

Food security and food knowledge in New Zealand and Japan

Peter J. Matthews

National Museum of Ethnology, Osaka, Japan

ニュージーランドと日本における食の安全保障と知識

ピーター・マシウス

国立民族学博物館

Keywords: food security, food knowledge, New Zealand, Japan, agriculture,
trade, translation, research

キーワード: 食の安全保障、食の知識、ニュージーランド、日本、農業、
貿易、翻訳、研究

A community garden in Japan

When the father of our farmer landlord died at the age of 92 in Kyoto, a couple of years ago, our landlord had to evict me and my Japanese wife, and other tenants, in order to avoid paying inheritance taxes on farmland that was not being used for an officially-recognised farming purpose. For more than ten years we had enjoyed being members of his privately managed community garden, which occupied a strip of fertile soil on a flood-bank above the Katsura River, a few minutes' walk from the world-famous Katsura Palace in Kyoto. We were surrounded by gardening enthusiasts, each with their own way of gardening, from which we could adapt ideas for our own efforts. We could also get useful tips from the landlord, a professional farmer with a family history in the area stretching back for many generations. We were one of the youngest families working in the garden. The other gardeners were mostly retired couples or singles. Demographic decline in Japan has led to a lack of children to take over the farms of aging farmers, and a lack of children to learn home gardening from city parents.

In Japan, the distinction between urban and rural is not so clear as in New Zealand. Small areas of farmland persist in otherwise highly urban environments, and 'new towns' project into largely rural valleys. In Kyoto, many commercial vegetable farms and community gardens are located along the wide flood-banks next to rivers that pass through the city. Flood banks can never be used for housing or industry. They have been naturally protected from the urban infill that is constantly eating away at farmland. Kyoto has long been famous for its high quality vegetables and vegetable

cuisine, but is no longer able to supply itself with enough vegetables.

People have been living in the area of Kyoto city for at least the last 14,000 years, continuously (Chiba 1993, Ito 1995). The food culture of Kyoto, and of Japan generally, has roots that extend far deeper than written historical records. To join a community garden in Japan—anywhere in Japan—is to join a community of local food production and consumption that has been evolving continuously over very long periods of time, with botanical and cultural influences from throughout the world (Hotta et al 1989, Tanaka and Ono 1895). Community gardens are highly productive (Fig. 1), thanks to the free labour dedicated to their maintenance, and are an efficient way to keep an

aging urban population active and in good health, but they are not recognised as farming. Our landlord did not wish to evict us, but he had no choice.



Despite the many concerns with food security in Japan, community gardens are given minimal government support. They are a potential training ground for future farmers, if children can be encouraged to learn in them, and must contribute some degree of local resilience to fluctuations in market prices. They deserve more support.

Fig. 1. Taro in a community garden, (Kyoto City, Japan, Autumn 2011).

On a national scale, moves are being made to encourage greater consolidation of fragmented small-holdings in farming communities. Policies are being developed to make it easier for young farmers to develop larger farms. Unfortunately, not many young people are available and willing to engage in farming. The agricultural economy is changing in unprecedented ways, and food self-sufficiency continues to decline. In recent years, self-sufficiency in calorie terms has been around 40%, and in cost terms it has been around 70%. These figures are based on news articles that cite statistics provided by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. Detailed statistics for many different food product categories can be found in the annual Agro-Trade Handbook published by the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO). Given that Japan must also import fertilisers and energy supplies to support local food production, self-sufficiency in ecological terms is probably much lower. A Canadian report (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada 2011) notes that:

Japan is Canada's second largest agri-food export market and the world's largest net importer of agri-food products. With only about 13% of its total land area suitable for agricultural cultivation and a population in excess of 127 million people, Japan must import over 60% of its agriculture and food product needs. This provides great long term potential for Canadian food exporters.'

Japan is still an attractive market for many countries, but the declining population means that other regions may have greater potential for exporters such as New Zealand. Japan faces much competition for food in the international markets, and must work to continue importing sufficient food on favourable terms.

Inside Japan, most national-, regional- and local-level discussions, among consumers, farmers, agricultural experts, researchers, and food-related industries, are largely out of sight for those who cannot follow Japanese-language media, including the present author. My main impression, from English-language sources and from conversations with Japanese friends and colleagues, is that many people in Japan are very concerned about issues related to food security. They are concerned with the future of rural landscapes, depopulation in rural villages and towns, the loss of local food production, food safety, change away from healthy traditional diets, and more. To this has been added the new worry of radioactive contamination over a large area of northern Japan. The contamination is likely to have long-term consequences for health in the regions directly affected, and is having immediate effects on food production in those areas, and on food distribution and consumption nationwide

While there are many old and new problems concerning supply, food knowledge in Japan is still very strong (Fig. 2). Food is a constant theme — almost an obsession — in all kinds of TV programming, from popular variety shows to news shows, to in depth documentaries set in Japan and other countries. There is also a vast quantity of printed information about cooking methods and local food traditions in historical, technical, and popular literature. A broad introduction to the ancient and modern history of Japanese food is provided by Ishige (2001). The Rural Culture Association of Japan (1984) describes local foods across all prefectures, in 50 volumes, based on the results of interviews conducted by project researchers across the entire country. This vast compendium offers a window on the state of Japanese cuisine in the early 20th century, as the interviews targeted the remembered knowledge of older residents in each area. A good practical introduction to modern Japanese cooking can be found in Tsuji (1980).

The recent and very visible changes in agriculture in Japan all point to a massive loss of production potential (reduction in arable land) and production skills (reduction in knowledgeable population). Social responses are needed, but people are unsure what they can do about the demographic decline in farming communities, the decline in local and national food self-sufficiency, and the many threats to food safety. These are just some of the many issues that are relevant when considering food security.



Fig. 2. Restaurant cook peeling yam (*Dioscorea*) (Kyoto City, Japan, c. 2008).

What is food security?

In 2009, as a class exercise, I discussed the subject of food security with a group of 55 agricultural science students in Nagoya. I asked them to think about the meaning or definition of food security. In Japan, there is no obvious direct translation for the phrase, but the question of "food safety" (食の安全保障 *shoku no anzen hoshō*) is addressed by the government in a broad manner that includes issues of supply as well as the quality and safety of food.

Both for the Nagoya class and for the present paper, I have considered food security from the broadest possible perspective. As a starting point, I gave the class the following list of suggested 'food security components':

1. Social stability (peace, not war)
2. Cultural diversity
3. Biodiversity
4. Land
5. Water
6. Population
7. Local production (perhaps this should be called 'food sovereignty')
8. Trade
9. Food safety (safe methods of production and preparation)
10. Weather

After explaining my own reasons for regarding each of these components as significant for food security, I asked each student to identify just one as 'important or more important', and just one as 'not important or less important'. The aim was to catch a sense of their first impressions or reactions, so they were not asked to provide any written explanation for their responses.

I found the results surprising, in various ways:

Firstly: of greatest concern to the students was the need for social stability—i.e. peace, not war. This received the greatest number of ratings, and all of them were positive—a somewhat surprising result, since Japan does not face an obvious threat of war. In general, though, it is a reasonable response, since most deaths in war are not from fighting, but from disruptions to food supply for civilian populations.

Secondly: the only component to be rated as important or unimportant in equal measure was 'biodiversity'. Of all the components suggested, this was given a rating by the least number of students. For many biologists and plant breeders, the lack of biodiversity in modern industrial agriculture is considered a major problem. One of the justifications for my own work as a crop historian has been to raise awareness of the potential value of a minor root crop (taro, Fig. 1) that has been generally neglected in agricultural research.

Thirdly: 'trade' was ranked as the component of least concern. This is surprising in a country that is so highly dependent on food imports. Food security requires stability, sustainability, and safety in the food chain. It depends on supply as well as on food safety or quality. For any country that is not self-sufficient in food, trade is definitely important.

In the future, I intend to ask students again to think about food security components, and should consider how to conduct a survey of this kind in a more systematic manner, from a social science perspective. The initial results obtained indicate that this kind of survey might be useful for learning about opinions related to food security, in Japan, New Zealand, and other countries

Food knowledge is inherent in many of the components listed above, and is necessary at all points in the food chain, from production to distribution and consumption. Effective creation, preservation, communication, and use of food knowledge are all essential for food security. In a recent newspaper report, the journalist and science writer Julian Cribb was quoted as suggesting that New Zealand could be a "Silicon Valley of agricultural knowledge" rather than being just a commodity exporter and tourist destination (Davison 2011). This is certainly a desirable goal for the country, but how can we get there? Cribb (2010) considered many aspects of food security in

detail, and noted that 'the world agricultural knowledge chain is ramshackle... [and] neglected...' and that 'one of the vices of the present global R&D system is that it values, and invests in, knowledge creation much more highly than knowledge sharing' (ibid:117–118). Knowledge sharing between countries is a theme I will return to after briefly reviewing the history of food production in New Zealand and Japan.

Food production in New Zealand and Japan

Tourism and agriculture are two of the main areas of economic activity in New Zealand, and they are related as the open, green pastoral landscapes are very attractive for many visitors. They present a huge contrast to the densely settled, horticultural landscapes of Japan and other countries in Asia. In Japan, the utilitarian value of mixed land-use areas known as *satoyama* makes their superficial disorder attractive in other ways. They are places that serve now as a kind of commons for gathering wild vegetables, and in the past were important areas for charcoal burning, timber extraction, water management, hunting, fishing, and the gathering of wild vegetables, fruits, and nuts.

When the ancestors of the Māori came to what we now call New Zealand, they tried to introduce a range of mostly tropical crops. Most successful was kumara (*Ipomoea batatas*, sweet potato *satsuma-imo*), of Central American and Andean origin. Yam (*Dioscorea alata*) and taro (*Colocasia esculenta*, *sato imo*) survived until European contact, but neither was so successful as kumara. Other cold-sensitive crops such as banana and breadfruit may have been introduced, but there is no evidence at all of their presence. Instead, there is abundant historical evidence that the native bracken fern (*Pteridium esculentum*; Māori: *aruhe*; Japanese: *warabi*) became a major food source. In the course of clearing land for hunting purposes, for trails, for settlements, and for growing other crops, the first inhabitants created ideal conditions for the spread of bracken, and the discovery of its starchy roots. Other plants that easily grew after land clearing were also sources of carbohydrate—tree ferns (various taxa; trunk and leaf stem) and cabbage trees (*Cordyline australis*; trunk). The original horticultural landscape of New Zealand was productive, but lacked the many fruit trees, nut trees, green vegetables, temperate root crops, and temperate cereal crops that have been introduced to New Zealand in the last two hundred years (Bradbury 1995, Dawson 2010, Leach 1984, McLauchlan 1981). Intensive horticulture requires much more human labour than the European pastoral system that now dominates our landscape. Horticulture in New Zealand has become more diverse, but is still dominated by relatively few crop species compared to Japan and other temperate regions in eastern Asia.

To get an overview of the present agricultural economy of New Zealand, it is instructive to consider the 'food balance' sheets that were previously published by the NZ Department of Statistics (1971–1994). These include plant foods, sea foods, dairy products, and meats, and show how much of each food type was produced, how much was exported, and how much remained in the country. What remained in the country is described as the 'food available for consumption'. After taking into account the approximate amounts used as animal fodder, or discarded during processing, the 'food net' available on a per capita basis is shown. In 1971, 25% of potato production was estimated to be 'home production' for home consumption; home gardening has long been important in New Zealand cities (Bradbury 1995), community gardening much less so. My conclusions from the national statistics are:

1. New Zealand is self-sufficient in most daily foods, but does not export a large excess.
2. Just a few food types are exported in great excess, compared to what is needed for local consumption.
3. Despite the fact that New Zealand is a net exporter of food, some kinds of food are imported, in quite small quantities.

For example, none of the rice consumed in New Zealand is grown here, and most oranges are imported. The immigrant Asian population of New Zealand has been increasing continuously over the last fifty years, so it is not surprising that rice imports have also increased. Rice remains a minor food in this country compared to wheat, barley, oats and maize. We are self-sufficient in these other cereal crops, but do not export them in any large quantity. New Zealand exports of pulses are comparable in quantity to what we produce for local consumption, as a whole, so for this food group, we can easily remain self-sufficient, in theory. The main food exports are beef, mutton and lamb, processed dairy products (e.g. milk, cheese, and butter), processed animal fats, and fish. Apples and 'other fruit' (e.g., kiwifruit) are the main horticultural exports. Apples have been a mainstay horticultural export for many years (over the whole period covered by the reports), but other fruit have become important over time (especially kiwifruit; Bollard 1996).

New Zealand is thus a rare example of a country that is 'self-sufficient' in food terms, though not in terms of energy or fertiliser. The food balance statistics have been discontinued, and we do not yet have an ecological accounting system that truly measures our self-sufficiency or food costs in ecological terms. One thing is clear however: the country is now a global farm for animal products. New Zealand farmers

and food companies have valuable knowledge in production, food processing, and marketing, but this is concentrated on a very limited range of plant and animal food exports.

Food security in New Zealand may appear greater than it really is for two reasons: our income disparity is very high (in striking contrast to Japan) (see Jackson 2009: Fig. 9.2) and control of export food production can easily be transferred to outside corporations and leaseholders. This does not require transfer of land ownership, as foreign companies can control production without necessarily buying land. As a relatively wealthy nation, New Zealand at present can respond to a loss of self-sufficiency by increasing food imports, but if the wealth of the general population declines relative to other nations, then maintaining food sovereignty, or local control over food production for local consumption, will become a bigger issue (c.f. Pechlaner and Otero 2010).

The main staple crops (cereals and root crops) are not currently produced in large excess, for export, so if the New Zealand population continues to grow, more land will be needed to produce these staples, if we are to remain self-sufficient in food. This in turn may result in more competition with pastoral uses of land, energy, and fertiliser.

Alternatively, sustainable and organic systems of production might continue to develop under local control, and might be able to make more efficient use of land that is already used for cereals and horticulture (c.f. Campbell et al 2010). In this regard, it is worth noting that until the mid-20th century, Japanese agriculture was to a large extent organic, with very effective systems for the recycling of human excrement after collection and treatment in fermentation pits or containers. From ancient times, Japanese farmers had few cattle (or other livestock) and had very little manure. Manures were mainly green manures (grasses) and human manure (Inuma 1995:119).

The modern industrial revolution in Japan, from the 19th to mid-20th centuries, was also accompanied by an agricultural revolution that allowed rural people to move into the industrialising centres while simultaneously increasing agricultural production to feed a rapidly growing population. This period saw not just changes in agricultural techniques, but also the rise of modern plant breeding in Japan. New rice varieties (High Response Varieties, or HRVs) and new models for agricultural development emerged, and these were later used and followed during the Green Revolution in Southeast Asia (Inuma 1995, Juma 1989). The Green Revolution has had mixed success, while China's attempts to emulate simultaneous agricultural and industrial modernisation, in a very short period of time, had disastrous results during the 'Great Leap Forward' of the 1950s to 1970s (Dikötter 2010). All countries need to learn from

both the positive and negative experiences of other countries.

Learning from Japan

Even as Japan's self-sufficiency in food has declined, agricultural research in the country has continued in many directions, with investments in plant collection, plant breeding, fertiliser design, machinery design, field production, and food processing. In Japan, a huge amount of knowledge has been recorded and published in relation to food production and consumption, in scientific and popular media. Research has been published by local city, prefectural, regional, and national agricultural research organisations. It is of course appropriate for New Zealand to continue developing its own expertise (Fig. 3), but the "Silicon Valley of agricultural knowledge" in Japan is already more like a mountain range, figuratively and literally.

For example, research on crop production has been carried out across a huge diversity of local environments created by topographically diverse mountains, lowlands and islands, from north to south along the entire length of the Japanese archipelago. A major constraint for wider international use of this research is the lack of translation from Japanese to other languages, and the information requires high quality



translation by specialists to be of use in other countries. Local researchers in Japan cannot all be expected to be expert writers or readers in foreign languages, but thanks to a long history of English language teaching in Japan, information about New Zealand is relatively accessible for Japanese researchers.

Fig. 3. NZ designed electric fence used to protect rice from wild pigs (Hida, Gifu Pref., Summer 2011).

For New Zealand, a relatively quick way to learn more from Japan would be to: (i) look more closely at the environmental parallels between Japan and New Zealand, and then, (ii) selectively translate key areas of public information on social and environmental parameters, crop production, and food processing in Japan. This could be done in an open collaborative manner, with the help of Japanese research organisations, because Japan has a strong strategic interest in maintaining the

diversity of its sources of supply across the world. A cost-effective approach would require the creation of academic and industry panels, in both countries, to identify research areas and specific publications that are of most value for translation. The process of translation is very time-consuming, and there may be few specialist translators available for translating research related to food production and consumption. Translation costs are likely to be high, and for commercial publications, copyright fees may also need to be paid, so strong protocols are needed to establish translation priorities.

Japanese farmers and food trading companies can also benefit from the translation of research produced in New Zealand, and other countries. Japan needs many trade partners to maintain stability in its food supply, at reasonable cost, and New Zealand is already well-positioned to expand its role as a trade partner for Japan. At the same time, New Zealand should consider its own interests in food security, and manage the relationship with Japan in a manner that is advantageous for all sectors of New Zealand society.

Bollard (1996), in his review on 'Further Prospects for Horticulture', emphasised the importance of public-good research for horticultural development, but did not discuss looking beyond New Zealand as an arena for New Zealand research on horticulture. If New Zealand agricultural research organisations can be given a stronger mandate for international research, and for research communication generally, then this will have benefits not just for New Zealand, but also for the countries with which we trade, including Japan.

Acknowledgements

I thank many friends and colleagues for discussions about food and agriculture in Japan and New Zealand, including E. Takei (Millet Society of Japan), E. Tabuchi, (research assistant) and colleagues (past and present) at the National Museum of Ethnology (Minpaku), Osaka, the Research Institute for Humanity and Nature (RIHN), Kyoto, Department of Botany, Kyoto University, and National Institute for Vegetables, Ornamental Plants and Tea (NIVOT), Ano, Japan. Valuable comments were received from two anonymous reviewers. This work was partly supported by a Minpaku Leadership Travel Grant (2009) for study in New Zealand.

Bibliography

Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (2011) *Advancing Canadian Agriculture Interests in Japan* (<http://www.ats.agr.gc.ca/> Accessed 12th August 2011.)

Bollard, E. G. (1996) *Further Prospects for Horticulture: The Continuing Importance of Research*. [Auckland]: New Zealand Fruit Growers' Charitable Trust and Ted Bollard.

Bradbury, M. (ed.) (1995) *A History of the Garden in New Zealand*. Auckland: Viking.

Campbell, H., C. Rosin, S. Norton, P. Carey, J. Bengé, and H. Moller (2010) Examining the Mythologies of Organics: Moving beyond the Organic/Conventional Binary? In: G. Lawrence, K. Lyons and T. Wallington (eds) *Food Security, Nutrition and Sustainability*. London and New York: Earthscan, pp. 238–251.

Chiba, Y. (1993) Jomon archaeological sites of Kyoto Basin. In: *Archaeological Sites of Kyoto University Campuses: 1989–1991 Excavation Report*. Kyoto: Kyoto University Center for Archaeological Operations, pp. 53–73 (in Japanese).

Cribb, J. (2010) *The Coming Famine: The Global Food Crisis and What We Can Do to Avoid It*. Canberra: CSIRO Publishing.

Davison, I. (2011) NZ could be 'Silicon Valley of agricultural knowledge.' Auckland: *New Zealand Herald*, July 7th 2011.

Dawson, B. (2010) *A History of Gardening in New Zealand*. Auckland: Godwit.

Department of Statistics (1971–1994) Food Balance Sheets. Wellington : Information Services Branch, Department of Statistics [NZ Government].

Dikötter, F. (2010) *Mao's Great Famine*. London, New York and Berlin: Bloombury.

Hotta, M., K. Ogata, A. Nitta, K. Hosikawa, M. Yanagi, and K. Yamazaki (1989) *Sekai Yūyō-Shokubutsu Jiten (Useful Plants of the World)*. Tokyo : Heibonsha (in Japanese).

Inuma, J. (1995) *Japanese Farming: Past and Present*. Tokyo: Nobunkyo.

Ishige, N. (2001) *The History and Culture of Japanese Food*. London, New York and Bahrain: Kegan Paul.

Ito, A. (1995) Yayoi Archaeological Sites of Kyoto Basin. In: *Archaeological Sites of Kyoto University Campuses: 1992 Excavation Report*. Kyoto: Kyoto University Center for Archaeological Operations, pp. 137–183 (in Japanese).

Jackson, T. (2009) *Prosperity Without Growth: Economics for Finite Planet*. London and Washington, DC: Earthscan.

Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO) (Annual) *Agro-Trade Handbook*. Tokyo : JETRO.

Juma, C. (1989) *The Gene Hunters: Biotechnology and the Scramble for Seeds*. African Centre for Technology Studies, Research Series No. 1. London : Zed Books, and Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Leach, H. (1984) *1000 Years of Gardening in New Zealand*. Wellington: Reed.

McLauchlan, G. (1981) *The Farming of New Zealand: An Illustrated History of New Zealand Agriculture*. Auckland, Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane: Australia & New Zealand Book Company.

Pechlaner, G. and G. Otero (2010) Neoliberalism and Food Vulnerability: The Stakes for the South. In: G. Lawrence, K. Lyons and T. Wallington (eds) *Food Security, Nutrition and Sustainability*. London and New York: Earthscan, pp. 79–96.

Rural Culture Association (1984) *Japanese Food Eating Styles*. Tokyo: RCA (in Japanese, 50 volumes in the 1984 print edition, CD-ROM edition 1997).

Tsuji, S. (1980) *Japanese Cooking: A Simple Art*. Tokyo, New York and London: Kodansha International.

Tanaka, Y. and M. Ono (1895) *Useful Plants of Japan: Described and Illustrated*. Tokyo: Agricultural Society of Japan.

要約

ニュージーランドと日本は赤道をはさみ、北半球と南半球のほぼ同緯度に位置する。そし

てこのことが類似した食糧の生産と利用を可能にしている。ニュージーランドは人口 1 人あたりの自然の物的資源（土地と水）に恵まれている一方で、日本は食品の生産、保存、交易、消費に関する歴史的、実用的そして科学的な知識に恵まれている。さらに日本は食用植物が豊富であり、日本の豊かな食の知識はこれらと密接にかかわっている。

食の安全保障は、食品供給行程の中で、安定性、持続性そして安全性を求める。食の安全保障を成立させるには食品供給行程のあらゆる過程で食の知識が必要とされる。食の安全保障のためには、食の知識の効果的な創出、維持、伝達そして利用が不可欠である。食糧の生産と消費に関する知識のより効果的な伝達がニュージーランドと日本の両国をより良い食の安全保障へと導く。

日本における英語教育の長い歴史のおかげで、ニュージーランドに関する情報は日本人の研究者にとって比較的容易に利用できる。日本では、食の生産と消費に関する膨大な量の知識が科学的な媒体で、また一般的な媒体で記録され出版されてきた。しかし、他の国々でこれらが役立つためにはさらに高品質な翻訳が求められる。

この論文では、20 年以上にわたり日本で暮らし働いてきたことから得られた、これらのことに関する個人的な洞察を提示する。

The Journal of New Zealand Studies in Japan

Number 18 December 2011

Articles

Updating <i>A Concise History of New Zealand</i>	Mein Smith, Philippa	1
The Names of Places and the Place of Names in Ancient Japanese Literature	Palmer, Edwina	10
Fragments, Ruins, Translations: Carl Shuker's Online Fictions	McNeil, Dougal	28
<i>"Nothing—the land included—is fully settled"</i> William Pember Reeves on settler society	Bennetts, Darrell	39
The Damage and Reconstruction Process of Hastings in the 1931 Hawke's Bay Earthquake	Uemura, Yoshihiro	59
Food security and food knowledge in New Zealand and Japan . . .	Matthews, Peter	66
A Comparative Study on the Development and their Meanings of Parental Leave Schemes in New Zealand, Australia and United Kingdom . . .	Otani, Ayumi	79
Non-governmental Organisations (NPOs) in aid strategy —a comparative perspective from New Zealand and Japan	Nanami, Akiko	102
A Comparative Study of the Military Organizations in Japan and New Zealand From a Geographical and Historical Perspective . . .	Nishigaya, Kunimasa	112

Note

A Record of the Conference in Wellington, New Zealand . . .	Nishigaya, Kunimasa	125
---	---------------------	-----

Special Contribution

War on the Liaodong Peninsula	Bell, David	143
---	-------------	-----

The 4th NZSSJ Conference : A Natural environment and disaster in New Zealand . . .		158
--	--	-----

The 5th International Symposium in New Zealand		182
--	--	-----

Editor's Desk		207
-------------------------	--	-----

About NZSSJ		209
-----------------------	--	-----

NZSSJ Bylaw		210
-----------------------	--	-----

Submission of Manuscripts		213
-------------------------------------	--	-----

Style Sheet		214
-----------------------	--	-----

Request Slip		216
------------------------	--	-----

New Zealand Studies Society—Japan



ニュージーランド学会 2011

役員 (50 音順)

会 長： 青柳真智子

副会長： 植村善博 ベッドフォード雪子

理 事： 新井正彦 池田久代 井脇成禮 大石恒喜 太谷亜由美
キャサリン・オコーネル 近藤真 杉原充志 松元昇 道谷卓
美濃哲郎 山岸博 由比濱省吾

顧 問： 石田寛 大島襄二 狩野不二夫 イアン・ケネディ

運営委員会

総務委員会 (事務局) 委員長 植村善博

編集委員会 (学会紀要の編集) 委員長 ベッドフォード雪子

集会委員会 (例会・研究大会などの企画・招集) 委員長 杉原充志

副委員長 新井正彦

事務局 (事務局長 植村善博)

〒603-8301 京都市北区紫野北花ノ坊町 96

佛教大学 植村善博研究室内 ニュージーランド学会 ☎ : 075-491-2141 (代)

郵便為替加入者名：ニュージーランド学会 口座番号：00900-8-301336

ゆうちょ銀行 店名 099 店 当) 口座番号：0301336 口座名義：ニュージーランド学会

Liaison Office : C/o Uemura Office, Bukkyo University

96 Kita Hananobo-cho, Kita-ku, Kyoto 603-8301 JAPAN ☎075-491-2141

ニュージーランド学会ホームページ URL: <http://nzssj.sakura.ne.jp/>

ニュージーランド研究 第18巻 2011年12月発行

ISSN 1881-5197

編集兼発行者 ニュージーランド学会

The Journal of New Zealand Studies, Vol.18
(December 2011)

Edited and published by
The New Zealand Studies Society-Japan

© The New Zealand Studies Society-Japan All rights reserved