

Japan.

Japan's foreign studies benefit from homeland studies, and foreigners' studies of Japan help in our studies in other countries.

Those who work in the field of area studies will appreciate the difficulties in finding answers to these queries, and these somewhat critical remarks are not intended to detract from the value of this most excellent work.

His descriptions accurately reflect the character and ethos of the Japanese. He speaks and thinks in the manner of a highly intellectual Japanese.

For this reason, reading the book is a pleasure, and it gives the easy feeling of being written by one of our own scholars. This makes the work of criticism less than easy.

Those who have had some experiences in the field of area studies will find in this short review a measure of praise. (*Takeshi Hayashi*)

KEIKI ŌWADA (ed.), *Ajia no Tochi-Kaikaku* (Land Reform in Asia), Tokyo, Ajia Keizai Kenkyusho (The Institute of Asian Economic Affairs), Vol. I, 1962, 364 p.; Vol. II, 1963, 397 p.

1) These two volumes of studies deal with the agricultural systems and land reform in Asian countries and represent the work of a group of scholars under the leadership of Mr Keiki Ōwada. The research was sponsored by the Institute of Asian Economic Affairs.

The nations chosen for these studies were India, Pakistan, Burma, Indonesia, the Philippines, Ceylon, Thailand, Viet-Nam, Malaya and Taiwan—the ten principal countries of Asia excluding Japan and the Communist bloc.

The first volume is concerned with the first five of these countries, and the second volume covers the remainder. The contents of these volumes and their writers are as follows:

Volume I.

I. Land Reform in India Yoshito Jinnouchi

1. Land System During the Colonial Rule.
2. Land Policy After Independence.

II. Land Reform in Pakistan. Keiki Ōwada

1. Pakistan's Agriculture and Land Problems.
2. Land System in Pakistan.
3. Land Reform in East Pakistan.
4. Agrarian History of West Pakistan Prior to Land Reform.
5. Land Reform in West Pakistan.
6. Land Reform and Economic Development.

III. Land Reform in Burma. Kazuo Saitō

1. Land and Agricultural Problems in a Plural Society.
2. Farmer Protection Policies of a Colonial Government and the Influence of the Japanese Military Occupation.
3. Agricultural Policies and Land Reform After Independence.
4. Details of

- the Land Reform. 5. Results and Effects of the Land Reform.
- IV. Land Reform in Indonesia. Masaru Kajita
 1. Changes in Agricultural Production After Independence. 2. The Land System of Indonesia. 3. Land Policies After Independence.
- V. Land Reform in the Philippines. Akira Takahashi
 1. Outline of Philippines' Agriculture. 2. Historical Development of the Land System (I). 3. Historical Development of the Land System (II). 4. Increasing Agrarian Unrest. 5. Land Reform After Independence. 6. Evaluation and Problems.
- Volume II.
- I. The Land System of Ceylon. Masaru Kajita
 1. Characteristics of the Agricultural Structure of Ceylon. 2. The Colonial System and Land Policies. 3. Land Problems After Independence.
- II. Agriculture and Land System of Thailand. Kazuo Saitō
 1. Social and Economic Conditions of Thailand as a Semi-Colonial Country. 2. Economic and Agricultural Development Since 1850. 3. The Present Condition of Agriculture and Land Utilization. 4. The Land System and Policy. 5. Conclusions.
- III. Land Reform in Viet-Nam. Hachirō Fukazawa
 1. Prewar Development of Agriculture and Farm Lands and its Problems. 2. Postwar Land Reform.
- IV. Land Problems in Malaya. Torao Tamai
 1. Development of a Land Ownership System in Malaya. 2. Types of Paddy Field Tenant Systems. 3. Farm Rent. 4. Land Ownership. 5. Farm Land Policies.
- V. Land Reform in Taiwan. Keiki Ōwada
 1. General Survey of Agriculture. 2. History of the Land System. 3. Tenant System and Land Reform Immediately After World War II. 4. First Stage of Land Reform—Reduction of Farm Rent. 5. Second Stage of Farm Land Reform—Sale of Publicly Owned Land. 6. Third Stage of Land Reform—Purchase and Sale of Tenant Farms. 7. Achievements of Land Reform. 8. Characteristics of Land Reform. 9. Land Problems in the Future.

2) Land Reform is often considered a primary objective in the economic development of the so-called developing countries. The "Measures for Economic Development of Underdeveloped Countries, 1951," a United Nations publication dealing extensively with measures for the economic development of underdeveloped countries, stresses the importance of land reform as a prerequisite to economic development. The United Nations also made public a series of reports describing the efforts made to promote land reform. These

reports included "Land Reform: Defects in Agrarian Structure as Obstacles to Economic Development, 1951", "Progress in Land Reform, 1954" and "Progress in Land Reform, Second Report, 1956." "Progress in Land Reform" cited above is a collection of replies submitted by the governments of member nations to a series of U.N. questionnaires regarding the progress of land reform in their respective countries. Since World War II, this question has held the interest of the world and the countries of the free world have been carrying out land reformation at an unprecedented tempo.

It is worthy of note that, after World War II land reform centred on Asian countries, whereas the situation after World War I was that these movements were based in Eastern European countries.

The reason why Asia became the centre of land reform after World War II is, needless to say, that many of the countries in this area were previously colonies and, on achieving their independence in postwar years, placed a high priority on reforming the land tenure systems.

Enforcement of land reform by reductions of farm rent, redistribution of land and the transfer of land to tenant farmers at nominal prices almost tantamount to outright gifts is contingent on the withdrawal of hitherto dominant influences in one sense or another. The changes of political influence accompanying the liberation of former colonies made same possible.

Under the colonial system, land ownership was concentrated, generally, among absentee owners and non-working landlords and, except for large plantations in some countries, actual farming was conducted mostly by native peasants under small-scale tenant management. The terms of tenancy were unstable and farm rent was high. In this situation, land reform was carried out after the war in varying degrees in the form of an improvement or alteration of these terms.

The manner in which the land reform was carried out varied from one country to another depending on their previous social and economic conditions, and the differing political situations.

The land reform research reported in the volumes under review, therefore, is naturally centred on the analysis of the socio-economic and political conditions surrounding the land reform in the respective countries.

The research is, in most cases, divided into three stages: (1) land systems of the respective countries prior to reform, (2) how the reform was carried out, and (3) the results of the land reform. The study of the pre-reform land system naturally begins with a report on how the land system operated before the respective countries became colonies. Briefly, colonization created wealthy landlords and an army of landless tillers.

As for the way the reform was carried out, major items cover legislative measures taken by the Government, tenant-farmers' own liberation movements, and means and methods by which tenanted land was released. They include reductions of farm rents, limitation of large land ownership by individual landlords, and the release of farm-land to tenant farmers at low prices. There are also some instances where the improvement of agricultural tech-

nique, reform of the conditions of management and other measures are treated as land reform in a broad sense, as seen in the various United Nations reports mentioned earlier.

As regards the results of the land reform, the research deals mainly with statistics showing the number of tenants working under the improved terms of tenancy, the area acreage of the released land, and the number of farmers released from a tenant status. On the whole, the research does not extend to an analysis of the socio-economic effects which the reform has brought about. This is admittedly a difficult task, but the relative lack of such a penetrating analysis is largely due to the absence of data sufficient and adequate enough to make such an analysis possible.

Many of the writers who contributed their theses to these two volumes visited the respective countries with which they dealt. A few of them visited the countries specially for this study. The data used, however, were mostly culled from government publications of these countries and research reports written by foreign and Japanese researchers. No on-the-spot material was collected specifically for this research program. At any rate, the work under review is the most comprehensive ever published either in Japanese or any other languages. Although the lack of reference to Korea is regrettable, this publication provides a good source of information for those who desire an outline of land reforms in Asia. A country-by-country review is given in the following section.

3) <India> India's land reform rests on three "pillars"—the abolition of the Zamindari system which is a product of the British colonial system, protection of tenant farmers, and the establishment of a system limiting land ownership by landlords.

The first two were undertaken prior to India's independence, while the system of limitation of land ownership was instituted after independence. However, the pace of reform has generally been slow. It is being carried out, not uniformly throughout the country under a Union Government law but only partially by the laws of the individual states. The Union Government has not hurried itself over the question of land redistribution. All it has been doing to date is to help destitute farmers to establish farms on Government-owned unimproved land.

<Pakistan> East Pakistan enacted, in 1950, a radical land reform law limiting land ownership by landlords and owner-tillers to 33 acres. This naturally provoked vigorous opposition and the programme has been progressing at a slow pace. In West Pakistan, where a military government was established in 1959, a land reform decree was issued under martial law. The reform was put into effect speedily but the maximum landlord ownership was set at a generously high figure of 500 acres for irrigated land and 1,000 acres for unirrigated land. Consequently, the acreage released as a result of the reform is limited to only about 20 per cent of the total tenant area. Moreover, no farm rent control has been enforced in either East or West Pakistan.

⟨Burma⟩ Under the land nationalization law of 1953, owner-tillers are permitted to hold a maximum of 50 acres of rice-fields each and the surplus acreage has been sequestrated. At the same time, the Government started the confiscation of land owned by non-tilling landlords but five years later, the programme had progressed to only 30 per cent of the area scheduled for sequestration. In view of the political instability that has followed, it is not thought that the progress has been any quicker than during the preceding five years. Nevertheless, Burma has realized, even if partially, a land reform programme worthy of the name.

⟨Indonesia⟩ Because a policy of protecting the farmers' right to own land was enforced by the Dutch administration, the concentration of landownership in the hands of landlords is not very high in this country. In 1959, the Government enforced farm-rent control by legislation and the following year the Fundamental Law on Agriculture was enacted for the purpose of re-arranging the complex relationships of farm-land ownership. Furthermore, farmers' land ownership has been limited to 20 hectares. Implementation of these measures, however, has been left for the future.

⟨Philippines⟩ Since the early part of the 20th century, while the country was still under United States rule, land reform was undertaken in the form of the redistribution of church land, release of public land, and the promotion of a small-holding system. Since independence, the land reform has been carried on along these lines, but its progress has been very slow.

⟨Ceylon⟩ Extensive plantations were established in this country under British rule. After achieving her independence, the nationalization of these large plantations became an issue, but no conclusion has been reached so far.

As regards paddy-field farming, a tenancy law was enacted as late as 1958 with a view to strengthening the farmers' right to till the land and setting a fair farm rent, but the programme has not been adopted in all parts of the country.

⟨Thailand⟩ The only independent country in Southeast Asia prior to World War II, Thailand has been free from a colonial land system and land problems. Since a widespread small-holder system has been maintained, no land reform worthy of mention has been carried out in this country.

⟨Viet-Nam⟩ Under French rule, features of Viet-Nam's agriculture were a large-scale development of rice cultivation under a system of large land ownership. Land reform, now in progress, is distinctly oriented as a counter-measure against the spread of communism.

The year 1955 saw the enactment of a tenancy law by which farm rent was reduced to 15-25 per cent of what it had been before. In 1956, a law to encourage owner-farmers was enacted and landlord ownership was limited to 100 hectares of paddy fields and those fit for paddy farming. Surplus land exceeding this limit was to be purchased by the Government and made available to owner-tillers. Revision and documentation of tenancy contracts has progressed to 50-60 per cent and the Government is in course of purchasing land. Many problems remain, however, because of the difficulty of

maintaining peace and order.

〈Malaya〉 Malaya's rubber plantations are famous, for they produce the largest amount of rubber for export in the world. Half the paddy-field farming is conducted by small-holders. Accordingly, Malaya conducts its land policies in a lukewarm manner. Not until 1955 was a tenancy law enacted, and this law was only intended to control farm rents which had skyrocketed after the war back to prewar levels. Tenancy contracts for more than a year are prohibited, which means that Malaya's land policy is contrary to the land reform policies of other countries, which are designed to bolster the tenants' right.

〈Taiwan〉 Taiwan is a country where Japanese-type land reform has been carried out in a most typical manner. It was started in 1949 with a reduction of farm rent, followed in 1951 by the transfer of land sequestered from former Japanese landowners. In 1953, the Government began to purchase land in excess of three hectares per landowner and to sell it to tenant farmers. Taiwan's land reform was, however, much less severe than that carried out in Japan. For example, land ownership by absentee landlords has been permitted to a certain extent, and landowners have been compensated for the land they surrendered with 10-year dated securities and Government stocks. But, unlike the other Southeast Asian countries, Taiwan carried out its land reform with a thoroughness comparable to Japan's. (*Shigetō Kawano*)

KŌSAKU TACHIBANA (ed.), *Tōnan Ajia no Kikai-Shijō* (Machinery Markets in Southeast Asia). Tokyo, Ajia Keizai Kenkyusho (the Institute of Asian Economic Affairs), Vol. I, Overseas Markets for Transportation Equipment, 1962, 430 p.; Vol. II, Overseas Markets for Electrical Machinery, 1963, 398 p.

I DEMAND FOR MACHINERY AND INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION

1. World Demand for Machinery

As a national economy develops, greater emphasis is placed on the secondary rather than the primary industries, with special importance being given to the iron and steel industry and to the manufacture of machinery. This comes about because economic development gives rise to an increased demand for the products of heavy industries rather than for other articles. In advanced countries there is a tendency towards modernizing industrial equipment and there is increased consumer spending on durable goods, while in the developing countries there are pressures for industrialization.

Observing this situation from the standpoint of world trade, we see that the world's export of machinery, which had stood at \$ 17,100 million in 1955, advanced by 76 per cent in 1961 to reach \$ 30,100 million. As against this, the world's total export of all items rose by only 43 per cent from \$ 92,800 million to \$ 133,000 million during the same period.