioned tasks include operation and maintenance of the facility, daily water quality check -- residual chlorine, turbidity, chromaticity -- reading of water meter, and collection of water rates.¹⁶⁾

When a small water supply system rapidly spread in 1950's, many facilities were operated and maintained by residents. Quality of operation and maintenance came into question, and the facilities got uniformly to fall under the operation of municipal governments. However in some areas, operation and maintenance by residents remained through the improvement of facilities, the simplification of operation and maintenance, and by gaining close support from a waterworks department of the prefectural government.

5) Activities of livelihood improvement extension workers in small water supply system development

This section will summarize activities of livelihood improvement extension workers in development of small water supply systems.

(1) Beginning of activities

There were two cases. One was that livelihood improvement extension workers instructed housewives to calculate how much time they would spend on drawing water to create awareness of

importance of problem solving among them and to encourage them to conduct improvement. Another was that residents had already formed a kind of group for development of a small water supply system, which extension workers utilized as a livelihood improvement group.

(2) Efforts toward improvement on their own

Efforts which residents could make on their own included leading water from a well in the garden to a jar in the kitchen through a bamboo gutter, leading water from a well or spring in the distance to a household using bamboo, and raising the height of a sink to make it more convenient. Realization that water drawing and housework using water at the kitchen became less laborious, and self-confidence that they made improvement by themselves led to the next activities. Extension workers enabled information on those activities to be shared so that they could introduce examples of activities to other areas or could get a hint for a new activity from other examples.

(3) Efforts toward regional water supply system improvement which required help of municipal and prefectural governments

Extension workers' activities related to regional water supply system improvement included introducing a community to a subsidy system, working in collaboration with a ward mayor and a young men's association to conduct activities, asking a public health center for help to obtain scientific evidence, extracting aid from prefectural governments by showing the scientific evidence, and telling residents which section would respond to their requests -- a public health center responded to requests of a small water supply system; a municipal office was responsible for application of a subsidy; and an agricultural improvement center was in charge of agricultural improvement funds. The extension workers worked for a rapid solution by freely moving among organizations

Through a livelihood improvement movement, residents identified problems, wanted to make improvement, and were aware that they could make improvement. Extension workers

instantaneously notify residents about the establishment of the national subsidy program and worked with young men's associations and activity groups in a community to build a community-wide consensus. This led to prompt application and obtaining a subsidy. Shortage of funds was covered by money obtained with using *tamago-chokin* and other arrangements which were applied in the livelihood improvement movement. The livelihood improvement movement laid the foundation for a nation-wide boom of small water supply system development. In addition, livelihood improvement extension workers' cross-organizational action and information transmission could have been also one of the factors that brought about this boom.

6) Application of livelihood improvement movement to water supply project in rural areas in developing countries

This section will analyze the influence of a livelihood improvement movement on development of small water supply system in Japan and identify issues when applying the movement in developing countries.

- (1) To secure personnel corresponding to livelihood improvement extension workers and to identify an organization to which the personnel should be assigned;
- (2) To implement a project to train livelihood improvement extension workers;
- (3) To select a community where a livelihood improvement extension worker can play an active role for a pilot project -- forming a group through a small-scale women-centered livelihood improvement movement
- (4) To ensure a project that develops from small-scale improvement into water supply program -- to establish a larger cooperative structure including men after women's activities take root in the community to some extent;
- (5) To create a body for constant support -- local government, technical cooperation organization, water works association, NGO -- in line with the establishment of water committee;

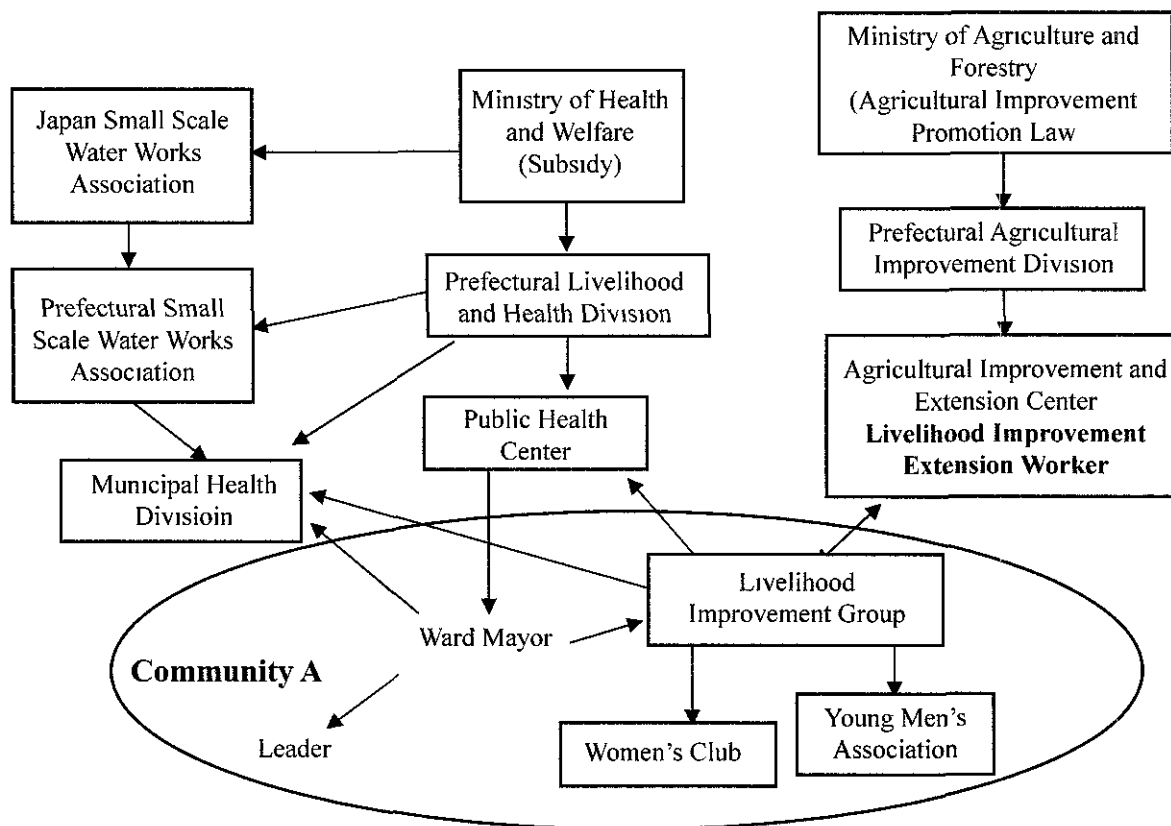


Figure 3 Organization and flow of livelihood improvement extension workers' activities

- (6) To ensure that a livelihood improvement extension worker constantly contacts with residents at the stage of operation and maintenance and to ensure vertical transmission of information; and,
- (7) To apply detailed methods which livelihood improvement extension workers used in Japan. Those methods include “find a leader”, “enable residents to identify a problem and seek a solution by themselves”, “prove scientifically”, “transmit information on other communities”, “show residents somewhat advanced communities”, and “become a contact point among governments, aid organizations and NGOs”.

Upon application in developing countries, development of water supply should be considered as a part of a livelihood improvement project (or program) as a whole in rural areas. Livelihood improvement extension workers would need to transmit residents various kinds of information in livelihood improvement

activities, without concentrating merely on water supply problem, and develop improvement from an individual level into a community and organizational level – the installation of a water supply system. In essence, they should keep the fundamentals in mind to carry out activities while fostering the willingness to improvement and self-confidence of residents.

Note

- ¹⁾ Global Water Supply and Sanitation Assessment 2000, WHO, UNICEF
- ²⁾ Reference Water Japan 1992/93 (*Suido Sangyo Shimbun*), 2001 Water Works Handbook (edited by Japan Water Works Association)
- ³⁾ During a postwar disorderly period when hygiene situation was poor, GHQ ordered the Japanese government to enlighten residents about hygienic practices and to take measures against infectious diseases. This resulted in enactment of an ordinance regulating small water supply systems and an instruction for enforcement of sterilization and water quality examination in many prefectures. In 1950, the national government subsidized small water supply construction in districts damaged by the Nankai earthquake, as a part of its measures to aid victims of the earthquake – it occurred on December 21 of 1946, causing destructive shaking (magnitude-8) and tidal waves, and inflicting considerable damages (claimed 1,330 lives) in Kii Peninsula and other parts of western Japan. The subsidy covered a half of the construction funds, which were greatly welcomed by residents. Thereafter, the installation of a water supply system was strongly requested by many neighboring rural areas other than the afflicted districts. In 1952, the Ministry of Health and Welfare budgeted the national subsidy for small water supply systems of 125 million yen with the aim of improvement in public health and welfare in rural areas. Subsidized projects -- one fourth of project cost -- were implemented at 180 places. Next year, as "the Ministry of Health and Welfare's Rules on Subsidy for Small Water Supply System Installation" was enacted, a full-fledged subsidy project was launched.
- ⁴⁾ Reference "History of Water Works in Japan -- General Statement Edition" (Japan Water Works Association)
- ⁵⁾ "Life on an Island Lacking in Water by Chieko Nakata", "Woman Destined to be a Cultivator" written by Mikio Kanda (*Nihon Keizai Hyoronsha Ltd.*, 1987)
- ⁶⁾ "Twenty Years of Small Scale Water Works" (Japan Small Scale Water Works Association)
- ⁷⁾ Excerpts from interview with Ms Taeko Kiyota (former livelihood improvement extension worker in Kumamoto Prefecture), February 5, 2004
- ⁸⁾ Reference "Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan's Rural Development Cooperation -- 2nd Year Report, March 2002" (Japan International Cooperation Agency – JICA)
- ⁹⁾ Excerpts from interview with Ms Taeko Kiyota (former livelihood improvement extension worker in Kumamoto Prefecture), February 5, 2004
- ¹⁰⁾ "Postwar Japan's Livelihood Improvement Movement and Basic Materials for Study on Rural Development in Developing Countries (I)", 2001, Edited by Hiroshi "Kan" Sato and Kazuo Ando
- ¹¹⁾ Excerpts from interview with Ms Taeko Kiyota (former livelihood improvement extension worker in Kumamoto Prefecture) on February 5, 2004
- ¹²⁾ Excerpts from interview with Ms Masako Asai (former president of "Tachibana-ka", a livelihood improvement group in Nagayo town in Nagasaki Prefecture) on August 6, 2003

- ¹³⁾ “Postwar Japan’s Livelihood Improvement Movement and Basic Materials for Study on Rural Development in Developing Countries (1)”, 2001. Edited by Hiroshi “Kan” Sato and Kazuo Ando
- ¹⁴⁾ Small water supply system study in Omiya ward in Saitama Prefecture. Excerpts from interview with Mr Kotaro Hajima in December, 2002
- ¹⁵⁾ Study in Fukue city in Nagasaki Prefecture, Excerpts from interview with Mr Kamekichi Hidaka on August 7, 2003
- ¹⁶⁾ Excerpts from interviews with Mr Nobuyoshi Yamada (Waterworks Department, Fukue City Municipal Office, Nagasaki Prefecture) and Mr Kinjuro Katsumoto (supervisor, small water supply system on Kuga Island) on January 29, 2004

5-8 Outline of Hokkaido Prefecture study

Reported by: Dr. Masami Mizuno, Policy Research Coordinator, Policy Research Institute, MAFF

1) Introduction

This section will present results of an interview survey about public health nurses for pioneers in Hokkaido which was conducted in August, 2003. Major objectives of the survey was to put into writing and analyze postwar Japan’s rural society development experiences to define Japan’s rural development experiences, and to present those defined experiences to an international society as a common property to provide basic knowledge about development cooperation in the future, and to contribute to enhanced understanding of the international society about rural areas and agriculture in Japan. Interviews with former public health nurses for pioneers in Hokkaido, etc. were conducted putting emphasis on the following aspects:

- (1) Various activities carried out by those nurses in Hokkaido Prefecture
- (2) Various efforts conducted in rural areas and/or by farm households with the support of those nurses

The study was performed from August 21 to 26 by the following members:

Leader Masami Mizuno, Member of Committee (Policy Research Coordinator, Policy Research Institute, MAFF)

Member Hiroshi “Kan” Sato, Chairman of Committee (Senior Researcher, Institute of Developing Economies, JETRO)

Member: Masao Watanabe, Planning Division, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries Development Study Department, JICA

Member Miho Ota, Member of Committee (Doctoral program, The University of Reading, UK)

Member: Yuko Yamashita, Doctoral program, Graduate School, Kobe University

A public health nurse for pioneers project in Hokkaido and results of the study will be outlined in the following paragraphs.

2) Postwar rural society development project

In postwar years of recovery, various improvement policies were implemented in the field of rural society development mainly by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, and Ministry of Labour. Table 5-1 shows the efforts worked out by those ministries. The important points here are an approach by an organization which provides services to residents of all ranks of the village, and residents' response to that approach.

Table 5-1 Postwar rural society development sector project and its extension and dissemination organization

Ministry	Area of Policy	Major Projects	Extension and Dissemination Organization
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	Agricultural improvement and extension	Agricultural improvement extension Livelihood improvement extension	Agricultural improvement and extension center, agricultural improvement extension worker, technical expert, livelihood improvement extension worker, livelihood improvement technical expert
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	Urgent land development, land development	Land development and settlement, increased production of food	Farming instructor for pioneers, public health nurse for pioneers
Ministry of Health and Welfare	Nutrition administration Health and Hygiene	Improvement in nutrition and dietary life Life without mosquitoes and flies (eradication of insanitary insects)	Public health center, public health nurse at public health center, community organization activity, district sanitary organization activity, nutritionist, nutrition consultation office, nutrition instructor, dietary life improvement promotion worker
Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture	Social Education	Community center activities Open school for women, open school for youth	Community center, branch of community center, subject matter specialist of social education
Ministry of Labour	Measure for women and young people	Protection of women and young workers	Office for women and young people, Volunteer for women and young people

- (1) “Livelihood Improvement Extension Project”
- (2) “Dietary Life Improvement” and “Life without Mosquitoes and Flies”
- (3) “Community Center Activities”
- (4) “Protection of Women and Young Workers”
- (5) “Public Health Nurse for Pioneers”

Organizations under those ministries worked together to promote the implementation of a project in the field of rural social development. Collaboration between agricultural improvement extension workers and livelihood improvement extension workers was known at the initial stage of the project. Some cross-ministry projects were also implemented. One of those projects was public health nurse for pioneers.

3) Project of public health nurse for pioneers

As Japan was defeated on August 15 of 1945, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry embarked on an urgent land development and settlement project for the purpose of relief for the unemployed, reception of repatriates and measures for the second and third boys of farm households along with increase in food production. Many projects for repatriates to become farmers, and for second and third boys in the name of a land development project for rural young people were implemented in Hokkaido Prefecture, Tohoku, Kyushu and other various areas in Japan. In Hokkaido Prefecture, farm households of pioneers made up 9.4% in the number of all farm households (as of 1970). Since the life in areas opened for development was extremely demanding, as soon as in 1947 public health nurses for pioneers were assigned, and they started their dedicated efforts toward improvement in health and nutrition of the families of settlers.

This public health nurse for pioneers system was placed under the land development administration as a part of a comprehensive goal of development, including farming promotion and development of living environment, health, and educational facilities for settlers in areas opened for development, and depended on subsidies of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Their wide-ranging duties included extension of

and improvement in hygienic practices, nutrition improvement, sanitation of shelters, water supply, sewage system, public cleanliness and other environmental sanitation, maternal and child health, and prevention against tuberculosis, diseases of aged people, and infectious diseases in areas opened for development. Public health nurses for pioneers were exactly an entity of combination of public health nurses and livelihood improvement extension workers. The number of those nurses rose to 317 at its maximum in the mid- and late 1960's. In 1960, the construction of women's home for pioneers -- a cultural center -- started for the support of livelihood improvement in areas opened for development, which greatly contributed to the promotion of women's activities there such as livelihood improvement, health and cultural activities. However, the agricultural land development administration completed its missions, and the general agricultural administration took over its tasks. Public health nurses for pioneers were also transferred to the position of public health nurses at health centers or municipal offices, and ended their historical missions in April of 1970 (see Table 5-2).

Table 5-2 Development of public health nurse for pioneers system

Date	Principal Events
Nov 1945	Outline of the urgent land development project implementation
Jan. 1946	Guidelines for the urgent land development project aid
Oct.	Guidelines for the land development project implementation
Nov.	Assignment rule of doctors, public health nurses, and maternity nurses for pioneers (39 public health nurses for pioneers in Hokkaido Prefecture)
Sep 1947	Outline of aid for cultural and welfare facilities for settlers' (Number of staff assigned: 180) (1) Extension of and improvement in hygienic practices (2) Nutrition improvement (3) Sanitation of shelters, water supply, sewage system, public cleanliness and environmental sanitation (4) Maternal and child health (5) Prevention against tuberculosis, diseases of adult people, infectious and other diseases
1953	Public health nurses for pioneers becoming prefectural government staff
1958	Adoption of scooters for public health nurses for pioneers (Hokkaido)
1959-61	Number of public health nurses for pioneer in Hokkaido amounting to 100 (103 in 1962-64)
1960	Construction of women's homes for pioneers
1963	" <i>Aino-kane</i> (Bell of Love)" being erected at women's home for pioneers (Hokkaido)
July 1964	Outline of assignment of public health nurses for pioneer
1965	Number of public health nurses for pioneers reaching 317
1970	End of land development policy. Transfer of public health nurses for pioneers to the position of public health nurses at health center -- municipal office --

4) Project of public health nurse for pioneers in Hokkaido

The origin of land development in Hokkaido dates back to a land development and settlement policy in the Meiji era. A predecessor of the postwar land development is the second land development and settlement plan for the period of 20 years from 1927 to 1946. This plan originally aimed at strengthening of settler policy, but its emphasis was newly placed on wartime evacuation and group settlement in times of war. In November of 1945 just after the end of the war, an “urgent land development project” started, directing the emphasis of the plan on land development. The project was an emergency measure to deal with population upsurge and food shortage due to repatriates from overseas territories. Aiming at self-sufficiency in food, it set a goal of reclaimed land of 1,550,000 ha (of which 700,000 ha was in Hokkaido) and 1,000,000 households (of which 200,000 were in Hokkaido) settled across the country in five years. Afterward, the aim of the project changed from “urgent land development” to “land development” because of certain recovery of food supply after 1946, release of imported foods by the fund of the program of Government and Relief in Occupied Areas (GARIOA) and slowdown of demobilization and repatriation. Although a goal of reclaimed land remained 1,550,000 ha, for Hokkaido Prefecture, the aimed number of households to be settled newly went down from 200,000 to 118,000. A new category of 88,000 existing households was created and designated as those to aim to increase their cultivated area, which was a measure to accommodate their second and third boys.

As this land development and settlement project started with placing the highest priority on settlement instead of establishment of farming, a lot of settlers under this project retired from agriculture after a time. Land allocated to settlers under this project was 3.5 ha per household, which was substantially below an optimal size. The optimal size at that time was considered to be 10 ha for dairy-farming and 7 to 8 ha for upland field farming. The life in areas opened for development was extremely demanding. As settlements had to be set on uncultivable poor lands in remote areas, it was difficult for settlers to go to and use existing facilities. As for shelters, the base of a life, huts were considered to be the norm. In early days, it was literally just a dream to live in a private residence. In 1948 an “Guidelines for the

implementation of aid project for settlers' facilities" finally opened the door to the construction of private residences. Educational facilities of *Kaitaku* Elementary School and *Kaitaku* Junior High School were established. There followed the construction of clinics and facilities for power distribution and drinking water. However, it is said, "Settlers in remote areas with poor living conditions were forced to endure the poor performance of farming and the hardships of life, which is beyond all imagination" (P. 35, "History of Postwar Land Development in Hokkaido", Editing Committee of "History of Postwar Land Development in Hokkaido", 1973).

To alleviate the harsh living conditions of settlers in areas opened for development, the authorities of the prefectural government took various supportive measures. Those included the construction of educational facilities -- elementary and junior high schools, health care centers -- for example, clinic for pioneers, and power generating and water supply facilities in areas opened for development. Especially in Hokkaido, "health benefits regulations for land development and settlement" and "maternity nurse aid regulations for land development and settlement" had been already established as a part of a prewar settler policy in 1929. Those regulations were abolished in 1946. In that year, the prefectural ordinance newly set forth "regulations of doctors and maternity nurses for pioneers". Then in 1948, "assignment rule of doctors, public health nurses, and maternity nurses for pioneers" was established based on the national government's policy on cultural and welfare guidance for settlers. This rule resulted in the creation of public health nurse services to take charge of the guidance on health and livelihood in areas opened for development. The project of public health nurses for pioneers was launched as a national government's aid project. Their horrendous labor conditions as well as great expectations and trust from settlers required the stabilization of the status of those nurses. In 1958, Hokkaido Prefectural Office established "The rules of the assignment of public health nurses for pioneers in Hokkaido Prefecture", and employed them as junior staff of the prefectural government. Later -- in 1962 -- all those nurses became regular staff of the local government.

Duties of a public health nurse for pioneers were to offer guidance on health and livelihood improvement to farm households of pioneers. This means that their duties included not only a public health nurse service conducted by the Ministry of Health and Welfare, but also guidance on livelihood improvement adopted by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in the agricultural improvement extension project. Since the latter task needed close collaboration with agricultural improvement extension workers to achieve the purposes, the health nurses for pioneers performed their duties with close linkage established between them and farming instructors, the agents serving pioneers' communities and equivalent to agricultural improvement extension workers elsewhere.

A public health nurse for pioneers was, needless to say, a public health nurse, and hence worked also in close linkage with a public health center and doctors for pioneers. They undertook single-handed all those tasks which included the jobs of keeping track of health conditions of farmers in areas opened for development, contact with doctors for pioneers and nearby medical institutions, and farmers' health management including possibly midwifery service. They are said to have worked 24 hours a day for health management of residents, visiting households lying apart scattered about the land under the climate of extreme temperatures. Their sense of mission rivaled or exceeded that of a livelihood improvement extension worker in "*naichi* (literally "interior land", a term often used by residents of Hokkaido, in reference to prefectures in the main land of Japan)"

5) Activities of public health nurses for pioneers shown in field notes

In the following, the reporter would like to point out some characteristics of activities of public health nurses for pioneers shown by the interview of this time with former nurses in Hokkaido.

First, it should be noted how tough the life in settlements was and that the nurses endeavored to support such life in various ways with their strong awareness of their duties and their ability to take action. The origin of land development in Hokkaido dates back to Meiji era. Then the land development evolved as an emigration policy in Taisho and Showa eras. Therefore, the postwar land development and settlement

had to utilize the land of conditions unsuited to agriculture, beyond the boundary of cultivable land, so to speak. Hokkaido Prefecture had to accept repatriates and wartime evacuees from urban areas as settlers, who were not necessarily those from farm households. Those factors contributed to the extremely low standard of living of settlers, further aggravated by difficult farming conditions. Consequently, for those settlers, objectively speaking, the presence of a public health nurse for pioneers was essential. Under those circumstances, some nurses worked night and day in the settlements to support livelihood of households' members and to sustain the life of women and children in particular, sacrificing their own family life. Not only the extremely tough life of settlers but also the fact that there was no outsider other than those nurses who could offer direct support intervention on a daily basis to settlers could have underlied their self-sacrificing performance. They knew very well that their activities were based on their relationship of trust with residents, especially women in settlements. That was why they visited individual households many times in earlier days. Especially in settlements, there were great distances between households. For the nurses the problem was a means of transportation. They initially walked or rode a horse -- including horse-drawn sled in the winter, and later used a bicycle or a scooter. Those examples show that support intervention is based on relationship of trust built between outsiders and residents to whom outsiders offer support. It should be noted that this is completely the same with what former livelihood improvement extension workers in other prefectures stressed regarding the promotion of a livelihood improvement extension project.

Next, the reporter would like to point out the integrated nature of the activities, which were carried out by public health nurses for pioneers. This was not just because their mandatory duties to improve health and livelihood for settlers required it. Settlers had to start their life in Hokkaido out of thin air. Comparing with livelihood improvement extension workers in "*naichi*", it could have been much more important for those nurses to take care of pregnant women and manage the health of children in settlements.

Public health nurses for pioneers took their inventive approaches. For example, some nurses started their

activities with keeping track of and improving the health conditions of children, which was the most immediate domestic issue for settlers. In some settlements, housewives raised a small number of hen, collected eggs laid, and sold them in order to raise a fund for livelihood improvement by themselves. The eggs were brought to and sold in town by a representative of the settlement. Those activities seemed to have developed into farmers' markets. In earlier days, settlers' farming was centered on upland field cropping. As livestock husbandry was added and emphasis was placed on dairy husbandry, the nurses encouraged residents to start "*kenko-chokin* (health savings)" in some settlements. This system was to credit 1% of money, that they earned by delivery of raw milk, to a resident's account opened in a wife's name. On the money saved, a health examination for farm households was conducted on a regular basis. In another settlement, success in swine husbandry -- received a prize at a competitive exhibition -- initiated the expansion of women's activities to evolve into joint growing of corn. Their activities were appreciated by town authorities, which brought about a subsidy for the construction of a women's home for pioneers.

In livelihood improvement activities in "*naichi*", "*kamado* (cooking stove)" often became an entry point. In settlements in Hokkaido Prefecture where a woodstove was used all year round, however, "*kamado*" improvement was never put on the table.

In settlements, the nurses' visits provided good opportunities for housewives to get together. They really looked forward to those gatherings. With such a circumstance in the background, the nurses worked to form a group of women in order to promote their own activities. In this group formation, they tried to establish an independent organization of women in settlements, not a subordinate organization under agricultural co-operatives, etc. This would show a refined and well-organized way of activities of the nurses as well as the progressive spirit of residents in settlements. It should be noted that those groups became the base for above-mentioned women's various activities to obtain funds. The organization of residents in Hokkaido would indicate the similarity with the livelihood improvement extension project in

“*naichi*” in that a livelihood improvement extension worker worked to form a livelihood improvement group with comrade-like bonds.

In closing, it is necessary to refer to collaboration between relevant organizations in promoting services of public health nurses for pioneers in Hokkaido Prefecture. For the promotion of a livelihood improvement extension project in “*naichi*”, for example, the collaboration and cooperation between agricultural improvement extension workers and livelihood improvement extension workers was crucially important. The similar situation was seen in the collaboration and cooperation between public health nurses for pioneers (livelihood improvement extension workers in “*naichi*”) and farming instructor for pioneers (agricultural improvement extension workers in “*naichi*”). The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry officials seemed to have had adopted a view in the guidelines, regarding the composition of the nurses’ job, that a 50 % of it consisted of the tasks for guidance on livelihood and the remaining 50 % consisted of those on sanitation. For example, the nurses and farming instructors are said to have worked together to visit around settlements to offer guidance on livelihood.

Activities of the nurses outlined here are only a part of them. However, the examples shown indicate that the nurses served as facilitators for settlers who lived in a harsh environment that is beyond all imagination according to the standard of ordinary living in Japan at present. This role of a facilitator was played by livelihood improvement extension workers in “*naichi*” in various ways upon their implementation of their duties. In the situation as observed so far regarding the functions effected by those agents, one would be able to find a potential model of approach common to various efforts for the rural development which should originate from the viewpoint of livelihood.

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5-9 Outline of Nagano Prefecture study

Reported by Ms. Miho Ota, Member of Committee (Doctoral program,

The University of Reading, UK)

1) Dates:

8 30A.M. to 1:30P.M., November 4, 2003

2) Place:

Agricultural Improvement and Extension Center in Nagano, 686-1, Nanken town, Aza, Minami-nagano, Oaza, Nagano city, Nagano Prefecture

3) Details:

An Indonesian NGO staff specialized in rural development took long-term training at Agricultural

Improvement and Extension Center in Nagano Prefecture under the counterpart training system conducted by Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV). In the study, an interview was conducted to identify the situation of the training, and an assessment was made about the acceptance of technical trainees from overseas

(1) Problems in accepting technical trainees from overseas

The study showed that language was the greatest problem for an entity which accepted a long-term trainee without an interpreter. It seemed that the translation of a training program into English alone took so much time and energy. Staff in charge of a trainee has to deal with additional tasks for the trainee while the amount of his/her routine work remains the same. Acceptance of the trainee would be a burden on him/her. This should make the trainee feel awkward and embarrassed, too. In addition, both accepting sides and trainees gradually accumulate stress whenever their consideration is not appropriately understood by the other or communication fails.

Communication does not necessarily depend on language. We can often exchange messages with gestures. However, the trainees do not come to Japan for “cross cultural exchange” that includes only communication. The objective of training is to learn about technology and know-how so that they can start activities in their own area and country after they return home. For this purpose, it is not enough for them just to attend a seminar and a study session. There are so many things that they have to learn about and understand through language, including concepts of extension, how to devise an extension plan, intent of aid project, administration operations and operations of extension center, in respect of an extension project. For example, the reporter asked about how they explained “project of equal participation by men and women” which made a subject of the training program. A person in charge of training answered, “Extension workers have not worked on this project during agricultural on-season, and will embark on this in November, when off-season starts. A trainee can attend a signing ceremony of the project. But we are not sure how detailed we can explain about it,

and actually have some concern. If not necessary, we may omit it” It is difficult to secure personnel and time for offering trainees a lecture on an extension project within each extension center. And that would be too demanding

Japan’s agricultural improvement extension project is very instructive for trainees. It is very unfortunate that long-term trainees have not been offered training other than attendance at an event or guidance on easy skills that require no verbal explanation at an extension center level

There are some suggestions on how to make up for a language problem.

(2) Improvement Plan of Training for Long-term Technical Trainees from Overseas

<1> Participating in existing group training course

If there is a short-term training course conducted by JICA or Rural Women Empowerment and Life Improvement Association while a long-term trainee stays, the trainee might participate in the course during that period. For example, a “group training to raise social standing of rural women” is delivered for about two months every year at JICA Tsukuba International Center. This training course includes a country-specific seminar in the field. If one of those courses is conducted in a language the trainee understand, he/she might participate in the course to understand the outline of an extension project through the lectures, and then visit an extension center for on-site training

<2> Training by technical expert + on-site training program

When there are some trainees assigned to an extension center across the country, it might be possible to gather them in one prefecture at least for the first one month, and to offer them group training centered on lectures on prefectural and agricultural administration as well as on an extension project by a technical expert through an interpreter. Same as the above, each

extension center would be able to conduct on-site training during the remainder of the training period after this group training. It would be a good idea to implement a joint observation visit to an advanced area.

<3> Utilization of former JOCV OV, etc

It might be possible to introduce interpreters and personnel, who will help to serve as a trainee's private counselor, to an accepting side and trainee through international divisions at prefectural governmental offices, JOCV OV (former volunteers) association networks, etc. It would be useful to make a list of or register people who are available. Those people could work as an interpreter or counselor once a month or so without remuneration or with payment of a per diem allowance as appropriate. Trainees can depend on the Japanese who knows both their and Japanese cultures. JOCV OVs and others who are interested in volunteer activities will have an opportunity to play an active role. This might also promote employment, and would be beneficial to both sides.

<4> Provision of "J/E dictionary for technical terms" to accepting side

When JICA asks acceptance of training, it might be possible to provide an accepting side, for example, with a copy of the "Japanese/English (or other languages) dictionary for technical terms" which is traditionally given to experts and JOCV volunteers during pre-dispatch training.

<5> Provision of learning materials in English

It would be possible to provide slides and videos in English -- English version or the one translated into English -- on an extension project that have been collected or produced by Study Committee of "Study on the Livelihood Improvement Program in Rural Japan and the Prospects for Japan's Rural Development Cooperation". There are many instructive videos in English, which could be used as learning materials. The videos include those on overall conditions of an

extension project, women entrepreneurs and “family management agreement” produced by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, as well as on overall conditions of agricultural co-operatives produced by IDACA.

We can use literature and documents in English and reports both in Japanese and English which were collected by this Study Committee. They would not only be useful to trainees, but also be helpful to an accepting side in translation.

<6> Possibility of cross-sector training

Objectives of training, background, and occupations vary according to a trainee. It is understandable that preparation of a tailor-made training program is very difficult that also requires coordination with relevant organizations. It may be inevitable that a program centers on not what a trainee wants, but what an accepting side can do. However, it might be possible to provide a flexible response upon a request of a trainee. This response would include a cross-sector program. The trainee, with whom an interview was conducted at this study, performed duties in the country that extended across agricultural/rural, health and educational sectors. Once training was decided to be conducted at an agricultural extension center, it seemed to be hard to make a formal visit to and take a seminar on the other sectors. In case of eight-month training, for example, it might be possible to allocate the training period, like three months at an agricultural extension center, two months at a community center, one month at a public health center, library and above-mentioned group training. If a training course is divided into a certain number of parts of different duration each part of training will become short-term, which would reduce the burden on an accepting side

Would it be possible for trainees to take different training courses delivered concurrently by different organizations, while staying at one place? They can take training mainly at an

agricultural improvement and extension center, attending its weekly meeting held on Monday without fail, going to a public health center when it holds a training course for health volunteer or there is an activity of a maternal and child association, and attending at a community center's monthly operating staff meeting. It would not be desirable for both trainees and accepting sides that trainees spend most of the limited training period staying at an office alone and "writing a report". It is desired that cooperation and collaboration among organizations will realize effective training which will be more consistent with trainees' request, without confining the potential opportunity of training for trainees within a single training organization.