

### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-1) CITES

###### a) Purposes and Contents of the Convention

The “Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora” (CITES) was adopted in Washington, USA in March 1973 to conserve endangered species of wildlife through regulating the collection and international trade by both exporting and importing countries. The convention came into effect in 1975. Japan ratified the convention in 1980 and in Japan the convention is usually referred to as the “Washington Convention”. There are 146 countries of the party ratifying the convention as of December 1999.

The convention controls international trade in threatened species of wild plants and animals by listing them on Appendix I, II and III, which are principally not only for live specimens, eggs and seeds but also for partial, derivative and processed items. The countries of the party are given a right to seek “reservation” on some particular species, in which case, those countries are regarded as the non-party countries as for the species on reservation. The countries of the party are required to designate “Management Authority” to issue export and import permits and “Scientific Authority” to advise scientifically to the Management Authority.

###### b) Measures for CITES in Japan

###### 1) Systems

In Japan, the Management Authority is the Ministry of International Trade and Industry for the export and import and the Fisheries Agency for the introduction from the sea, while the Scientific Authority is the Environment Agency and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. In order to implement the convention properly, the “Liaison Meeting for Government Offices Concerning CITES” was established with the chair of the Environment Agency.

###### 2) Control of export and import

Control of exports and imports based on the convention is implemented through the Foreign Exchange and Foreign Trade Control Law, the Customs Law and the Ordinances for Export and Import Trade Control.

###### 3) Control of domestic trade

To implement trade control more effectively, the Endangered Species Law includes provisions for the control of domestic trade and transfer in Appendix I species of CITES that are designated as “International Endangered Species”.

###### 4) Role of Japan

Japan had been internationally criticised as an insincere and unenthusiastic country as regards obeying the convention. An example is resolution criticism presented at the Asia-Pacific Regional Seminar in 1984. One of the reasons for the criticism was that Japan had placed nine items on reservation at the time of ratification of the convention and at one time placed the maximum of 14 items to protect its domestic industries.

In view of this, Japan established a liaison meeting for the government offices concerned and started making efforts to resolve the outstanding issues and improve its trade management system. As a result, the number of items on reservation was reduced to six species of whale in 1995. Japan has been internationally gaining trust in recent years and was selected as a chair country of the CITES Standing Committee at the 9th Conference of the Parties. It is expected that Japan will continue actively contribute to proper implementation of the convention in the future.

自然保護年鑑編集委員会編（1996）：ワシントン条約とは？、世界と日本の自然は今 自然保護年鑑3、日正社

（財）国立公園協会編（1998）：1998 自然公園の手引き、国立公園協会

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions 3-11-1) CITES

Number of Species on the CITES Appendices

	Appendix I	Appendix II	Appendix III
Mammals	219 spp. + 21 sspp. + 14 popns.	364 spp. + 54 sspp. + 14 popns.	56 spp. + 11 sspp.
Birds	145 spp. + 13 sspp. + 2 popns.	1263 spp. + 32 sspp. + 1 popn.	149 spp.
Reptiles	62 spp. + 4 sspp. + 5 popns.	383 + 10 sspp. + 3 popns.	19 spp.
Amphibians	13 spp. + 1 ssp.	68 spp.	—
Fish	8 spp.	28 spp.	—
Invertebrates	64 spp. + 5 sspp.	2006 spp. + 1 ssp.	—
Plants (estimate)	310 spp. + 3 ssp. + 1 popn.	24881 spp. + 3 ssp. + 1 popn.	5 spp. + 1 popn.
Total	821 spp. + 47 sspp. + 22 popns.	28993 spp. + 100 sspp. + 18 popns.	229 spp. + 11 sspp. + 1 popn.

The most endangered species

Appendix I: Includes all species threatened with extinction which are or may be affected by trade.

Other species at serious risk

Appendix II: a) Includes all species which although not necessarily currently threatened with extinction may become so unless trade is subject to strict regulation; and b) Other species which must be subject to regulation in order that trade in certain specimens of species referred to in sub-paragraph (a) above may be brought under effective control, i.e., species similar in appearance.

Appendix III: All species which any Party identifies as being subject to regulation within its jurisdiction for the purpose of preventing or restricting exploitation. The cooperation of other Parties, is therefore, needed.

CITES: <http://www.wcmc.org.uk/cites/eng/append/species.shtml>

### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-2) Ramsar Convention

The “Convention on Wetlands of International Importance Especially as Waterfowl Habitat” (Ramsar Convention) was adopted in Ramsar, Iran in February 1971 to conserve internationally important wetlands as the habitats of waterfowls and other diversified wildlife. In the convention, a wetland is defined as marshes, swamps, moors, peat bogs and bodies of water, including off-shore coastal areas to a depth of less than 6 m at low tide. As far as wetlands importance as waterfowl habitat, a wetland includes most water-related areas, including mangrove woodlands, tidal flats, lakes, rivers, wet woodlands, rice fields and dams.

The convention states that the countries of the party have an obligation to designate at least one internationally important wetland in terms of ecology, botany, zoology, limnology and hydrology and to register it on a list managed by the Convention Secretariat. The countries of the party also have an obligation to take measures to conserve and utilise the registered wetlands and to report ecological changes and other threats to those wetlands to the Convention Secretariat. 117 countries have ratified the convention as of December 1999 and a total of 1,011 sites comprising approximately 72 million hectares are registered as the Ramsar wetlands around the world.

Japan ratified the convention in October 1980 and registered Kushiro Marsh, an important breeding area for red-crowned cranes, as the first Ramsar wetland in Japan. Ten more wetlands were registered by 1999: The Lakes of Izu/Uchi, Lake Kutcharo, Lake Utonai, Kiritappu Marsh, Lake Akkeshi/Bekanbeushi Marsh, Yatsu Tideland, Katano-kamo Pond, Lake Biwa, Sakata and Manko. These wetlands provide important wintering, transit or breeding areas for waterfowls, such as swans, geese, ducks, snipes and plovers.

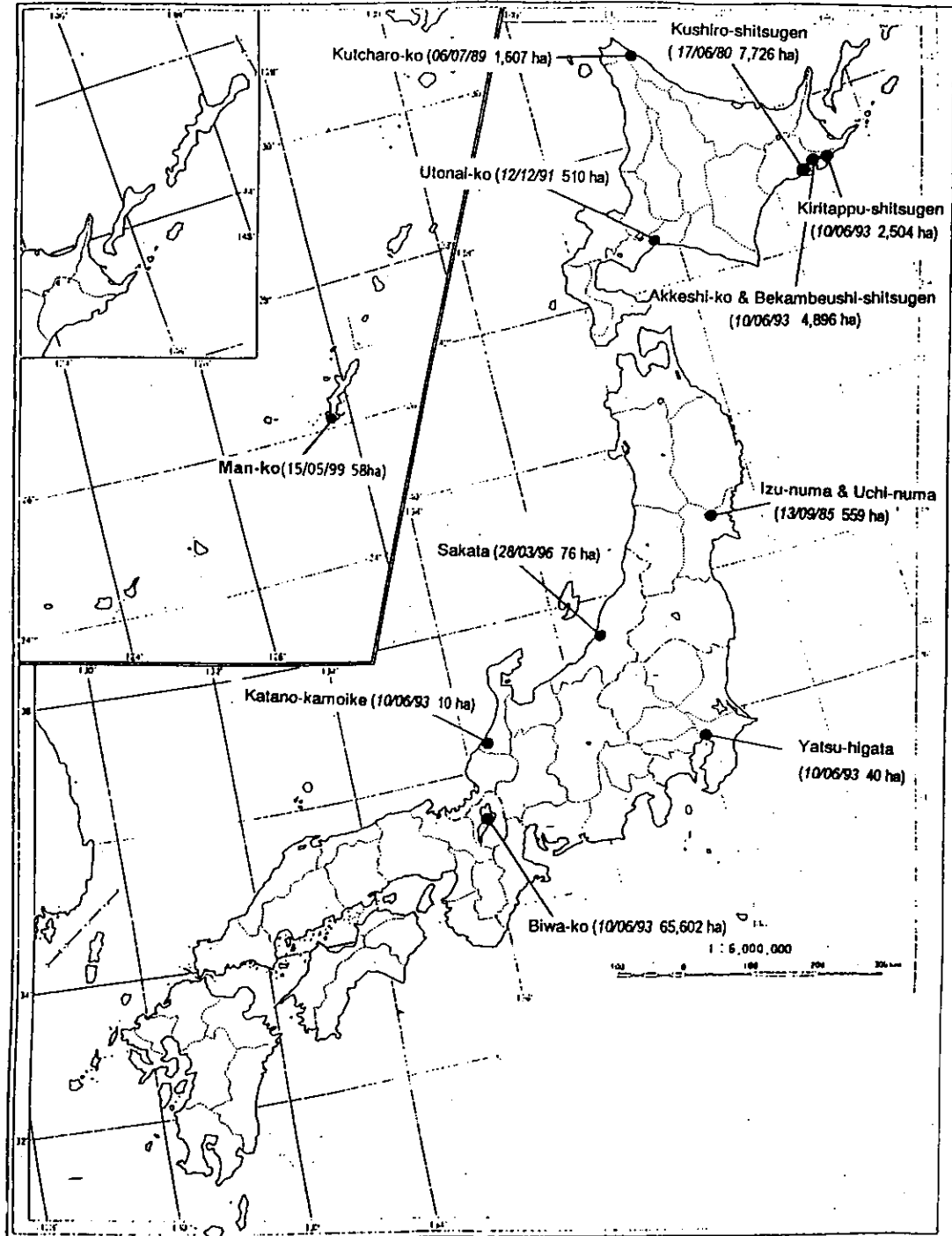
The Conference of the Parties for the convention is held every three years, at which the countries of the party report and discuss the present state of the wetlands, conservation programmes and wise use of the wetlands, as well as the implementation of the convention itself and international cooperation. At the 4th Conference of the Parties in 1989, the need for technical support for proper conservation and management of the wetlands in developing countries led to the establishment of a “wetland conservation fund”. The Standing Committee Meetings are held by the Convention Secretariat, which also manages and applies the fund to the wetland conservation projects in cooperation with governments and NGOs. The 5th Conference of the Parties was held in Kushiro in June 1993, attended by about 1,200

participants from 95 countries. 9 resolutions and 15 recommendations were adopted.

不破 敬一郎 編著 (1994): ラムサール条約、地球環境ハンドブック、朝倉書店  
ほかに ; 山下 弘文 (1998): 湿地の保護と共生 (ラムサール条約) 自然保護ハンドブ  
ック (沼田 眞 編) 朝倉書店

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions 3-11-2) Ramsar Convention

Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar Sites) in Japan



井上 晋 (1998):ラムサール条約への登録のための新たな湿地の指定、野生生物保護行政、野生生物保護行政研究会

### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-3) Convention on Biological Diversity

###### a) Putting the Convention into effect

Conservation of wildlife and the threats of extinction for species were mentioned in “Declaration on the Human Environment” at the UN Conference on the Human Environment in 1972 and ten years later in the Nairobi Declaration at the UNEP High Level Committee in 1982. UNEP first started working to establish a comprehensive framework for wildlife conservation by introducing the concept of “biodiversity” in 1987. After several meetings and conferences, the “Convention on Biological Diversity” was adopted in Nairobi, Kenya in May 1992 and signed by 157 countries including Japan in the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED: Earth Summit) in June 1992. Japan ratified the convention in May 1993 and the convention came into effect in December 1993.

###### b) Biodiversity

The convention seeks to conserve biological diversity at three levels, ecosystems, species and genetic, and to ensure its sustainable use.

###### 1) Diversity of ecosystems

The survival of all species depends on the health of the ecosystems they inhabit, and as such maintenance of diversity species also demands maintenance of diversity of ecosystems.

###### 2) Species diversity

The fact that at present the rate of extinction of species is progressing faster than has ever experienced. No amount of human effort can recreate a species once it has become extinct. A species once extinct takes with into extinction its unique adaptations to its environment, adaptations which may have been of indispensable use for human existence in the future, such as for development of medicine and crops. Also, species not only depend on their environment, but also contribute to it, and the greater the variety of species on Earth, the richer that environment, on which we also depend, becomes

###### 3) Genetic diversity

Genetic diversity is vital for the maintenance of adaptive ability of a species. It is the variation in genetic structure that enables a species to evolve and adapt to changes in its environment such as disease outbreaks, climatic change. Without a wide genetic pool to resource, a species chances of survival weaken

###### c) Discussions at the Convention Negotiations

Major issues discussed through negotiations for the convention are as follows:

1) Objectives of the Convention

Although developing countries asserted that technical transfers and funding assistance should be also be treated as objectives of the convention, these items were instead regarded as measures. The objectives were finally limited to three points: i) conservation of biodiversity; ii) sustainable use of biodiversity; and iii) fair distribution of benefits derived from the genetic resources.

2) Conservation measures

Provision of a global list, which would select internationally important areas and species and give priority for conservation and international cooperation, was deleted after objections from the developing countries and a few developed countries. However, it appears that significance of the conservation was not missed since the conservation measures by each country were comprehensively provided for in the convention.

3) Access to and technical transfer of genetic resources

Many developing countries strongly demanded that the developed countries the return benefits derived from the genetic resources collected in those developing countries and to promote technical transfer of biotechnology. On the other hand, developed countries insisted that protection of the intellectual property rights is indispensable for the advancement of technical development by private corporations. As a result, both the requests were provided for in the convention.

4) Financial issues

Developing countries requested the establishment of a new fund while developed countries insisted on the use of existing mechanisms, such as the Global Environmental Facility. It was concluded that until proper reforms were in place, the Global Environmental Facility would temporarily provide the machinery for the interim, and financial management would until then function under administration and guidance by the Conferences of the Parties.

渡辺 綱男 (1994): 生物多様性条約、地球環境ハンドブック (不破 敬一郎 編)、朝倉書店



(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions  
3-11-3) Convention on Biological Diversity

**Content of the Convention on Biological Diversity**

1. Purpose of the Convention (Article 1)
  - i. Conservation of biological diversity
  - ii. Sustainable use of the elements of biological diversity
  - iii. Equitable distribution of benefits drawn from genetic resources
2. Measures for Conservation (Articles 6-14)
  - i. Establishment of national strategies for conservation of biological diversity and integration of the strategies into related plans and policies
  - ii. Selection and monitoring of the important area and species
  - iii. *In-situ* conservation: Establishment of the system for protected areas, conservation and restoration of the ecosystems
  - iv. *Ex-situ* conservation: preservation under captivity, breeding, and reintroduction to the wild
  - v. Sustainable use and management of biological resources
  - vi. Socio-economic measures to promote conservation of biological diversity
  - vii. Research, training, education and information dissemination
  - viii. System for environmental impact assessment
3. Access to Genetic Resources and Technology Transfer (Articles 15, 16, and 19)
  - i. Acknowledge the sovereignty of the country possessing genetic resources and access to the resources should be based on mutual agreement
  - ii. Secure participation of the resource-providing country to research, and benefit from the resource should be distributed equitably
  - iii. Technology transfer to developing country should be done under conditions that are fair and advantageous to the developing countries. The Convention acknowledges the protection of intellectual property rights.
4. Financial Mechanism (Articles 20, 21, and 39)
  - i. Developed countries are to provide new and additional funding to cover additional costs on the developing countries resulting from signing the Convention
  - ii. Global Environmental Facility (GEF) was designated as the temporal mechanism for fund-giving
5. Safety regarding Biotechnology
  - i. Establish measures to regulate the use and release of biotechnologically manipulated organisms
  - ii. Consider the appendix regarding the safe transport and handling procedures of biotechnologically manipulated organisms. Exporting country of such organisms are to provide information on proper use and handling measures to the importing countries.

渡辺 綱男 (1994) : 生物多様性条約、地球環境ハンドブック (不破 敬一郎 編)、朝倉書店

### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-4) Desertification Convention

According to the International Convention to Combat Desertification, 'desertification' is defined as deterioration of the land due to factors such as climatic change and human activity, in arid, semi-arid and arid semi-wet areas. In this case, 'land' includes soils, water resources, ground surfaces and vegetation. 'Deterioration' refers to a decline in the resource potential of the land by one or more influencing processes, such as soil erosion, siltation and rising salinity.

There are two main causes of desertification. One factor is climatic atmospheric circulation around the globe, and the other is a human impact through actions that exceed the land capacity in fragile ecosystems. Once the land has become a desert an enormous and costly amount of effort is required for its restoration. For this reason protection of those lands as yet unaffected or having being affected very little is the more feasible and effective approach for anti-desertification measures

According to a UNEP report made in 1991, approximately 3.6 billion ha of land is affected by desertification, comprising quarter of all land area the Earth. Furthermore, approximately 70% of the arable land in arid, semi-arid and arid semi-wet areas suffer desertification. The land affected by desertification in Africa is about 1.0 billion hectares (73% of the arable land) and in Asia is about 1.3 billion hectares (71% of the arable land); the two areas of which combined comprise two thirds of all the areas affected by desertification throughout the world. The population affected by desertification is estimated 900 million - equal to one sixth of the world's population. These figures indicate that desertification is a serious threat to human existence in the developing countries.

International measures for desertification started in earnest at the 'UN Conference on Desertification' in 1977. In this conference, a Plan of Action to Combat Desertification was adopted, and actions to be taken by each country and international institute were recommended. Following this, a centre for planning and taking action on combating desertification was established in UNEP.

However, according to an evaluation made in 1991, the situations of desertification had not been improved because of insufficient basic knowledge on desertification and thus prevented the implementation of measures that were effective. Specifically, the following were indicated as causes:

Low priority assigned at both internal and international level;

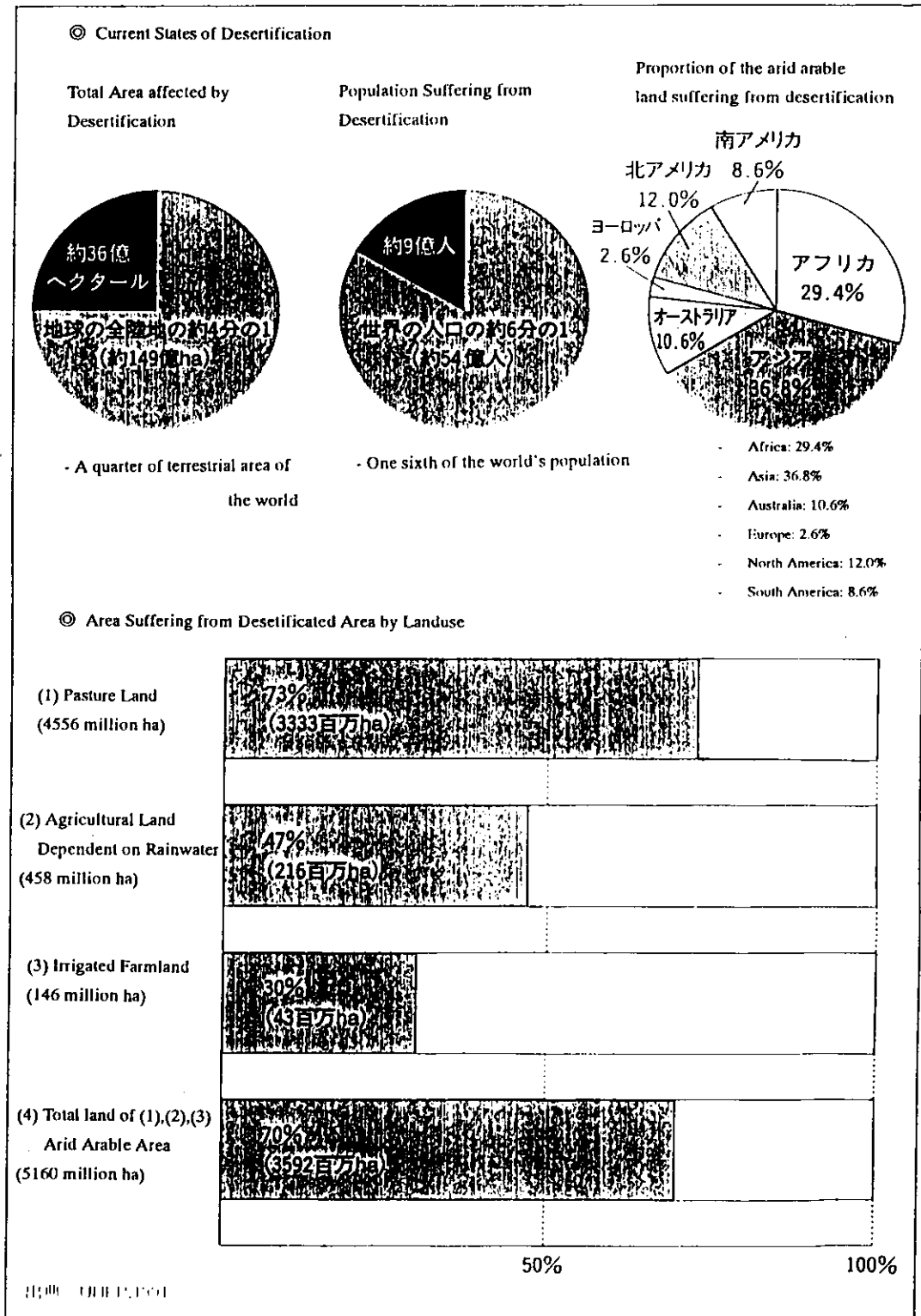
Lack of funding support;  
Lack of coordination with socio-economic development plans;  
Little participation from local people;  
Lack of consideration for political and social factors.

In the Earth Summit in June 1992, it was adopted in the “Agenda 21” to request the UN General Assembly to adopt the Convention on Combating Desertification. After establishment of the Inter-governmental Negotiating Committee for the Convention on Combating Desertification, the convention was adopted in June 1994 and came into effect in December 1996.

The Convention consists of a preamble, a main body and appendices to implement control of desertification in four regions: Africa, Asia, Latin America/Caribbean and North Mediterranean. Two additional resolutions were adopted following the Convention: provisional measures and urgent actions for Africa. The Convention provides the framework for measures for both developed and developing countries. In addition, other significant aspects of the Convention are:

- To indicate direction of the basic measures as 'principles';
- To require the countries of the party affected by desertification to establish the action plans;
- To require all the countries of the party to report measures for controlling desertification to the Conference of the Parties;
- To deal with fund provision as a central issue;
- To establish a Scientific Committee to provide information and advice on science and technology.

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions  
 3-11-4) Desertification Convention



環境庁地球環境部編 (1998) : 地球環境キーワード辞典、中央法規出版

### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-5) World Heritage Convention

###### a) Outlines of the Convention

The “Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage” was adopted at the 17th UNESCO General Assembly in November 1972 and came into effect in December 1975. The objective of the Convention was to preserve cultural and internationally valuable cultural resources and the natural environment by making a list of the world heritage and providing financial assistance to conservation measures each country.

The world heritage has two categories: cultural heritage and natural heritage. Cultural heritage is defined as monuments, buildings and ruins with historically or academically outstanding universal value, while the natural heritage is defined as characteristic natural areas, threatened wildlife habitats and natural landscape with aesthetically or academically outstanding universal value. There are 153 countries of the party ratifying the Convention as of 1998 and a total of 552 sites listed as world heritage: 418 cultural heritages, 114 natural heritages and 20 complex heritages.

###### b) Systems of the Convention

- Obligations to the countries of the party
- To recognise, protect, preserve, maintain and pass on the national heritage to the future generations.
- To avoid measures that harmful to the national heritage of other countries.
- To present a list of the national heritage to qualify for listing as world heritage to the World Heritage Committee.
- To Regularly pay contributions to the World Heritage Fund.
- To support fund-raising efforts by UNESCO for the World Heritage Fund.
- To encourage their citizens to value and respect their national heritage through education and public relations programmes.

###### 2) Recommendation for world heritage listing

Based on the Criteria for Inclusion in the World Heritage List, the World Heritage Committee examines listing of the areas recommended for the world heritage by each country; Prior to this, the IUCN examines the natural heritage and ICOMOS examines the cultural heritage. World heritage that is extremely threatened and requires urgent measures for conservation are registered in the “threatened world heritage list” and examined for financial assistance with the World Heritage Fund.

### c) World Heritage in Japan

Japan ratified the World Heritage Convention in 1992 and recommended Yaku Island and the Shirakami Mountains as natural heritage and the Buddhist Monuments in the Horyuji Area and Himeji Castle as cultural heritage; these sites were registered in the world heritage list in 1993. Other cultural heritages are the Historic Monuments of Ancient Kyoto (1994), Historic Villages of Shirakawago/Gokayama (1995), Itsukushima Shrine (1995) and the Hiroshima Atomic-bomb Dome (1995). In November 1998 the 22nd Conference of the World Heritage Committee was held in Kyoto, Japan.

### d) Conservation and Management of Natural Heritage in Japan

#### 1) Outline

##### Yaku Island

Yaku Island has a unique ecosystem and outstanding natural scenery: Yaku cedars several thousand years old, numerous endemic and endangered species of plants and animals and a distinctive vertically stratified vegetation zones. The heritage site is strictly protected through its designation as a Wilderness Area, National Park (Special Protection Zone and Special Zone) and Natural Monument.

##### The Shirakami Mountains

The Shirakami Mountains is an internationally unrivalled area of beech forest, renowned for its well-preserved pristine state and the diversity of its flora and fauna. The area is a noteworthy model of the ecologically ongoing process within the various stages of plant communities. The heritage site is strictly protected as a Nature Conservation Area (Special Zone and Wildlife Protection Zone), National Park (special protection zone) and Forest Biosphere Reserve (preservation zone).

#### 2) Conservation measures

To conserve these natural heritages, a number of measures have been introduced in the form of patrols, research, provision of signboards and allocation of ecological management officers, under a system started in 1995. Two World Heritage Centres have also been established on each of both Yaku Island and in the Shirakami Mountains. Furthermore, a Liaison Meeting was established by administrative agencies of the central and local governments to ensure proper and smooth management of these natural heritage sites. Management plans for these sites were produced by the Environment Agency, the Forestry Agency and the Agency for Cultural Affairs and submitted to the Convention Secretariat in November 1995.

自然保護年鑑編集委員会編(1996):世界遺産条約とは?、世界と日本の自然は今 自然保護年鑑3、日正社

(財)国立公園協会 編 (1998):1998 自然公園の手引き、国立公園協会

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions  
3-11-5) World Heritage Convention

A List of Some World Heritage Sites

- ARGENTINA: 1984 Iguazu National Park
- AUSTRALIA: 1981 Great Barrier Reef
- CANADA: 1984 Canadian Rocky Mountain Parks
- CHINA: 1987 The Great Wall, 1987 Mount Taishan
- COSTA RICA/PANAMA: 1983 Talamanca Range-La Amistad Reserves/ La Amistad National Park
- ECUADOR: 1978 Galapagos National Park
- EGYPT: 1979 Memphis and its Necropolis - the Pyramid Fields from Giza to Dahshur, 1979 Nubian Monuments from Abu Simbel to Philae
- FRANCE: 1979 Palace and Park of Versailles, 1981 Palace and Park of Fontainebleau
- GERMANY: 1984 The Castles of Augustusburg and Falkenlust at Brühl
- GREECE: 1987 Archaeological Site of Delphi, 1987 The Acropolis, Athens
- HONDURAS: 1982 Río Platano Biosphere Reserve
- HUNGARY: 1987 Budapest, including the Banks of the Danube with the district of Buda Castle
- INDIA: 1983 Ajanta Caves, 1983 Taj Mahal, 1987 Sundarbans National Park
- ITALY/HOLY SEE: 1980 Historic Centre of Rome, the properties of the Holy See in that city enjoying extraterritorial rights, and San Paolo fuori le Mura
- ITALY: 1980 Church and Dominican Convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie with "The Last Supper" by Leonardo da Vinci
- NEPAL: 1979 Sagarmatha National Park, including Mt. Everest, 1984 Royal Chitwan National Park
- NEW ZEALAND: 1998 New Zealand Sub-Antarctic Islands
  - \* Westland/Mount Cook National Park and Fiordland National Park, previously inscribed on the World Heritage List, are part of this site.
- PAKISTAN: 1980 Archaeological Ruins at Moenjodaro
- PERU: 1983 City of Cuzco, 1987 Manu National Park
- SPAIN: 1984 Alhambra, Generalife, and Albayzin, Granada
- UNITED KINGDOM: 1987 Palace of Westminster, Abbey of Westminster, and St. Margaret's Church, 1988 The Tower of London
- UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA: 1979 Ngorongoro Conservation Area, 1981 Serengeti National Park
- UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: 1978 Yellowstone National Park, 1979 Grand Canyon National Park, 1979 Independence Hall, 1984 Yosemite National Park
- DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO: 1979 Virunga National Park, 1981 Kahuzi-Biega National Park
- RUSSIAN FEDERATION: 1990 Kremlin and the Red Square

自然保護年鑑編集委員会編 (1996) : 世界遺産条約とは?、世界と日本の自然は今 自然保護年鑑 3、 日正社



### (3) Legal Systems of Japan

#### 3-11) International Conventions

##### 3-11-6) MAB and Biosphere Reserves

Biosphere Reserves are established not being based on a specific convention but as a part of the international scientific plan of “Man and the Biosphere Programme” (MAB) by UNESCO.

#### a) Man and the Biosphere Programme (MAB)

The Man and the Biosphere Programme (MAB) began in 1971 as an international joint programme following the International Biological Programme. MAB has implemented research, training, demonstration and information services for the relationship between human activities and biospheres. The objective of the programme was to establish scientific bases and train specialists to work on conservation and rational use of natural resources together with issues concerning human settlement and activities. Fourteen projects were started with establishment of the project areas in the early 1970s. Results of the projects were evaluated in 1990 and the decisions were reached:

- Development and utilisation of a network of Biosphere Reserves;
- Activities to coordinate biodiversity conservation with sustainable use, including social, and economic development and the maintaining cultural values;
- Strengthening the development of human resources and research institutes as well as cooperation with programmes conducted by the United Nations and other international institutes.

In Japan the main activities related to MAB are academic research within Japan, overseas academic joint research, publicity work and international cooperation within the Asia-Pacific region.

#### b) Biosphere Reserves

Biosphere Reserves have a number purposes such as nature conservation, research, training and sustainable use of resources. It is crucial that human activity is regarded as a fairly important component in the reserves. The reserves are divided into the following three zones, each with a specific conservation objective:

- Core area: in the central area, for preservation of biodiversity without human interference;
- Buffer zone: in the outer areas, for human habitation and limited resource usage ;
- Transition area: the outermost areas without specific boundaries, for activities for sustainable development.

Biosphere Reserves are categorised by the IUCN as Type IX Protected Areas, and often

registered to cover existing National Parks. There were 57 areas registered as the first reserves in 1976. By 1990 however this had increased to a total of 285 areas in 71 countries. In Japan, four areas totalling 116 116,000ha were registered in 1980: Shiga Highlands, Hakusan, Odaigahara/Mt. Omine and Yaku Island. These areas are covered under all or part of the Special Protection Zones in National Parks or Wilderness Areas. All the buffer zones in these areas fall under the categories of Special or Ordinary Zones in National Parks; however no Transition Areas have been designated in Japan.

c) Biosphere Reserves in Japan: Hakusan

Hakusan National Park was designated as a Biosphere Reserve in 1981 principally because of the extensive size of its Special Protection Zone and its existing system of nature conservation and management, research and education. The Special Protection Zone of the park was designated as the core area of the reserve and the Special Zones as the buffer zone.

However, this designation did not attract much attention either at national or local level, and neither has the reserve has not been taken up as a subject for “Basic Studies for Human Existence and Natural Environment” sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. There was also very little publicity or educational work directed at the public and no budget was allocated for any of the programmes concerned.

National efforts for the conservation of the Hakusan area have resulted in the establishment of four separate protected areas, all overlapping one another: Hakusan National Park (47,700 ha: Environment Agency), Hakusan Wildlife Protection Area (35,912 ha: Environment Agency), Hakusan Forest Biosphere Reserve (14,826 ha: Forest Agency) and Hakusan Japanese Serow Nature Reserve (53,662 ha: Agency for Cultural Affairs)

All these areas, with the exception of the Forest Biosphere Reserve, were established without any of the land being in possession by the authorities concerned. This is a factor that makes control of the land use difficult. Many protected areas duplicated each other and the boundaries are not integrated because of differing standards imposed institution. Administrative systems at the field level are also complicated by the various offices concerned for each protected area: the national park office, prefectural offices, regional forestry offices and the boards of education. One area that has been left particularly unclear is that which agency is responsible for protection and management of wild animals populations and their habitats.

- 薄木 三生 (1994): 自然保護地域の種類と設定状況、地球環境ハンドブック (不破 敬一郎 編) 朝倉書店
- 有賀 祐勝 (1998): MAB(人間と生物圏計画)、自然保護ハンドブック(沼田 眞 編)、朝倉書店
- 堂本 暁子 (1997): バイオスフェアリザーブ(生物圏保存地域)と生物多様性、ワイルドライフ・フォーラム2(4) 野生生物保護学会
- 水野 昭憲 (1996): 白山生物圏保存地域と野生動物保護、ワイルドライフ・フォーラム2(3) 野生生物保護学会

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions  
 3-11-6) MAB and Biosphere Reserves

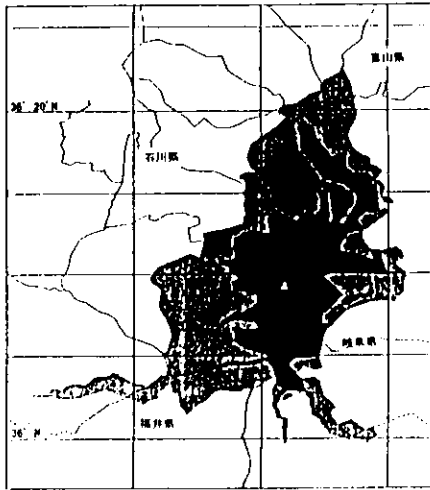


Fig-1 : Hakusan National Park・MAB

Biosphere Reserve  
 ■ Core Area = National Park  
 Special Protected Zone  
 □ Buffer Zone = National Park  
 Special Zone

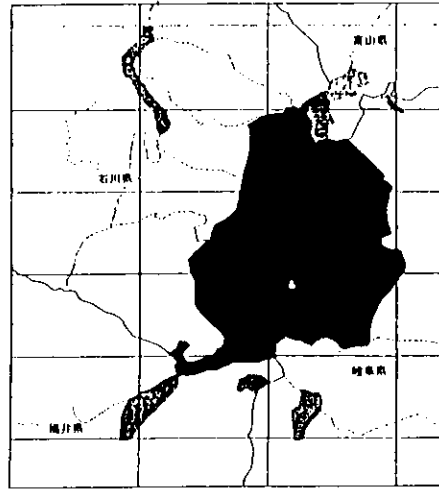


Fig-2 : Hakusan National Wildlife  
 Protection Area

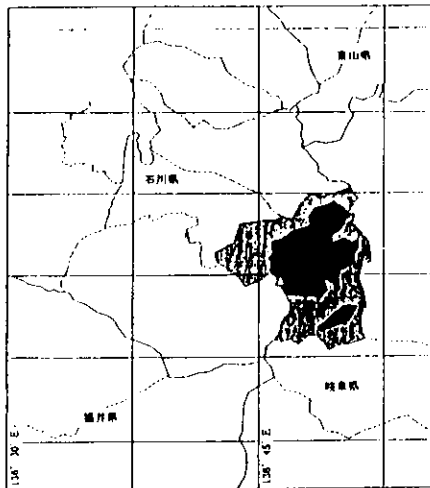


Fig-3 : Hakusan Forest Biosphere

Reserve  
 ■ Preservation Area  
 □ Utilisation Area

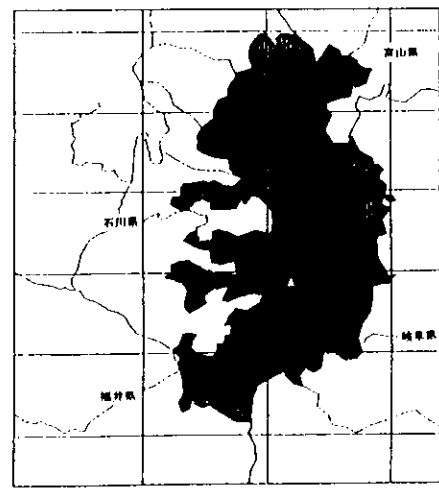


Fig-4 : Hakusan Japanese Serow  
 Nature Reserve

水野 昭憲 (1996) : 白山生物圏保存地域と野生動物保護、ワイルドライフ・フォーラム 2 (3)、野生生物保護学会

(3) Legal Systems of Japan

3-11) International Conventions

3-11-7) Conventions and Agreements for Protection of Migratory Birds

Japan concludes bilateral conventions or agreements for protection of migratory birds, birds in danger of extinction and their environment with USA, Australia, China and Russia.

a) Convention between Japan and USA for Protection of Migratory Birds

This convention was signed in 1972 and came into effect in 1974. Main contents of the Convention are; control of the capturing of migratory birds (190 species), protection of endangered species of birds (67 species/subspecies), exchange of information and conservation of the environment. In order to evaluate implementation of the Convention and to exchange the information, Japan and USA alternately hold the bilateral meeting every two to three years.

b) Agreement between Japan and Australia for Protection of Migratory Birds

This convention was signed in 1974 and came into effect in 1981. Main contents of the agreement are: control of the capture of migratory birds (76 species), protection of endangered species of birds (36 species/subspecies), exchange of information and conservation of the environment. Japan and Australia alternately hold bilateral meetings every two years. At the 9th meeting in Tokyo in 1997, both the countries exchanged information on the conservation measures those were taken following the previous meeting and agreed to tackle snaring of albatrosses by longline fishing as a new agenda. In addition, results of the research for one species of snipe were reported and new joint research project for snipe and tern species was planned.

c) Convention between Japan and Russia for Protection of Migratory Birds

This convention was signed in 1973 and came into effect in 1988. The main contents of the convention are: control of the capture of migratory birds (287 species), protection of endangered species of birds (29 species/subspecies), exchange of information and conservation of the environment. Japan and Russia alternately hold bilateral meetings every two years. At the 4th meeting in Tokyo in 1996, Japan reported the results of a joint research for an eagle species, and both the countries agreed to continue to implement similar joint research in the future. Research on a species of snipe started in 1997.

d) Agreement between Japan and China for Protection of Migratory Birds

This convention was signed and came into effect in 1981. The main contents of the

agreement are: control of the capture of migratory birds (227 species), exchange of information and conservation of the environment. In order to evaluate the conservation measures of the previous meeting, Japan and China alternately hold bilateral meetings every two years. Apart from this agreement, both countries have been implementing a joint programme for the protection and captive breeding of the Japanese crested ibis, one of the most endangered species in the world.

(財)国立公園協会編 (1998): 1998 自然公園の手びき、国立公園協会  
環境長 編 (1997): 平成9年版「環境白書、各論」 大蔵省印刷局

(3) Legal Systems of Japan 3-11) International Conventions  
 3-11-7) Conventions and Agreements for Protection of Migratory Birds

Wild Birds in Japan

- Resident Birds: Species that stay in Japan year around

- Migratory Birds

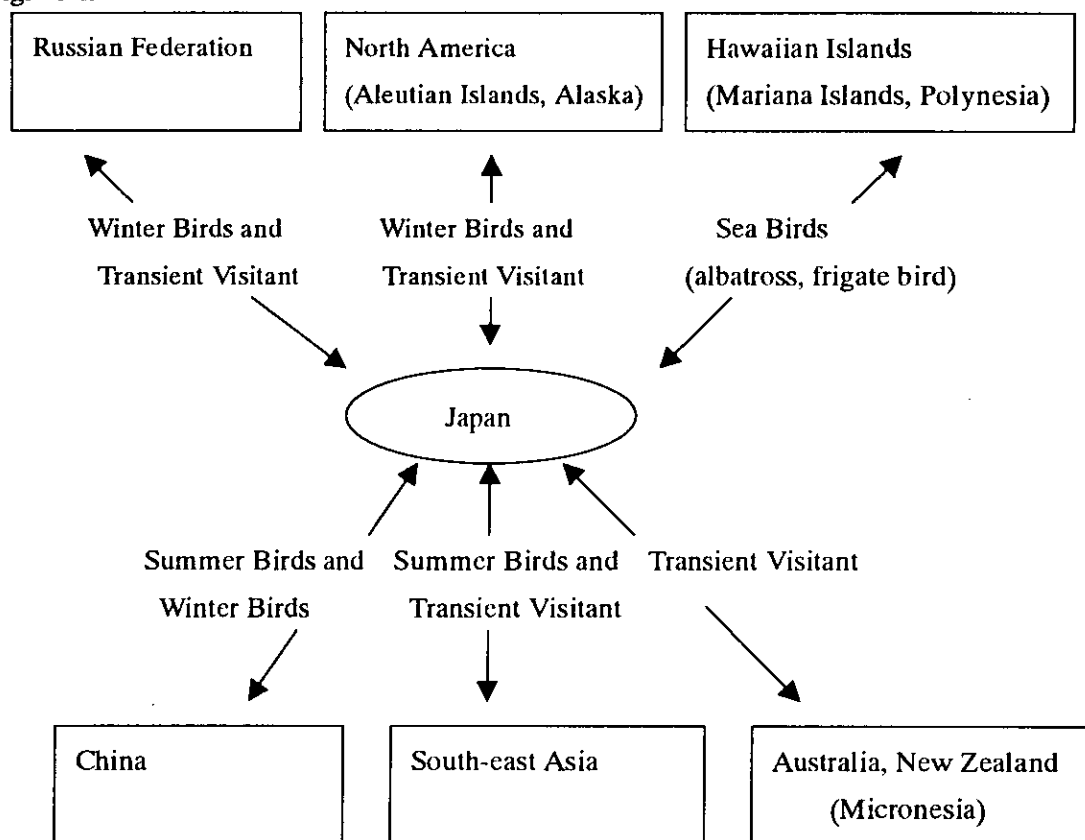
Summer Birds: Species that come from the south to breed in Japan in the spring and go back to the south in the fall.

Winter Birds: Species that come from the north in the fall to overwinter in Japan and go back to the north in the spring.

Transient Visitant : Species that temporarily stay in Japan during their migration between their breeding sites in the north and overwintering sites in the south.

Occasional Visitant: Species whose natural range does not include Japan but visit Japan by accident.

Bird Migration



(財)国立公園協会編 (1998) : 1998 自然公園の手びき、国立公園協会