Supervised by **Yukio Takasu**

SDGs and Japan

Human Security Indicators for Leaving No One Behind.

Translated by **JICA Ogata Sadako Research Institute for Peace and Development**

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全国データ　SDGsと日本――誰も取り残されないための人間の安全保障指標

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Contents

Contents

Foreword

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, along with its Goals (SDGs), was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015. These goals differ from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that preceded them in that they are universal in their scope and applicability. Their scope goes beyond the reduction of poverty to cover the elimination of inequality and violence, a peaceful and inclusive society, and the conservation and sustainability of the earth's environment and resources. That is, it includes people's life, livelihood and dignity in their entirety. Their applicability, meanwhile, goes beyond developing countries and fragile governance. It includes every person and country, developing or developed, on the earth.

Most importantly, the 2030 Agenda defines its core objective as realizing, in every country by 2030, a society where every person can live a safe, humane life in dignity and equality, and where no one is left behind: "As we embark on this great collective journey, we pledge that no one will be left behind. Recognizing that the dignity of the human person is fundamental, we wish to see the Goals and targets met for all nations and peoples and for all segments of society. And we will endeavor to reach the furthest behind first" (the 2030 Agenda, Paragraph 4).

There are two possible approaches for measuring the implementation of the SDGs. The first is a conventional approach, which is to monitor, simply and mechanically, the degree of progress made towards particular goals and targets selected from among the 17 Goals and 169 targets in the SDGs. The other approach is a human security approach. This involves first identifying who is left behind (or is prone to being so) due to poverty and social exclusion, as well as determining where and how this happens. Efforts can then be focused on ameliorating the plight of these people.

Japan is one of the countries in which the most serious efforts to implement the SDGs are being made by all stakeholders in government, municipalities, business, civil society, and academia. However, there is no certainty as to whether, by taking the conventional approach, a developed country like Japan can come closer to achieving a society where no one is left behind. In fact, Japan and other highly developed countries have, with few additional efforts, already achieved material progress and met many, if not most, of the 232 SDGs indicators. However, the result is far from an inclusive society. Accordingly, if the aim is to achieve the core objective of the SDGs — a truly inclusive society — then the second approach will be more appropriate. Bringing a human security approach to the fore will make efforts to localize the implementation of the SDGs more effective, thereby securing people's life, livelihood and dignity as a whole.

The unique contributions made by the development of the Human Security Indicators of Japan (HSIs of Japan) can be summarized as follows:

They are the first comprehensive human security-based indicators (life, livelihood and dignity) made for the local government level in a major industrial country.

They represent the first attempt to measure people's dignity, which is of crucial importance to human security.

They are also the first attempt to incorporate both objective statistical data and subjective assessments of self-fulfillment, anxiety, isolation and social connectivity collected using a nationwide online survey.

The HSIs of Japan make visible the remarkable differences and inequalities in human security among people living in Japan's forty-seven prefectures, identifying the main areas on which stakeholders in each should focus their efforts to ensure that no one is left behind.

I applaud the innovative approach and originality that the members of the project team have shown in producing such a valuable book: *SDGs and Japan: Human Security Indicators for Leaving No One Behind*. It has made an important contribution to widening the relevance of human security. I am delighted that the book is now translated and published in English, thanks to generous support from the Ogata Sadako Research Institute for Peace and Development at the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). My heartfelt gratitude goes to Mr. Kota Sugitani, Mr. Kaito Takeuchi, and Ms. Ako Muto. It is befitting that its publication in English is dedicated to the late Ogata Sadako, who was my best comrade-in-arms in promoting the human security of the most vulnerable for a safer and fairer world.

It is hoped the HSIs of Japan will serve as a template for other interested countries, not just developed countries, that are making genuine efforts to meet the objective of the SDGs by improving the life, livelihood and dignity of vulnerable people and those who face discrimination.

Tokyo, Japan

Yukio Takasu

President of Human Security Forum,
Special Advisor to the UN Secretary-General
on Human Security

Abbreviations

AI: Artificial Intelligence

ESD: Education for Sustainable Development

G7: Group of Seven.

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

HALE: Healthy Life Expectancy

HDI: Human Development Index

HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus

HSF: Human Security Forum

HSIs: Human Security Indicators

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

IoT: Internet of Things

JICA: Japan International Cooperation Agency

LGBT: Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender. Sexual minorities.

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

MEXT: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology

MHLW: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

MIC: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications

MLIT: Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism

MOJ: Ministry of Justice

NEET: (Those who are) Not in Education, Employment or Training

NHI: National Health Insurance

NPO: Non-Profit Organization

OECD: Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development

SDGs: Sustainable Development Goals

TFR: Total Fertility Rate

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNHCR: United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund

WG: Washington Group

WHO: World Health Organization

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Yukio Takasu

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After joining Japan's Ministry of Foreign Affairs, he served as Counselor for the Japanese Mission to the UN, Director of the UN Policy Division, and Minister of the Japanese Embassy in Indonesia. From 1993, as Assistant Secretary-General (Controller) of the UN, he oversaw its budget and finances. In 1997, he represented Japan at the Security Council as Ambassador of Japan to the UN. In 2000, he was appointed Director-General of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs' Global Cooperation Department, where he promoted international cooperation on human security, infectious diseases, and climate change. After a time as Permanent Representative of Japan to the International Organizations in Vienna, he served as Permanent Representative of Japan to the UN (2007–2010) and was twice President of the Security Council. As UN Under-Secretary-General for Management from 2012 to May 2017, he was responsible for the overall management of the UN Organization. Since 2010, he has served as Special Adviser to the Secretary-General. He was formerly a Project Professor at the University of Tokyo and the National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies. He is the co-editor of *Oral History: 50 Years of Japan and the United Nations* (Minerva Shobo, 2008).

Human Security Forum

Human Security Forum was established in 2011 (NPO status acquired in October of the same year) to pursue sustainable peace and development including Japan, Asia, and Africa, creating societies that respect the fundamental human rights of people who are often placed in vulnerable situations, such as migrants, refugees and disaster victims. It aims to promote human security by working in partnership with a variety of relevant organizations, companies, government agencies, municipalities, associations and individuals.

In addition to creating the Human Security Indicators of Japan, it has also been involved in providing study support for refugee children in Japan, coordinating the dispatch of volunteers after the Great East Japan Earthquake, establishing and managing Children Future Centers in temporary housing areas in Miyagi Prefecture, organizing events on research, education, and culture, and planning and implementing other new projects to promote human security.

JICA Ogata Sadako Research Institute for Peace and Development

The JICA Ogata Sadako Research Institute for Peace and Development (abbreviated as JICA Ogata Research Institute) carries on and enhances the philosophy of the late Ogata Sadako, who spearheaded the establishment of the JICA Research Institute in October 2008. The objectives of the Research Institute are to conduct policy-oriented research on the challenges faced by developing countries in the field and strengthen Japan's intellectual presence in the international community.

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Introduction

In recent years, many countries and international organizations have attempted to measure well-being and quality of life using concepts that go beyond economic wealth and human development, aiming to apply the outcomes to policy. This is an attempt to understand development and people's lives more comprehensively, in terms of society as a whole, rather than assessing them in terms of material wealth or gross national product. In addition, there have been a number of attempts to reexamine the nature of the society that surrounds the individual, questioning anew the relationship between human society and the natural environment and the persistent inequalities within society.

Human Security

This approach begins with the concept of "human security," proposed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in its 1994 Human Development Report, which took a holistic approach to security. In fact, it was Japan that took the initiative for spreading and establishing this concept throughout the world.

In December 1998, at the time of the Asian economic crisis, then Prime Minister Keizo Obuchi gave a speech in Hanoi, Vietnam, in which he announced Japan's position on the promotion of human security, which aims to achieve just societies by taking a comprehensive, human-centered approach to security. The report of the International Commission on Human Security (co-chaired by former UN High Commissioner for Refugees Ogata Sadako and Amartya Sen), established by the initiative of Japan, was released in 2003. Subsequently, as a result of Japan's efforts to mainstream human security at the United Nations, the UN General Assembly agreed in 2012 on a common understanding of human security to "tackle various threats in an integrated, people-centred manner in order to protect the survival, livelihood, and dignity of all human beings" (General Assembly Resolution A66/290), and this concept has now established as an global consensus.

In Japan, the concept of human security has been used to understand primarily the world "outside" Japan as a vision of international cooperation, one that primarily contributes to the development of developing countries, assistance to conflict-affected countries, and post-conflict peacebuilding. The concept of human security has been incorporated into the Japanese government's Development Cooperation Charter, and it is praiseworthy to see it becoming an established part of Japan's aid philosophy. However, that alone is not enough. The Great East Japan

The context for human security is the negative aspects of accelerated globalization and a series of emerging global challenges. The acceleration of globalization has created many benefits, but these have not been available to all, and the gap is growing. While a country's economy may grow, this does not mean that life will improve for all its citizens. A country's growth rate and average income alone do not provide a true picture of national life. In addition, climate change and infectious diseases, which cause serious damage across borders, pose major threats to security that cannot be solved by one country alone or by military force alone. We live in an era where security cannot be considered solely in terms of military and diplomatic means. It is imperative to think not only at the national level, but also at the level of each individual. Human security cannot be realized through national security alone.

Earthquake and the Fukushima nuclear power plant disaster occurred at a time when people were noticing and discussing the vulnerabilities inherent in Japanese society, such as various inequalities, poverty, and the loss of community ties. This led to a fresh recognition of human security as a challenge for Japan too.

From the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

In 2000, the UN General Assembly agreed on the MDGs, which aimed to halve poverty rates by 2015. There had been certain achievements since then, with poverty and infant mortality rates declined in developing countries. However, conflict and the gap between rich and poor have grown rather than been eliminated, and it is now recognized that the eradication of poverty is closely linked to peace and human rights, not just to economic dimension. Smooth economic activity does not develop in countries that are in conflict or tension. Sustainable development cannot be achieved unless the political situation is stable and peace is established. Inclusive development cannot be achieved without respect for human rights.

Based on this idea of linking peace, development, and human rights, a UN Summit agreed in 2015 on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which aim to achieve by 2030 a society where all people in all countries, whether developed, developing, or conflict-affected, can live securely and humanely, and where no one will be left behind (**Figure**).

The 2030 Agenda sets out the core objective of the SDGs: to create a society in which no one is left behind, where the human rights of all are respected, and where all people can achieve their potential in a healthy environment with dignity and equality. In paragraph 4, it gives the following pledge: "As we embark on this great collective journey, we pledge that no one will be left behind. Recognizing that the dignity of the human person is fundamental, we wish to see the Goals and targets met for all nations and peoples and for

Figure: Icons for the 17 SDG Goals

all segments of society. And we will endeavor to reach the furthest behind first." This objective is consistent with the notion of human security; the SDGs can be rephrased as expanding the MDGs from a human security perspective and developing them into universal goals.

A human security perspective sees everyone, once born as a human being, as having the right to life, livelihood and dignity. First, we must protect all those whose lives and livelihoods are threatened. As humans, empowerment is important to encourage us to develop our abilities to the fullest. Even more important is dignity; we must create a society in which every person can feel that their existence is meaningful. The concept of human security is that we must build a society where people have confidence in themselves, pride in who they are, and respect for others. The question of how to ensure the dignity of all people such that they are treated as human beings worth of respect and acceptance is an important challenge for Japanese society today.

The SDGs and Japan

The SDGs call for action on 17 goals relating to poverty, inequality, discrimination, violence and conflict at three levels: the environment (the global environment, including land, air, and sea), society, and individuals. To achieve these goals, 232 SDG indicators were agreed upon by the UN as a checklist of progress (17 goals, 169 targets and 232 indicators). The universal SDG indicators agreed upon by the UN General Assembly are, in a sense, an international commitment, and it is important to take steady action to meet them. Because the 232 SDG indicators are common to all nations, including those affected by conflict and poverty, one problem that arises is that a large number of them are not relevant to a developed country like Japan (for example, many of the indicators in SDG 16, "Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions"). On a global basis, Japan lags some way behind in the areas of gender, the environment and resources. As a developed country, however, it has more or less achieved, or is in the process of achieving, many of the other SDG indicators at the national level, such as those related to income levels, health and well-being, education, energy and infrastructure (according to the most recent publication, the *SDG Index and Dashboards Report 2019*, published in June 2019, Japan ranks 15th among 162 member countries in terms of SDG attainment).

Nevertheless, can it really be said that the life, livelihood and dignity of every individual in Japan is respected, and that every person lives their life with the pride befitting a human being? Can it be said that not a single person has been left behind? It would be difficult to argue that the core objective of the SDGs — an inclusive society in which no one is left behind — has been achieved. If Japan is to become such a society, it is not enough to just work mechanically towards meeting the SDG indicators.

Human Security Indicators of Japan

What, then, should be done? If no one is to be left behind, it would be better to start with those areas where the least progress has been made, as called for in the 2030 Agenda. By using these indicators to visualize those in Japanese society who, due to poverty or social exclusion, have been left behind, or are in danger of being so, it is possible to set concrete goals for the year 2030 and to take action accordingly. It is by tackling concepts of human security head-on in this way that the SDGs will be perfected. Efforts should be made to eliminate poverty and discrimination and minimize prejudice by focusing on those who are left behind and those who are prone to being so. This requires visualizing the bullying and poverty of children, sexism, and isolation that exists in Japan, as well as the reality of the prejudice, discrimination, and exclusion faced by groups including the elderly, people with disabilities, LGBT people, disaster victims, and foreign nationals. In order to build a society

where no one is left behind, it is vital to visualize the main issues as human security indicators calculated on a prefectural basis. This will reveal what improvements are needed, highlight who and where to focus on, and what initiatives need to be further developed in each prefecture.

There have in the past been many forward-looking indicators that relate to socioeconomic conditions, human development, and happiness. However, this is first pioneering work that attempts to index the elements of human security as comprehensive indicators, centered on human dignity and adapted to a developed country such as Japan. In other words, we can expect it to show versatility as a version of the SDGs for developed countries.

The Human Security Forum NPO enlisted the cooperation of the Japan Association for Human Security Studies in order to create these indicators, putting together a project team made up of experts in various fields, researchers, and staff at NPOs and other organizations with experience in practical activities. With advice and guidance from external specialists, the team spent approximately one year on the task of creating the indicators. In December 2018, the Human Security Indicators of Japan were announced at a symposium held jointly with the Japan Committee for UNICEF. Work will continue to improve these indicators based on comments from various sources, and it is hoped that they will have broad applicability at the international level.

Part 1 of this book compares Japan's Human Security Indicators to the SDG indicators. It considers data-based rankings for each indicator, indices (life, livelihood, dignity, and overall), for individual prefectures, residents' subjective evaluations derived from our internet survey, and profiles for each prefecture. Part 2 addresses those groups that tend to be left behind. It analyses the current situation facing children, women, the youth, the elderly, people with disabilities, LGBT people, those evacuated due to natural disasters, and foreign nationals, as well as proposing some measures to improve their condition. Part 3 outlines the actual state of human security in Japan, as seen through the analysis of human security indicators, subjective evaluations derived from our internet survey, and the issues facing individual groups, concluding with recommendations for building a society in which nobody is left behind.

October 2019

Yukio Takasu

Project Team Representative,
Human Security Forum

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HUMAN SECURITY INDICATORS OF JAPAN

Methodology for Developing the Human Security Indicators

The Human Security Indicators (HSIs) of Japan are composed of three key elements of human security: life, livelihood and dignity, based on the common understanding of human security defined in the 2012 United Nations General Assembly resolution (A66/290). Here, "Life" is used as a broader concept than "survival," and "Dignity" is used as a broader concept than "happiness," "quality of life," or "satisfaction."

It was *Human Security Now* (2003), the so-called Ogata-Sen Commission Report, that first laid out survival, livelihood and dignity as the three values that human security seeks to achieve. The Human Development Index (HDI) measures three aspects of human well-being: life expectancy, income and education. In the 2005 report submitted to the United Nations General Assembly by Secretary-General Kofi Annan, these are expressed as "freedom from fear," "freedom from want," and "freedom to live in dignity."

The Human Security Indicators consist of 23 Life indicators (life and health), 42 Livelihood indicators (economy/labor, education, welfare, lifestyle and environment), and 26 Dignity indicators (children and women, trust in public institutions, community/civic engagement and international outlook, and life satisfaction), which are applied to each of Japan's 47 prefectures.

The Human Security Indicators were produced with the prefecture as the unit of data aggregation, taking into consideration the availability of comparable statistics and the formulation and implementation of public policy. Data from public institutions was used to the extent possible, but other reliable data was also utilized.

In choosing the indicators, an emphasis was placed on highlighting those who are likely to be left behind. Other existing indicators about human happiness and quality of life, including Thailand's Human Security index, and the Global Development Research Center (GDRC) indicators, and relevant studies were also reviewed for the purpose of prioritizing the issues to be addressed in Japan.

At the same time, an internet questionnaire was conducted so as to incorporate residents' subjective evaluations on social issues, such as the threats they perceive and anxieties they feel, since these emotional elements are rarely reflected in existing statistical data. Although the respondents were limited to people registered with the company the survey was commissioned from, responses were obtained from 5,450 people, chosen as proportionally as possible across gender (male and female), generation (under 35, 35–64, and 65 and over), and the 47 prefectures. The respondents were anonymized, allowing them to offer their opinions more freely.

The selection of the indicators also reflects exchanges of information and opinions with professional researchers and organizations engaged in social support activities, including the government, public bodies, and private organizations.

Chapter 1

Comparison with SDG Indicators and Prefectural Rankings according to the HSIs.

1-1. Comparison with SDG Indicators

The HSIs of Japan comprise 91 indicators, which generally cover the realm of human life, livelihood, and dignity. Here, we classify the 91 indicators into life indicators (23), livelihood indicators (42), and dignity indicators (26), then present a comparison of each indicator with its corresponding targets and indicators in the SDGs. The SDGs set 169 targets and 232 indicators in order to monitor the progress of its 17 goals, which can be viewed at the following UN website

https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/

Life Indicators: 23 Indicators

A: Life - 11 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
A1	Average life expectancy at birth (men)	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.5.1, 3.8.1, 3.8.2, 3.9.1, 3.9.2, 3.9.3, 17.19.2
	Average life expectancy at birth (women)	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.5.1, 3.8.1, 3.8.2, 3.9.1, 3.9.2, 3.9.3, 5.0.1, 17.19.2
A2	Population increase/decrease rate	8.6.1, 8.b.1, 9.1.1, 9.1.2, 9.2.2, 10.7.2, 11.2.1, 11.3.2, 11.a.1
A3	Total Fertility Rate (TFR)	1.2.2, 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 5.c.1
A4	Rate of working age population	1.3.1, 1.4.1, 8.b.1
A5	Unmarried rate	1.2.2
A6	Rate of households comprised of a single elderly person	1.3.1, 10.2.1, 11.2.1
A7	Rate of children in single parent households	1.2.2, 2.2.1, 2.2.2, 3.2.1, 3.7.2, 3.b.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2
A8	Number of deaths by suicide	3.4.2
A9	Suicidal ideation rate	3.4.2
A10	Number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters	1.5.1, 11.b.2, 11.5.1, 13.1.1, 13.1.2, 13.1.3, 13.3.1
A11	Number of deaths due to traffic accidents	3.6.1, 11.2.1

B: Health - 12 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
B1	Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (men)	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 3.4.1
	Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (women)	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 3.4.1, 5.c.1
B2	Number of general hospitals	3.8.1
B3	Number of beds in general hospitals	3.8.1

B: Health - 12 Indicators (continued)

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
B4	Number of doctors in medical facilities	3.c.1
B5	Annual medical expenses per person	1.2.2, 3.8.2
B6	Rate of people taking regular health checks	1.3.1, 3.8.1, 3.b.1
B7	Rate of households late in payment of national health insurance (NHI) fees	3.8.2
B8	Number of people with disabilities	16.7.1, 16.7.2 (Not included in the indices)
B9	Rate of children aged 12 with tooth decay	3.8.1
B10	Rate of smoking among adults	3.a.1
B11	Rate of practicing sport	11.7.1
B12	Average number of walking steps	3.6.1, 9.1.2, 9.4.1

Livelihood Indicators: 42 Indicators

C: Economic Conditions and Employment - 10 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
C1	Annual income per person	8.1.1, 10.1.1
C2	Monthly disposable income per household	8.1.1, 10.1.1
C3	Gini coefficient	10.1.1, 10.2.1
C4	Unemployment rate	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 4.4.1, 8.5.2, 8.b.1, 10.2.1
C5	Non-regular employment rate	4.4.1, 8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.b.1, 10.2.1
C6	Female employment rate	4.3.1, 4.5.1, 5.1.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.c.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 10.2.1
C7	Rate of regular employment among single parents	4.5.1, 5.4.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 10.2.1
C8	Rate of people with disabilities among employees	4.5.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 10.2.1
C9	Rate of the elderly with a job	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 10.2.1
C10	Financial capability index	17.1.1, 17.1.2

D: Education - 11 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
D1	Rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten	4.2.1, 4.2.2
D2	Number of elementary school children per teacher	4.1.1
D3	Number of junior high school students per teacher	4.1.1
D4	Rate of school attendance support recipients	1.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1
D5	High school dropout rate	4.3.1, 8.6.1
D6	University enrollment rate	4.3.1, 8.6.1
D7	Rate of students who are habitually absent from school	4.1.1, 8.6.1
D8	Academic ability test score	4.1.1, 4.6.1, 4.c.1, 8.6.1
D9	Athletic ability of children	2.1.1, 2.2.2, 11.7.1
D10	Number of social education classes	4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1
D11	Number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools	4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1

E: Welfare - 11 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
E1	Rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.b.1, 4.5.1
E2	Number of children's nursing/fostering facilities	1.3.1, 4.5.1, 16.2.1
E3	Number of consultations at child welfare centers	1.3.1, 4.5.1, 16.2.1
E4	Rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.b.1, 1.4.1, 10.2.1
E5	Number of monthly consultations for the independence support system for the needy	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1
E6	Number of facilities for the elderly (care homes, senior citizens homes)	1.3.1
E7	Number of people staying at facilities for the elderly	1.3.1 (not counted in index)
E8	Number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly	1.3.1
E9	Number of nursing care staff	1.3.1
E10	Number of commissioned welfare volunteers	1.3.1
E11	Number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker	1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.b.1

F: Lifestyle, Environment, and Safety - 10 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
F1	Internet usage rate	4.4.1, 9.c.1, 17.6.2, 17.8.1
F2	Number of UNESCO schools for ESD education	4.7.1, 12.8.1 (not counted in index)
F3	Rate of barrier free transportation facilities	11.2.1
F4	Greenhouse gas emissions per person	7.3.1, 8.4.1, 8.4.2
F5	Total floor space per residence	11.1.1
F6	Recycling rate	8.4.1, 8.4.2, 11.6.1, 12.2.1, 12.2.2, 12.3.1, 12.5.1
F7	Sewage treatment rate	6.3.1, 8.4.1, 8.4.2, 12.2.1, 12.2.2
F8	Public facilities earthquake proofing rate	11.3.2
F9	Waterworks earthquake proofing rate	6.b.1
F10	Number of reported criminal offences	16.1-16.5, excluding 16.1.2

Dignity Indicators: 26 Indicators

G: Women and Children - 7 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
G1	Number of cases of bullying	11.7.2, 16.1.3, 16.1.4, 16.2.1
G2	Average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities	11.7.2, 16.2.1
G3	Rate of children given foster care placements among those requiring care	16.2.1
G4	Number of child suicides	3.4.2, 11.7.2, 16.2.1
G5	Number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims	5.2.1, 5.2.2, 11.7.2, 16.1.3, 16.1.4
G6	Number of hours men spend on housework and childcare	5.4.1
G7	Gender wage gap	5.1.1, 5.5.2, 5.c.1, 8.5.1

H: Trust in the Public Sector - 6 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
H1	Voter turnout in national elections	16.7.1
H2	Rate of female representatives in local assemblies	5.5.1, 16.7.1
H3	Degree of information disclosure	16.10.2
H4	Number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers	16.3.1
H5	Number of lawyers	16.7.1
H6	Number of cases of human rights infringement	10.3.1, 16.1.3, 16.2.2, 16.3.1, 16.10.1, 16.b.1

J: Community, Civic Engagement and International Outlook - 11 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
J1	Number of state-designated cultural properties	11.4.1
J2	Number of cultural facilities and community centers	11.3.2, 11.4.1, 11.7.1
J3	Number of neighborhood associations	11.3.2
J4	Rate of participation in volunteer activities	17.9.1, 17.17.1
J5	Number of people who made hometown tax payments	11.3.2, 17.17.1
J6	Number of people who made donations to major international support organizations	17.9.1, 17.17.1
J7	Number of registered Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs)	11.3.2, 17.9.1, 17.17.1
J8	Rate of increase in foreign residents	10.7.2
J9	Number of foreign students	—
J10	Number of foreign technical interns	8.8.1, 8.8.2, 10.7.1, 10.7.2
J11	Rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents in their neighborhood	—

K: Satisfaction with Life - 2 Indicators

No.	Indicator	Corresponding SDG Indicators
K1	Rate of people who are not satisfied with their own lives	—
K2	Rate of people who do not believe that their lives would get better in the future	—

Map of Japan and 47 Prefectures

Hokkaido Region

1. Hokkaido

Tohoku Region

2. Aomori
3. Iwate
4. Miyagi
5. Akita
6. Yamagata
7. Fukushima

Kanto Region

8. Ibaraki
9. Tochigi
10. Gunma
11. Saitama
12. Chiba
13. Tokyo
14. Kanagawa

Chubu Region

15. Niigata
16. Toyama
17. Ishikawa
18. Fukui
19. Yamanashi
20. Nagano
21. Gifu
22. Shizuoka
23. Aichi

Kinki Region

24. Mie
25. Shiga
26. Kyoto
27. Osaka
28. Hyogo
29. Nara
30. Wakayama

Chugoku Region

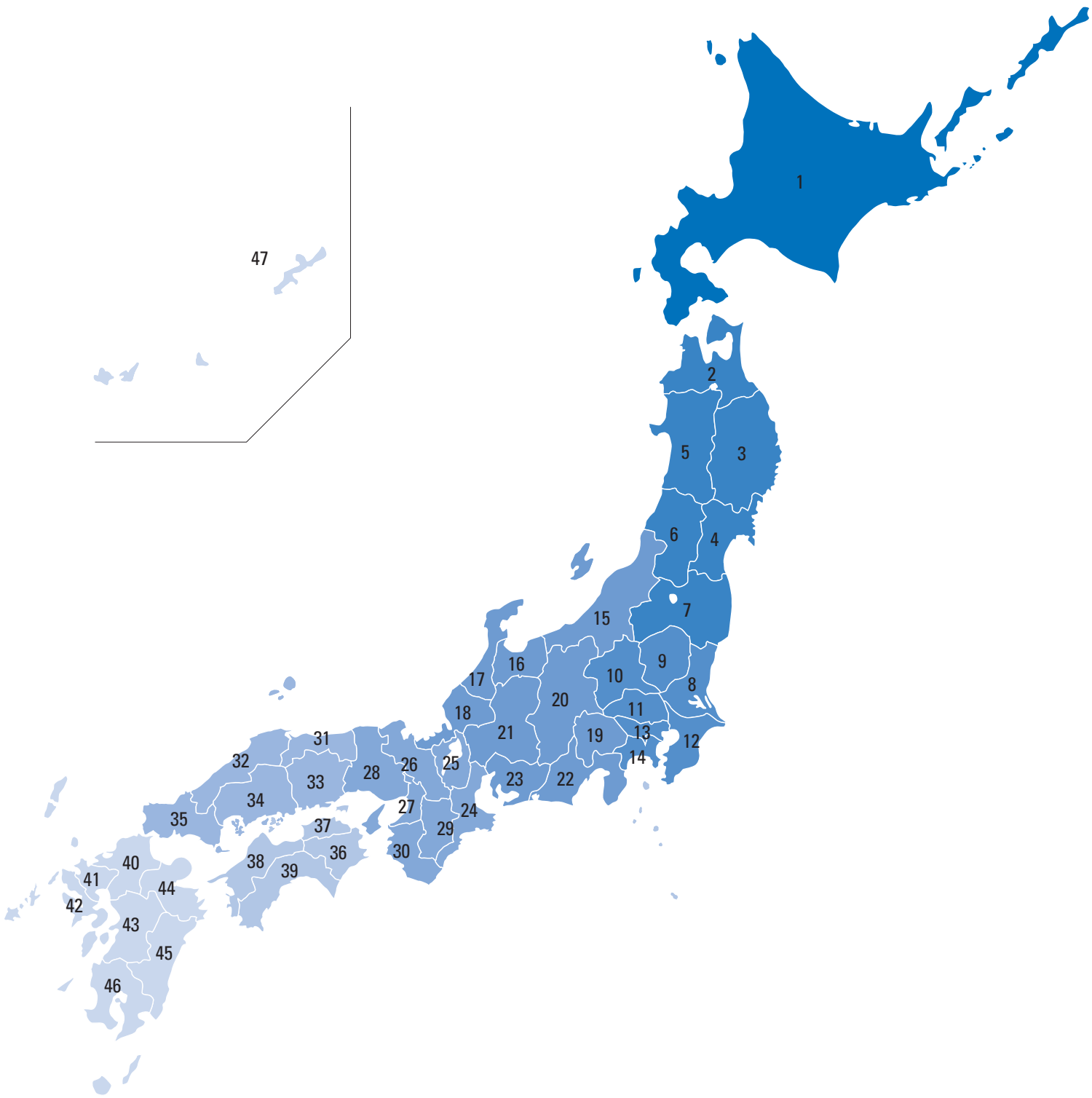
31. Tottori
32. Shimane
33. Okayama
34. Hiroshima
35. Yamaguchi

Shikoku Region

36. Tokushima
37. Kagawa
38. Ehime
39. Kochi

Kyushu/Okinawa Region

40. Fukuoka
41. Saga
42. Nagasaki
43. Kumamoto
44. Oita
45. Miyazaki
46. Kagoshima
47. Okinawa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1-2. Prefectural Rankings by Indicator

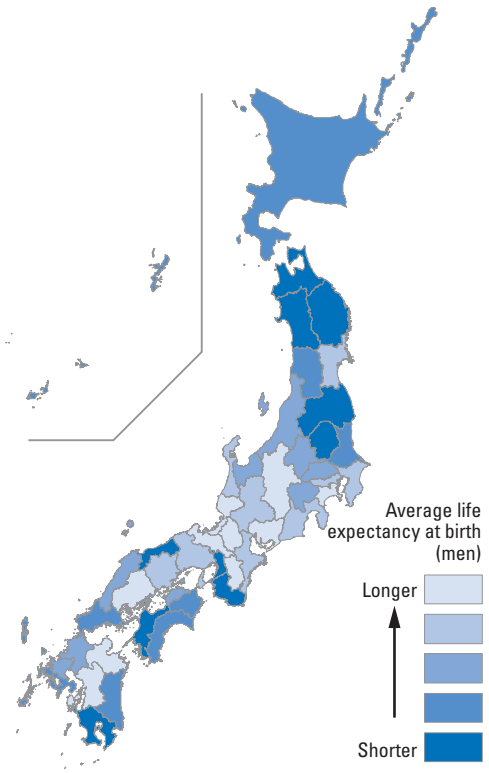
In order to visualize the human security issues that each prefecture should tackle to achieve a society where no one is left behind, statistical data from public institutions was used to rank the prefectures by each of 23 Life indicators, 42 Livelihood indicators, and 26 Dignity indicators (the results of questionnaires and reliable data from the private sector were also used in some cases. See the list of indicator data sources at the end of the book).

Each prefecture was given a ranking based on its performance with respect to each indicator. This was visualized using a map of Japan in which the prefectures are shaded differently according to their ranking. The darker a prefecture is shaded, the bigger the challenge it has to tackle. The shading for each indicator has five gradations, corresponding to the following ranking groups: 1st-10th, 11th-19th, 20th-28th, 29th-37th, and 38th-47th. As a rule, the top and bottom groups contain 10 prefectures, while the middle three groups contain 9 prefectures. However, because in some cases multiple prefectures may share the same ranking, the number of prefectures shaded in each gradation is not constant from map to map.

In the future, the indicators and data will be reviewed and updated on a regular basis.

A1 Average life expectancy at birth (men)

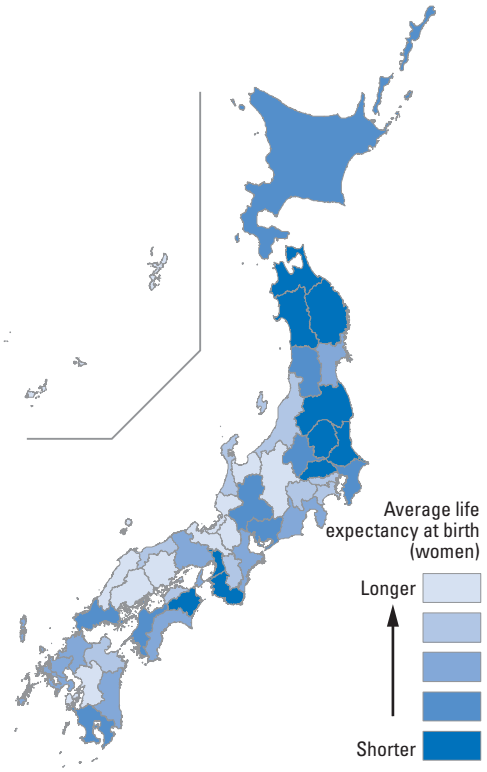
Ranking	Prefecture	Years
1st	Shiga	81.78
2nd	Nagano	81.75
3rd	Kyoto	81.40
4th	Nara	81.36
5th	Kanagawa	81.32
6th	Fukui	81.27
7th	Kumamoto	81.22
8th	Aichi	81.10
9th	Hiroshima	81.08
9th	Oita	81.08
11th	Tokyo	81.07
12th	Ishikawa	81.04
13th	Okayama	81.03
14th	Gifu	81.00
15th	Miyagi	80.99
16th	Chiba	80.96
17th	Shizuoka	80.95
18th	Hyogo	80.92
19th	Mie	80.86
20th	Yamanashi	80.85
20th	Kagawa	80.85
22nd	Saitama	80.82
23rd	Shimane	80.79
24th	Niigata	80.69
25th	Fukuoka	80.66
26th	Saga	80.65
27th	Gunma	80.61
27th	Toyama	80.61
29th	Yamagata	80.52
30th	Yamaguchi	80.51
31st	Nagasaki	80.38
32nd	Miyazaki	80.34
33rd	Tokushima	80.32
34th	Hokkaido	80.28
34th	Ibaraki	80.28
36th	Okinawa	80.27
37th	Kochi	80.26
38th	Osaka	80.23
39th	Tottori	80.17
40th	Ehime	80.16
41st	Fukushima	80.12
42nd	Tochigi	80.10
43rd	Kagoshima	80.02
44th	Wakayama	79.94
45th	Iwate	79.86
46th	Akita	79.51
47th	Aomori	78.67



A1 Average life expectancy at birth (women)

Ranking	Prefecture	Years
1st	Nagano	87.67
1st	Okayama	87.67
3rd	Shimane	87.64
4th	Shiga	87.57
5th	Fukui	87.54
6th	Kumamoto	87.49
7th	Okinawa	87.44
8th	Toyama	87.42
9th	Kyoto	87.35
10th	Hiroshima	87.33
11th	Niigata	87.32
12th	Oita	87.31
13th	Ishikawa	87.28
14th	Tottori	87.27
15th	Tokyo	87.26
16th	Nara	87.25
17th	Kanagawa	87.24
18th	Yamanashi	87.22
19th	Kagawa	87.21
20th	Miyagi	87.16
21st	Fukuoka	87.14
22nd	Saga	87.12
22nd	Miyazaki	87.12
24th	Shizuoka	87.10

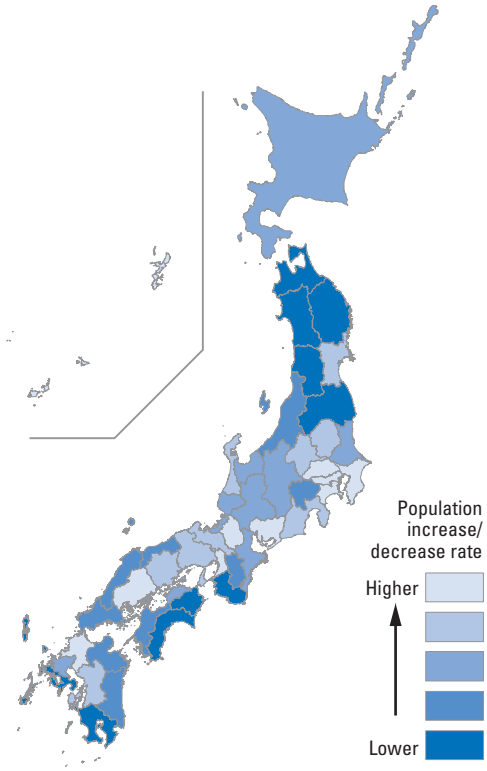
Ranking	Prefecture	Years
25th	Hyogo	87.07
26th	Kochi	87.01
27th	Mie	86.99
28th	Nagasaki	86.97
29th	Yamagata	86.96
30th	Chiba	86.91
31st	Yamaguchi	86.88
32nd	Aichi	86.86
33rd	Gunma	86.84
34th	Gifu	86.82
34th	Ehime	86.82
36th	Kagoshima	86.78
37th	Hokkaido	86.77
38th	Osaka	86.73
39th	Saitama	86.66
39th	Tokushima	86.66
41st	Wakayama	86.47
42nd	Iwate	86.44
43rd	Fukushima	86.40
44th	Akita	86.38
45th	Ibaraki	86.33
46th	Tochigi	86.24
47th	Aomori	85.93



A2 Population increase/decrease rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Okinawa	2.926
2nd	Tokyo	2.704
3rd	Saitama	1.000
4th	Aichi	0.977
5th	Kanagawa	0.861
6th	Fukuoka	0.583
7th	Shiga	0.152
8th	Chiba	0.103
9th	Osaka	-0.291
10th	Hiroshima	-0.586
11th	Miyagi	-0.608
12th	Hyogo	-0.954
13th	Kyoto	-0.976
14th	Okayama	-1.221
15th	Ishikawa	-1.349
16th	Tochigi	-1.665
17th	Shizuoka	-1.719
18th	Kumamoto	-1.720
19th	Gunma	-1.741
20th	Ibaraki	-1.778
21st	Kagawa	-1.966
22nd	Saga	-1.995
23rd	Mie	-2.095
24th	Hokkaido	-2.264

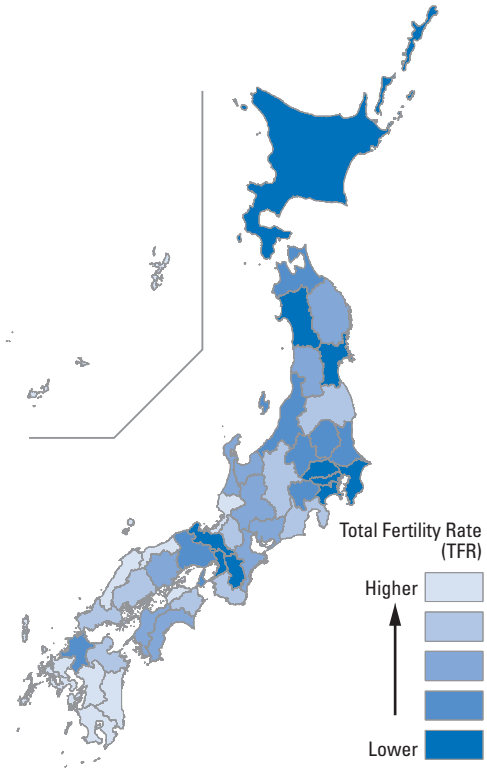
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Gifu	-2.349
26th	Fukui	-2.428
27th	Toyama	-2.462
28th	Nagano	-2.492
29th	Oita	-2.523
30th	Tottori	-2.587
31st	Nara	-2.600
32nd	Miyazaki	-2.745
33rd	Niigata	-2.956
34th	Yamaguchi	-3.211
35th	Shimane	-3.212
36th	Ehime	-3.230
37th	Yamanashi	-3.261
38th	Kagoshima	-3.403
39th	Nagasaki	-3.476
40th	Tokushima	-3.788
41st	Iwate	-3.801
42nd	Yamagata	-3.853
42nd	Wakayama	-3.853
44th	Kochi	-4.733
45th	Aomori	-4.738
46th	Fukushima	-5.669
47th	Akita	-5.790



A3 Total Fertility Rate (TFR)

Ranking	Prefecture	
1st	Okinawa	1.94
2nd	Shimane	1.80
3rd	Miyazaki	1.72
4th	Tottori	1.69
5th	Kumamoto	1.68
6th	Saga	1.67
6th	Nagasaki	1.67
8th	Kagoshima	1.65
9th	Kagawa	1.64
10th	Fukui	1.63
11th	Yamaguchi	1.61
12th	Oita	1.60
12th	Fukushima	1.60
14th	Nagano	1.58
14th	Wakayama	1.58
16th	Shiga	1.57
16th	Hiroshima	1.57
18th	Tokushima	1.55
19th	Shizuoka	1.54
20th	Ishikawa	1.51
20th	Mie	1.51
20th	Toyama	1.51
20th	Ehime	1.51
24th	Iwate	1.50

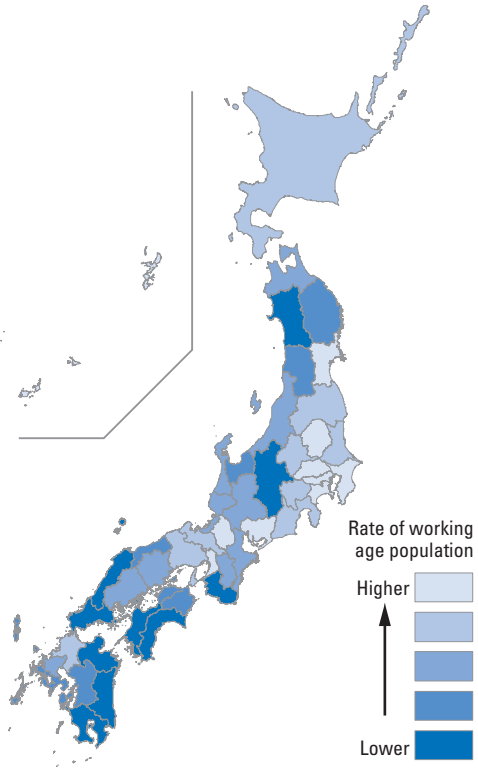
Ranking	Prefecture	
24th	Yamagata	1.50
24th	Kochi	1.50
27th	Aichi	1.49
27th	Okayama	1.49
27th	Gifu	1.49
30th	Fukuoka	1.48
30th	Tochigi	1.48
32nd	Gunma	1.47
32nd	Niigata	1.47
34th	Ibaraki	1.46
34th	Yamanashi	1.46
36th	Hyogo	1.43
36th	Aomori	1.43
38th	Akita	1.38
39th	Chiba	1.35
39th	Nara	1.35
41st	Saitama	1.34
41st	Kanagawa	1.34
41st	Osaka	1.34
44th	Miyagi	1.31
45th	Hokkaido	1.29
46th	Kyoto	1.26
47th	Tokyo	1.17



A4 Rate of working age population

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	65.9
2nd	Kanagawa	63.5
3rd	Okinawa	62.9
4th	Saitama	62.5
5th	Aichi	62.4
6th	Chiba	61.7
6th	Miyagi	61.7
8th	Shiga	61.3
8th	Tochigi	61.3
8th	Osaka	61.3
11th	Fukuoka	60.7
12th	Ibaraki	60.6
13th	Kyoto	60.2
14th	Hyogo	60.0
15th	Gunma	59.6
15th	Hokkaido	59.6
17th	Fukushima	59.2
17th	Shizuoka	59.2
17th	Yamanashi	59.2
20th	Hiroshima	59.1
20th	Ishikawa	59.1
20th	Mie	59.1
23rd	Nara	58.8
24th	Gifu	58.7

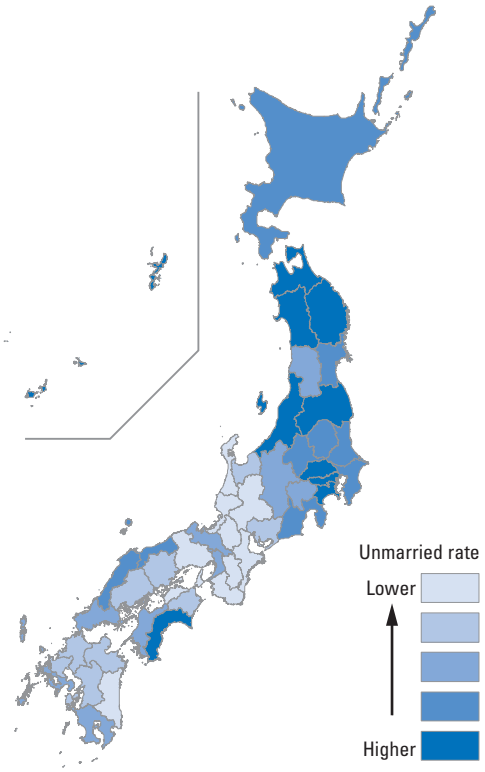
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Aomori	58.4
26th	Saga	58.3
27th	Okayama	58.2
28th	Fukui	58.1
28th	Niigata	58.1
30th	Iwate	57.8
31st	Kumamoto	57.6
32nd	Nagasaki	57.4
32nd	Tokushima	57.4
34th	Tottori	57.3
34th	Kagawa	57.3
34th	Toyama	57.3
37th	Yamagata	57.1
38th	Kagoshima	57.0
38th	Nagano	57.0
38th	Wakayama	57.0
38th	Ehime	57.0
42nd	Oita	56.9
43rd	Miyazaki	56.8
44th	Yamaguchi	55.7
44th	Akita	55.7
46th	Kochi	55.5
47th	Shimane	55.0



A5 Unmarried rate (at 50 years old)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Nara	18.24
2nd	Shiga	18.25
3rd	Fukui	19.19
4th	Gifu	20.12
5th	Mie	20.41
6th	Hyogo	20.53
7th	Wakayama	20.63
8th	Ishikawa	20.64
9th	Kagawa	20.93
10th	Miyazaki	21.51
11th	Okayama	21.60
12th	Hiroshima	21.66
13th	Kumamoto	21.70
14th	Oita	21.87
15th	Toyama	21.94
16th	Saga	22.03
17th	Fukuoka	22.04
18th	Tokushima	22.10
19th	Aichi	22.27
20th	Ehime	22.46
21st	Osaka	22.54
22nd	Nagasaki	22.57
23rd	Kagoshima	22.60
24th	Kyoto	22.71

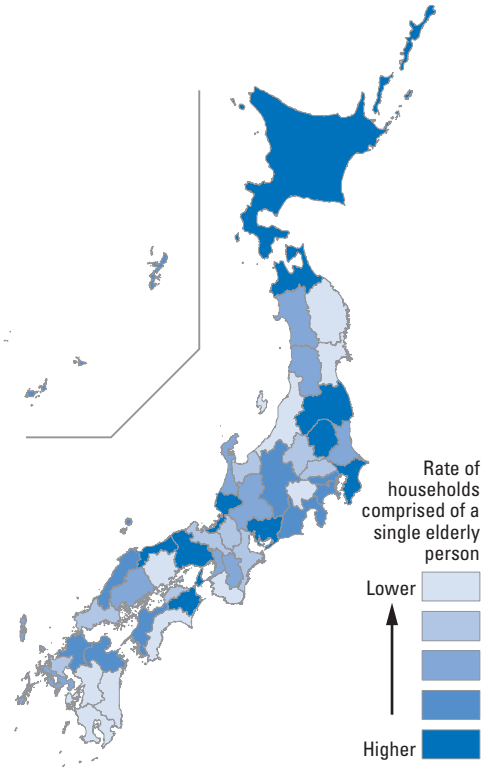
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Yamagata	22.81
26th	Nagano	22.88
27th	Yamanashi	23.05
27th	Yamaguchi	23.05
29th	Miyagi	23.11
30th	Shimane	23.21
31st	Hokkaido	23.48
32nd	Gunma	23.56
33rd	Tottori	23.90
34th	Chiba	24.09
35th	Shizuoka	24.13
36th	Tochigi	24.25
37th	Ibaraki	24.29
38th	Fukushima	24.69
39th	Kochi	24.82
40th	Saitama	24.83
41st	Kanagawa	24.93
42nd	Aomori	25.03
43rd	Akita	25.10
44th	Niigata	25.15
45th	Tokyo	26.06
46th	Iwate	26.16
47th	Okinawa	26.20



A6 Rate of households comprised of a single elderly person (aged 65 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Niigata	8.259
2nd	Miyazaki	8.920
3rd	Okayama	9.060
4th	Miyagi	9.160
5th	Kagoshima	9.175
6th	Wakayama	9.247
7th	Kumamoto	9.292
8th	Iwate	9.420
9th	Kochi	9.726
10th	Yamanashi	9.727
11th	Mie	9.735
12th	Shiga	9.756
13th	Gunma	9.914
14th	Kagawa	10.062
15th	Saitama	10.122
16th	Saga	10.215
17th	Kyoto	10.348
18th	Toyama	10.411
19th	Yamaguchi	10.448
20th	Gifu	10.628
21st	Akita	10.786
22nd	Ibaraki	10.911
23rd	Hiroshima	11.052
24th	Osaka	11.124

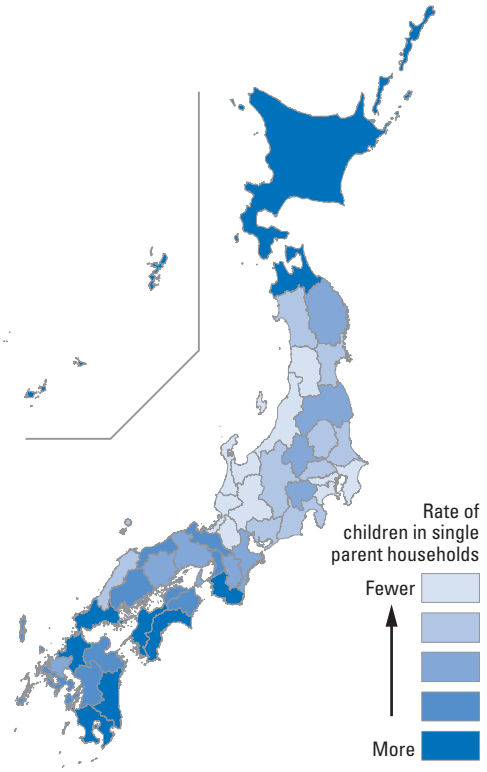
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Nagasaki	11.187
26th	Ishikawa	11.191
27th	Yamagata	11.308
28th	Nara	11.839
29th	Kanagawa	11.858
30th	Fukuoka	11.879
31st	Nagano	11.909
32nd	Oita	11.980
33rd	Ehime	12.093
34th	Tokyo	12.121
35th	Okinawa	12.345
36th	Shizuoka	12.385
37th	Shimane	12.897
38th	Fukushima	12.941
39th	Aichi	13.100
40th	Fukui	13.183
41st	Aomori	13.278
42nd	Hyogo	13.551
43rd	Tokushima	13.774
44th	Tottori	14.548
45th	Chiba	14.996
46th	Hokkaido	15.330
47th	Tochigi	16.492



A7 Rate of children in single parent households

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Fukui	4.544
2nd	Toyama	4.605
3rd	Tokyo	4.727
4th	Niigata	4.816
5th	Shiga	4.829
6th	Yamagata	4.836
7th	Kanagawa	4.862
8th	Ishikawa	4.920
9th	Gifu	4.975
10th	Chiba	5.063
11th	Saitama	5.080
12th	Aichi	5.231
13th	Nagano	5.393
14th	Shizuoka	5.414
15th	Akita	5.436
16th	Tochigi	5.478
17th	Miyagi	5.518
18th	Shimane	5.712
19th	Ibaraki	5.764
20th	Mie	5.781
21st	Iwate	5.971
22nd	Fukushima	6.024
23rd	Nara	6.059
24th	Gunma	6.066

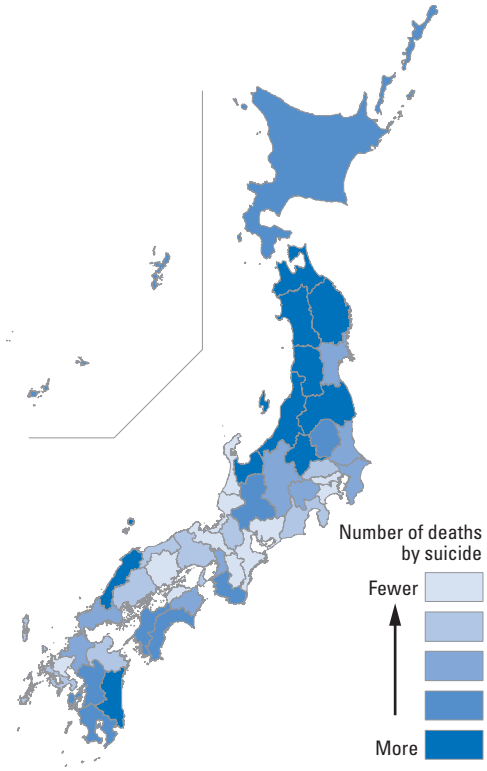
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Hyogo	6.119
26th	Okayama	6.153
27th	Yamanashi	6.311
28th	Saga	6.428
29th	Tottori	6.552
30th	Kyoto	6.559
31st	Tokushima	6.622
32nd	Hiroshima	6.673
33rd	Oita	6.913
34th	Kagawa	6.946
35th	Kumamoto	7.037
36th	Nagasaki	7.277
37th	Osaka	7.333
38th	Aomori	7.671
39th	Fukuoka	7.714
40th	Ehime	7.727
41st	Yamaguchi	7.809
42nd	Wakayama	8.330
43rd	Okinawa	8.482
44th	Kagoshima	8.629
45th	Miyazaki	8.932
46th	Kochi	9.134
47th	Hokkaido	9.143



A8 Number of deaths by suicide (per 100,000 population, averaged over 2014-2016)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Nara	15.56
2nd	Aichi	15.61
3rd	Kyoto	15.82
4th	Kanagawa	15.93
5th	Saga	16.30
6th	Fukui	16.37
7th	Ishikawa	16.42
8th	Kagawa	16.56
9th	Tokyo	16.58
10th	Okayama	16.87
10th	Mie	16.87
12th	Oita	16.98
13th	Shiga	16.99
14th	Nagasaki	17.12
15th	Tottori	17.19
16th	Hiroshima	17.24
17th	Saitama	17.47
18th	Shizuoka	17.71
19th	Hyogo	17.72
20th	Fukuoka	17.75
21st	Yamaguchi	18.22
22nd	Miyagi	18.24
23rd	Ibaraki	18.28
24th	Chiba	18.30

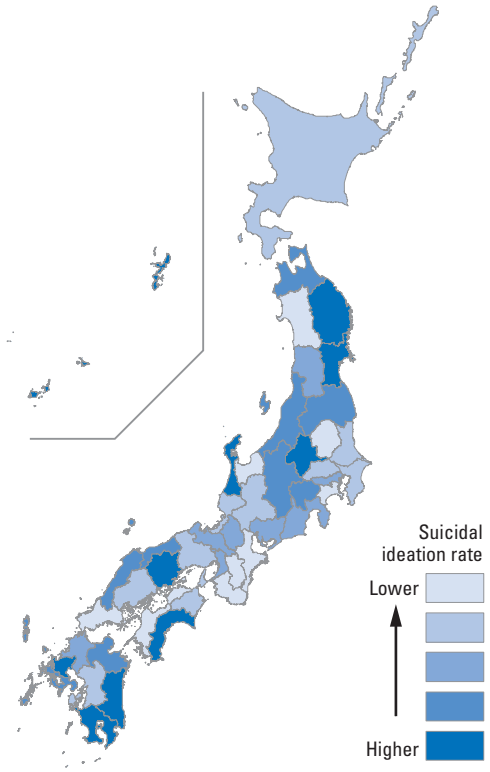
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Nagano	18.39
26th	Tokushima	18.40
27th	Osaka	18.50
28th	Yamanashi	18.55
29th	Gifu	18.65
30th	Kochi	18.72
31st	Kumamoto	18.88
32nd	Kagoshima	18.94
33rd	Hokkaido	19.02
34th	Tochigi	19.28
35th	Ehime	19.42
36th	Wakayama	19.50
37th	Okinawa	19.67
38th	Toyama	20.17
39th	Gunma	20.39
40th	Fukushima	20.67
41st	Shimane	20.73
42nd	Aomori	20.80
43rd	Yamagata	21.11
44th	Miyazaki	22.08
45th	Niigata	22.49
46th	Iwate	24.37
47th	Akita	25.45



A9 Suicidal ideation rate (among aged 20 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kanagawa	23.1
2nd	Akita	23.3
2nd	Ehime	23.3
4th	Nara	23.6
5th	Wakayama	23.7
5th	Yamaguchi	23.7
7th	Toyama	23.9
7th	Mie	23.9
9th	Tochigi	24.2
10th	Kagawa	24.3
11th	Saitama	24.4
12th	Tokushima	24.5
13th	Chiba	24.6
14th	Gifu	24.7
15th	Hyogo	24.8
16th	Kumamoto	24.9
16th	Fukui	24.9
18th	Hiroshima	25.0
19th	Hokkaido	25.2
19th	Ibaraki	25.2
21st	Shiga	25.3
21st	Tokyo	25.3
23rd	Osaka	25.6
23rd	Shizuoka	25.6

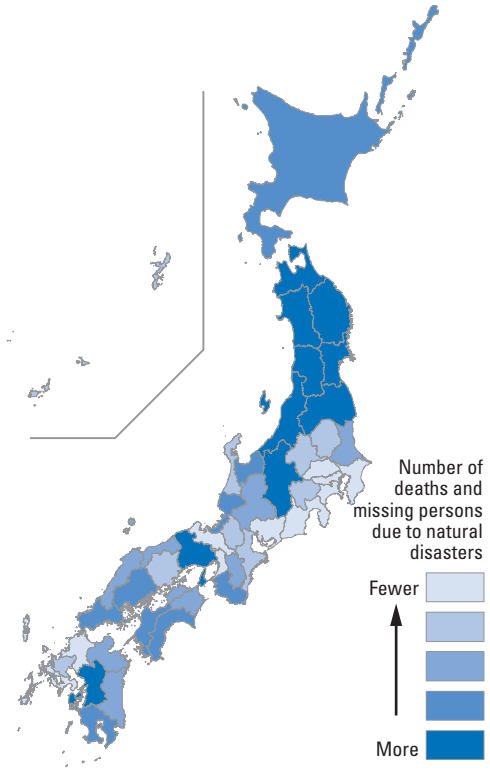
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Yamagata	25.7
26th	Fukuoka	25.8
26th	Kyoto	25.8
26th	Aichi	25.8
29th	Yamanashi	26.0
29th	Nagano	26.0
31st	Aomori	26.1
31st	Tottori	26.1
33rd	Nagasaki	26.4
34th	Niigata	26.5
34th	Fukushima	26.5
36th	Shimane	26.6
37th	Oita	26.8
38th	Kochi	27.2
39th	Okayama	27.3
40th	Ishikawa	27.5
41st	Gunma	28.1
42nd	Iwate	29.0
42nd	Okinawa	29.0
44th	Miyagi	29.4
45th	Miyazaki	29.8
46th	Kagoshima	30.4
47th	Saga	31.3



A10 Number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Saitama	0.165
2nd	Aichi	0.293
3rd	Osaka	0.408
4th	Kanagawa	0.481
5th	Tokyo	0.492
6th	Fukuoka	0.568
7th	Nagasaki	0.585
8th	Shizuoka	0.705
9th	Chiba	0.866
10th	Kyoto	0.883
11th	Shiga	1.062
12th	Tochigi	1.068
13th	Saga	1.087
14th	Okinawa	1.251
15th	Okayama	1.253
16th	Gunma	1.373
17th	Mie	1.383
18th	Yamanashi	1.446
19th	Ishikawa	1.738
20th	Nara	2.360
21st	Oita	2.414
22nd	Kagawa	2.572
23rd	Tokushima	2.667
24th	Gifu	2.720

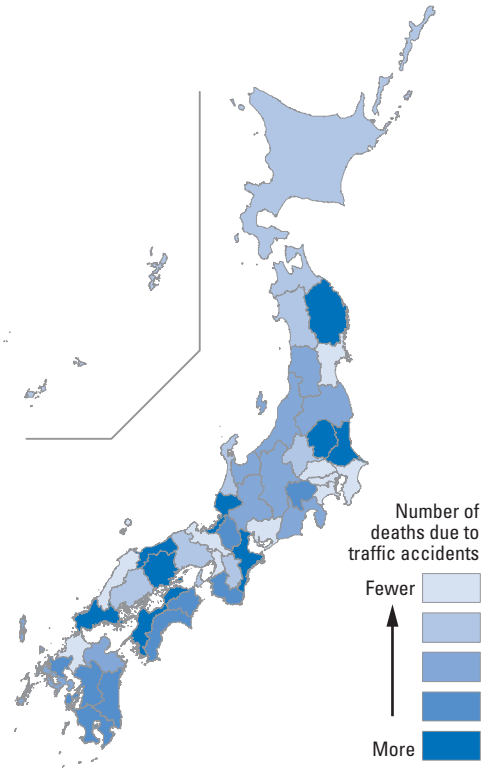
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Miyazaki	2.737
26th	Tottori	2.982
27th	Shimane	3.043
28th	Ibaraki	3.236
29th	Toyama	3.582
30th	Ehime	3.636
31st	Kagoshima	3.726
32nd	Kochi	3.745
33rd	Hiroshima	5.005
34th	Yamaguchi	5.022
35th	Hokkaido	5.138
36th	Fukui	6.138
37th	Wakayama	7.652
38th	Nagano	8.669
39th	Aomori	9.745
40th	Yamagata	14.286
41st	Niigata	14.479
42nd	Kumamoto	16.460
43rd	Akita	19.604
44th	Hyogo	117.065
45th	Fukushima	216.833
46th	Iwate	498.896
47th	Miyagi	507.983



A11 Number of deaths due to traffic accidents (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokyo	1.20
2nd	Kanagawa	1.63
3rd	Osaka	1.70
4th	Miyagi	2.19
5th	Saitama	2.43
6th	Shimane	2.46
7th	Chiba	2.47
8th	Kyoto	2.53
9th	Aichi	2.66
10th	Fukuoka	2.72
11th	Hokkaido	2.77
12th	Hyogo	2.92
13th	Ishikawa	2.95
13th	Nara	2.95
15th	Akita	2.97
16th	Okinawa	3.06
17th	Hiroshima	3.21
18th	Aomori	3.25
19th	Yamagata	3.41
19th	Gunma	3.41
21st	Nagasaki	3.44
22nd	Shizuoka	3.47
23rd	Toyama	3.49
24th	Fukushima	3.58

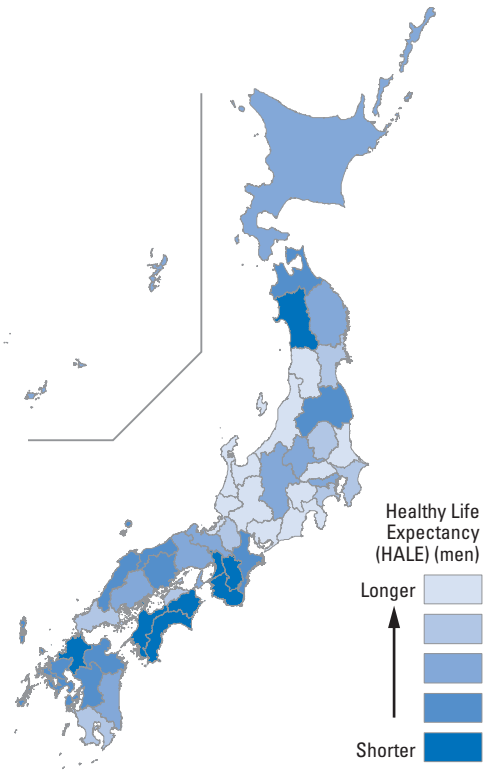
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Gifu	3.71
26th	Niigata	3.72
27th	Nagano	3.78
28th	Oita	3.79
29th	Miyazaki	3.83
30th	Shiga	3.89
31st	Wakayama	3.98
32nd	Kochi	4.02
33rd	Kagoshima	4.03
34th	Kumamoto	4.11
35th	Saga	4.35
36th	Yamanashi	4.46
37th	Tokushima	4.53
38th	Tottori	4.56
39th	Mie	4.76
40th	Iwate	4.81
41st	Tochigi	4.83
42nd	Ibaraki	4.92
43rd	Kagawa	4.94
44th	Okayama	5.07
45th	Ehime	5.67
45th	Yamaguchi	5.67
47th	Fukui	5.88



B1 Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (men)

Ranking	Prefecture	Years
1st	Yamanashi	73.21
2nd	Saitama	73.10
3rd	Aichi	73.06
4th	Gifu	72.89
5th	Ishikawa	72.67
6th	Shizuoka	72.63
7th	Yamagata	72.61
8th	Toyama	72.58
9th	Ibaraki	72.50
10th	Niigata	72.45
10th	Fukui	72.45
12th	Miyagi	72.39
13th	Chiba	72.37
13th	Kagawa	72.37
15th	Kagoshima	72.31
16th	Kanagawa	72.30
16th	Shiga	72.30
18th	Yamaguchi	72.18
19th	Tochigi	72.12
20th	Nagano	72.11
21st	Hyogo	72.08
22nd	Gunma	72.07
23rd	Miyazaki	72.05
24th	Tokyo	72.00

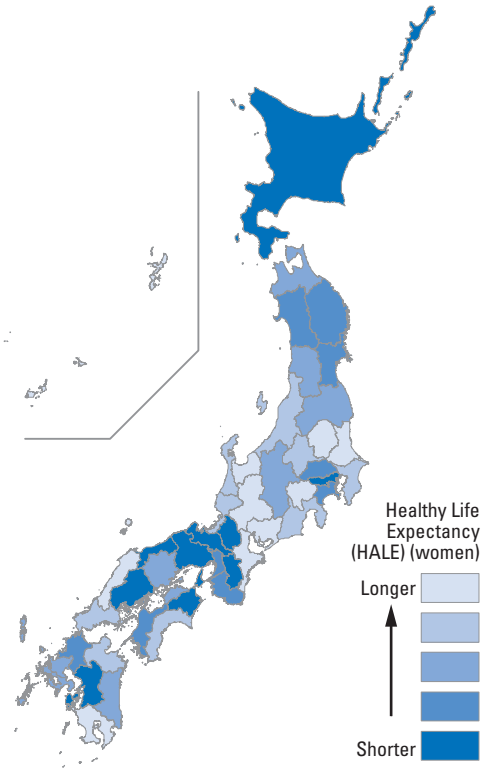
Ranking	Prefecture	Years
25th	Hokkaido	71.98
25th	Okinawa	71.98
27th	Hiroshima	71.97
28th	Iwate	71.85
28th	Kyoto	71.85
30th	Nagasaki	71.83
31st	Mie	71.79
32nd	Kumamoto	71.75
33rd	Shimane	71.71
34th	Tottori	71.69
35th	Aomori	71.64
36th	Saga	71.60
37th	Fukushima	71.54
37th	Okayama	71.54
37th	Oita	71.54
40th	Osaka	71.50
41st	Fukuoka	71.49
42nd	Nara	71.39
43rd	Kochi	71.37
44th	Wakayama	71.36
45th	Tokushima	71.34
46th	Ehime	71.33
47th	Akita	71.21



B1 Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (women)

Ranking	Prefecture	Years
1st	Aichi	76.32
2nd	Mie	76.30
3rd	Yamanashi	76.22
4th	Toyama	75.77
5th	Shimane	75.74
6th	Tochigi	75.73
7th	Gifu	75.65
8th	Ibaraki	75.52
9th	Kagoshima	75.51
10th	Okinawa	75.46
11th	Niigata	75.44
12th	Oita	75.38
13th	Shizuoka	75.37
14th	Fukui	75.26
15th	Gunma	75.20
16th	Ishikawa	75.18
16th	Yamaguchi	75.18
18th	Chiba	75.17
18th	Kochi	75.17
20th	Aomori	75.14
21st	Okayama	75.09
22nd	Saga	75.07
23rd	Yamagata	75.06
24th	Fukushima	75.05

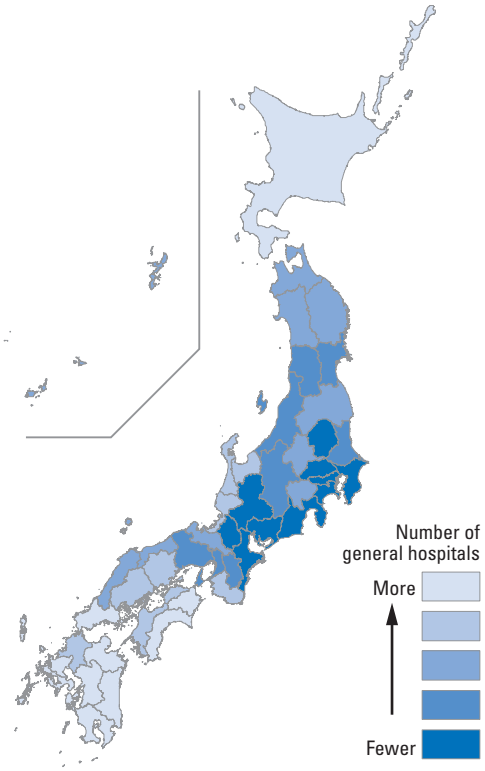
Ranking	Prefecture	Years
25th	Miyazaki	74.93
26th	Kagawa	74.83
27th	Nagano	74.72
28th	Nagasaki	74.71
29th	Saitama	74.67
30th	Fukuoka	74.66
31st	Kanagawa	74.63
32nd	Ehime	74.59
33rd	Akita	74.53
34th	Iwate	74.46
34th	Osaka	74.46
36th	Miyagi	74.43
37th	Wakayama	74.42
38th	Kumamoto	74.40
39th	Tokyo	74.24
40th	Hyogo	74.23
41st	Tottori	74.14
42nd	Nara	74.10
43rd	Shiga	74.07
44th	Tokushima	74.04
45th	Kyoto	73.97
46th	Hokkaido	73.77
47th	Hiroshima	73.62



B2 Number of general hospitals (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Hospitals
1st	Kochi	18.0
2nd	Kagoshima	15.4
3rd	Tokushima	14.9
4th	Oita	13.5
5th	Saga	12.9
6th	Miyazaki	12.8
7th	Kumamoto	12.0
8th	Nagasaki	11.0
9th	Yamaguchi	10.5
9th	Hokkaido	10.5
11th	Ehime	10.3
12th	Toyama	10.0
13th	Kagawa	9.3
14th	Fukuoka	9.0
15th	Fukui	8.7
15th	Wakayama	8.7
17th	Okayama	8.6
17th	Hiroshima	8.6
19th	Ishikawa	8.3
20th	Tottori	7.7
21st	Shimane	7.4
21st	Aomori	7.4
23rd	Iwate	7.3
24th	Yamanashi	7.2

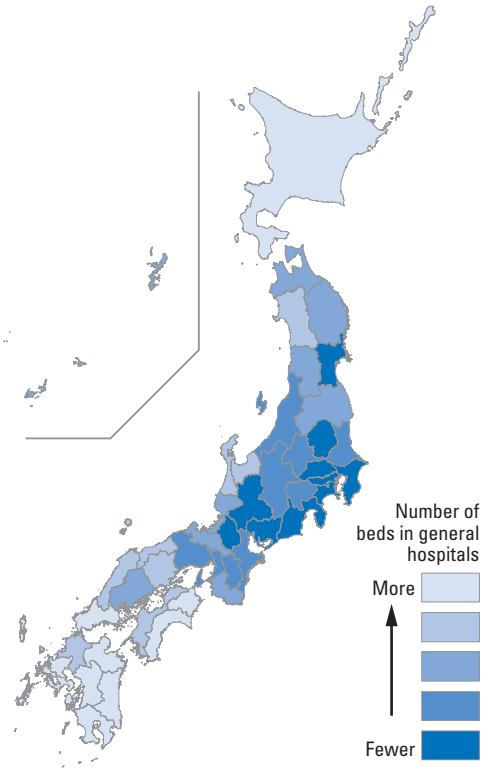
Ranking	Prefecture	Hospitals
25th	Akita	6.8
26th	Fukushima	6.7
27th	Gunma	6.6
28th	Okinawa	6.5
28th	Kyoto	6.5
30th	Hyogo	6.3
31st	Nagano	6.2
32nd	Ibaraki	6.1
32nd	Yamagata	6.1
34th	Miyagi	6.0
35th	Osaka	5.9
36th	Niigata	5.7
36th	Nara	5.7
38th	Mie	5.5
39th	Tochigi	5.4
40th	Gifu	5.0
41st	Shizuoka	4.9
42nd	Tokyo	4.8
43rd	Saitama	4.7
44th	Chiba	4.6
45th	Aichi	4.3
46th	Shiga	4.0
47th	Kanagawa	3.7



B3 Number of beds in general hospitals (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Hospital beds
1st	Kochi	2530.4
2nd	Kagoshima	2083.6
3rd	Tokushima	1978.4
4th	Kumamoto	1957.6
5th	Nagasaki	1941.3
6th	Yamaguchi	1925.5
7th	Saga	1810.4
8th	Hokkaido	1781.7
9th	Miyazaki	1750.8
10th	Oita	1723.4
11th	Fukuoka	1682.7
12th	Ehime	1607.2
13th	Ishikawa	1582.3
14th	Toyama	1577.0
15th	Shimane	1543.8
16th	Kagawa	1541.9
17th	Tottori	1518.6
18th	Akita	1502.5
19th	Okayama	1494.3
20th	Hiroshima	1424.2
21st	Wakayama	1415.6
22nd	Fukui	1404.1
23rd	Iwate	1377.8
24th	Kyoto	1373.7

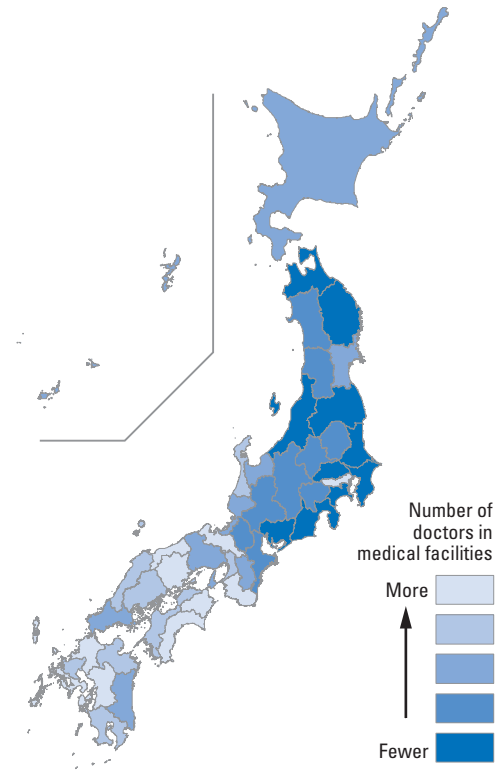
Ranking	Prefecture	Hospital beds
25th	Aomori	1359.2
26th	Fukushima	1345.7
27th	Yamagata	1320.6
28th	Okinawa	1314.5
29th	Yamanashi	1310.0
30th	Niigata	1250.9
31st	Nara	1237.0
32nd	Gunma	1235.5
33rd	Osaka	1211.4
34th	Hyogo	1177.5
35th	Nagano	1152.1
36th	Mie	1122.4
37th	Ibaraki	1090.3
38th	Miyagi	1082.6
39th	Tochigi	1080.9
40th	Shizuoka	1052.2
41st	Gifu	1026.7
42nd	Shiga	1025.6
43rd	Chiba	944.5
44th	Tokyo	942.1
45th	Aichi	903.4
46th	Saitama	852.1
47th	Kanagawa	808.9



B4 Number of doctors in medical facilities (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokushima	315.9
2nd	Kyoto	314.9
3rd	Kochi	306.0
4th	Tokyo	304.2
5th	Okayama	300.4
6th	Tottori	298.1
7th	Fukuoka	297.6
8th	Nagasaki	295.7
9th	Wakayama	290.1
10th	Kumamoto	281.9
11th	Ishikawa	280.6
12th	Saga	276.8
13th	Kagawa	276.0
14th	Shimane	272.3
15th	Osaka	270.4
16th	Oita	268.5
17th	Kagoshima	262.9
18th	Ehime	262.5
19th	Hiroshima	254.6
20th	Yamaguchi	246.5
21st	Fukui	245.8
22nd	Okinawa	243.1
22nd	Nara	243.1
24th	Hyogo	242.4

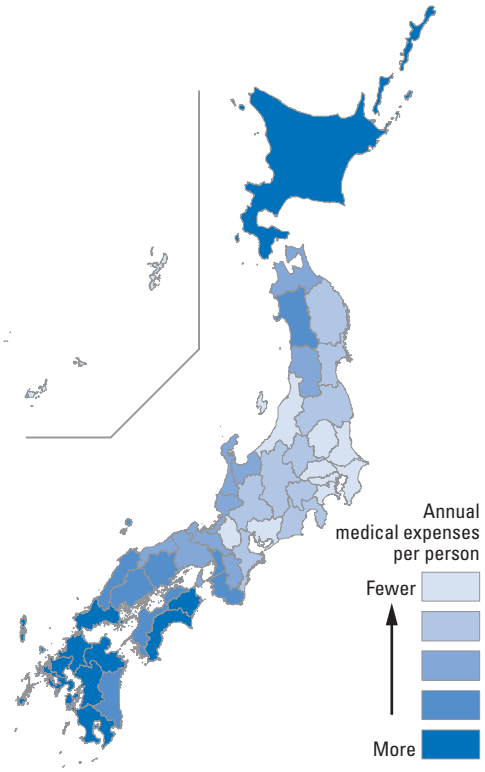
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Toyama	241.8
26th	Miyazaki	238.4
27th	Hokkaido	238.3
28th	Miyagi	231.9
29th	Yamanashi	231.8
30th	Nagano	226.2
31st	Gunma	225.2
32nd	Akita	223.5
33rd	Shiga	220.9
34th	Yamagata	219.5
35th	Tochigi	218.0
36th	Mie	217.0
37th	Gifu	208.9
38th	Aichi	207.7
39th	Kanagawa	205.4
40th	Shizuoka	200.8
41st	Aomori	198.2
42nd	Fukushima	195.7
43rd	Iwate	193.8
44th	Niigata	191.9
45th	Chiba	189.9
46th	Ibaraki	180.4
47th	Saitama	160.1



B5 Annual medical expenses per person

Ranking	Prefecture	1000s Yen
1st	Saitama	291.5
2nd	Chiba	293.5
3rd	Kanagawa	297.1
4th	Okinawa	299.2
4th	Shiga	299.2
6th	Aichi	299.3
7th	Ibaraki	304.0
8th	Tochigi	304.2
9th	Tokyo	304.3
10th	Niigata	307.7
11th	Shizuoka	308.0
12th	Miyagi	309.1
13th	Gunma	316.6
14th	Mie	318.4
15th	Iwate	321.2
16th	Nagano	321.4
17th	Gifu	325.5
18th	Fukushima	326.5
19th	Yamanashi	328.9
20th	Toyama	332.4
21st	Fukui	335.5
22nd	Yamagata	338.2
23rd	Nara	340.7
24th	Aomori	341.3

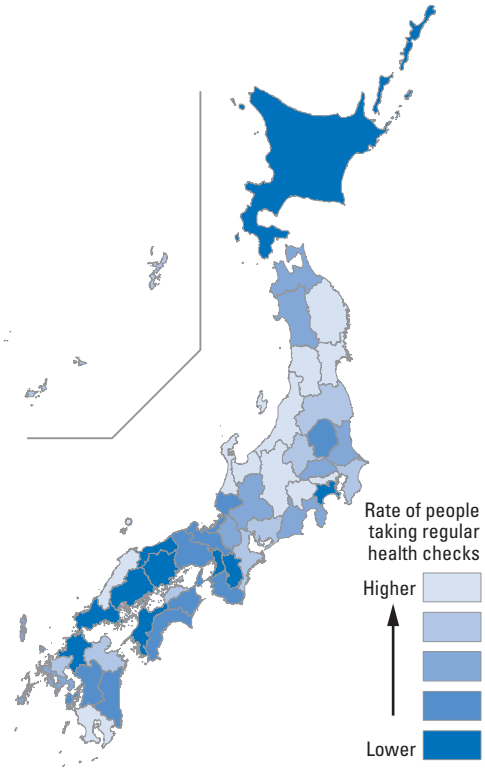
Ranking	Prefecture	1000s Yen
25th	Kyoto	343.1
26th	Ishikawa	343.9
27th	Hyogo	347.8
28th	Tottori	348.2
29th	Okayama	359.0
30th	Miyazaki	360.0
31st	Hiroshima	360.2
32nd	Osaka	363.4
33rd	Akita	364.1
34th	Wakayama	374.5
35th	Kagawa	374.9
36th	Ehime	375.0
37th	Shimane	375.4
38th	Fukuoka	376.4
39th	Kumamoto	387.0
40th	Hokkaido	391.3
41st	Saga	392.3
42nd	Oita	392.8
43rd	Tokushima	394.6
44th	Yamaguchi	396.2
45th	Kagoshima	404.5
46th	Nagasaki	410.2
47th	Kochi	440.2



B6 Rate of people taking regular health checks

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Miyagi	47.3
2nd	Yamagata	46.5
3rd	Nagano	45.8
4th	Ishikawa	45.1
5th	Tokyo	44.7
6th	Yamanashi	43.9
7th	Iwate	43.2
7th	Niigata	43.2
9th	Toyama	43.0
10th	Kagoshima	42.9
10th	Shimane	42.9
12th	Mie	42.1
13th	Kagawa	41.6
14th	Gunma	41.3
15th	Saga	41.0
15th	Fukushima	41.0
17th	Oita	40.6
18th	Okinawa	39.4
19th	Aichi	39.2
19th	Chiba	39.2
21st	Saitama	38.9
22nd	Nagasaki	38.5
23rd	Shiga	38.0
24th	Shizuoka	37.6

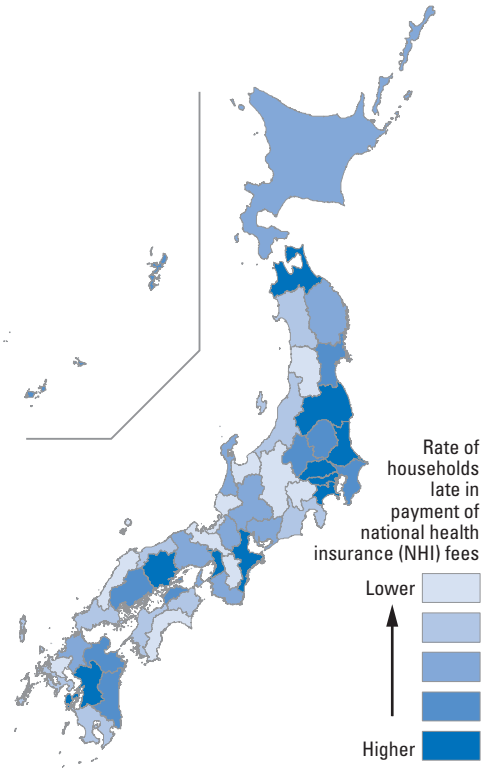
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Gifu	37.3
26th	Akita	36.5
27th	Ibaraki	36.4
28th	Aomori	36.3
29th	Kochi	35.9
30th	Tokushima	34.8
30th	Hyogo	34.8
32nd	Tochigi	34.5
33rd	Miyazaki	34.4
34th	Kumamoto	34.2
35th	Wakayama	32.8
36th	Kyoto	32.5
37th	Fukui	32.4
38th	Fukuoka	32.3
39th	Tottori	31.5
40th	Nara	31.2
41st	Ehime	30.3
42nd	Osaka	30.0
43rd	Okayama	28.9
44th	Hokkaido	27.6
45th	Kanagawa	27.0
46th	Hiroshima	26.7
47th	Yamaguchi	26.0



B7 Rate of households late in payment of national health insurance (NHI) fees

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Shimane	7.7
2nd	Saga	8.6
3rd	Kochi	9.1
4th	Fukui	9.8
4th	Nara	9.8
6th	Yamagata	10.0
7th	Kyoto	10.1
8th	Toyama	10.3
9th	Nagano	11.0
9th	Yamanashi	11.0
11th	Akita	11.2
11th	Ehime	11.2
13th	Niigata	11.5
13th	Nagasaki	11.5
15th	Tottori	11.8
16th	Kagoshima	11.9
16th	Shizuoka	11.9
16th	Tokushima	11.9
16th	Yamaguchi	11.9
20th	Wakayama	12.0
21st	Hokkaido	12.2
22nd	Aichi	12.7
23rd	Gifu	12.8
24th	Iwate	13.2

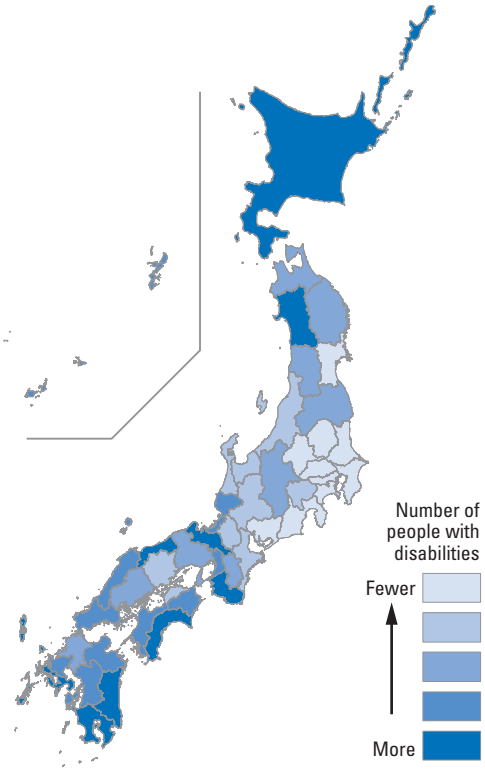
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Hyogo	13.4
25th	Fukuoka	13.4
27th	Shiga	13.8
28th	Ishikawa	14.0
29th	Gunma	14.1
30th	Kagawa	14.2
31st	Miyagi	14.3
32nd	Oita	14.4
33rd	Miyazaki	15.2
33rd	Hiroshima	15.2
35th	Okinawa	15.6
35th	Tochigi	15.6
37th	Chiba	15.9
38th	Osaka	16.2
39th	Okayama	16.8
40th	Kanagawa	17.4
41st	Saitama	17.5
41st	Aomori	17.5
43rd	Mie	18.0
43rd	Fukushima	18.0
45th	Ibaraki	18.1
46th	Kumamoto	20.1
47th	Tokyo	22.4



B8 Number of people with disabilities (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Chiba	486.298
2nd	Saitama	486.304
3rd	Ibaraki	502.081
4th	Kanagawa	524.236
5th	Gunma	534.651
6th	Aichi	538.038
7th	Shizuoka	541.308
8th	Tochigi	569.704
9th	Tokyo	583.947
10th	Miyagi	584.090
11th	Gifu	601.786
12th	Ishikawa	602.387
13th	Shiga	615.817
14th	Niigata	623.441
15th	Okayama	630.084
16th	Toyama	631.550
17th	Yamanashi	633.585
18th	Kagawa	634.038
19th	Mie	647.818
20th	Fukushima	651.793
21st	Yamagata	652.500
22nd	Iwate	657.402
23rd	Aomori	681.189
24th	Hiroshima	682.718

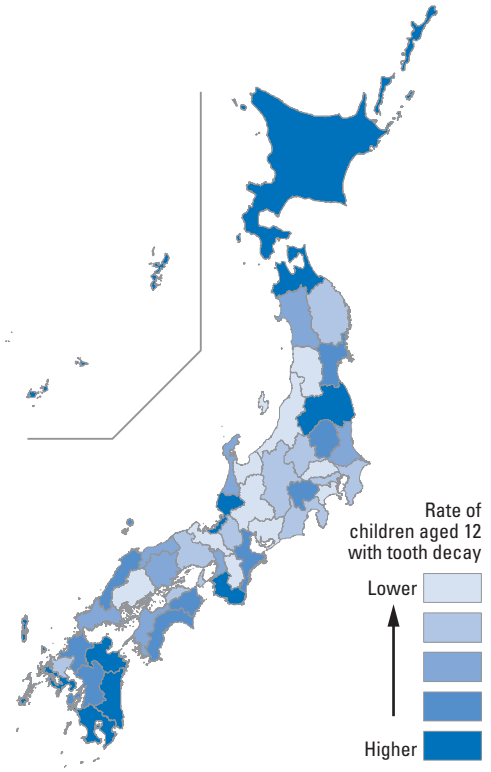
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Nagano	685.661
26th	Nara	687.069
27th	Hyogo	688.583
28th	Fukuoka	689.616
29th	Yamaguchi	691.778
30th	Fukui	720.917
31st	Osaka	726.998
32nd	Tokushima	756.805
33rd	Ehime	763.709
34th	Saga	765.880
35th	Kumamoto	775.509
36th	Nagasaki	780.466
37th	Oita	783.819
38th	Tottori	794.992
39th	Wakayama	815.070
40th	Kochi	822.759
41st	Shimane	825.682
42nd	Kagoshima	828.734
43rd	Miyazaki	839.628
44th	Kyoto	852.184
45th	Hokkaido	863.462
46th	Akita	874.576
47th	Okinawa	897.244



B9 Rate of children aged 12 with tooth decay

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Niigata	21.6
2nd	Aichi	23.8
3rd	Hiroshima	26.5
4th	Yamagata	27.5
5th	Toyama	27.6
6th	Gifu	29.4
7th	Kyoto	29.5
8th	Saitama	30.0
9th	Nara	30.8
10th	Kanagawa	30.9
11th	Shizuoka	31.1
12th	Nagano	31.5
13th	Tokyo	31.9
14th	Chiba	32.8
15th	Hyogo	33.4
16th	Iwate	33.7
17th	Shiga	33.8
18th	Kagawa	34.2
19th	Saga	34.3
19th	Gunma	34.3
21st	Akita	34.8
22nd	Yamaguchi	35.3
23rd	Okayama	35.8
24th	Ehime	37.7

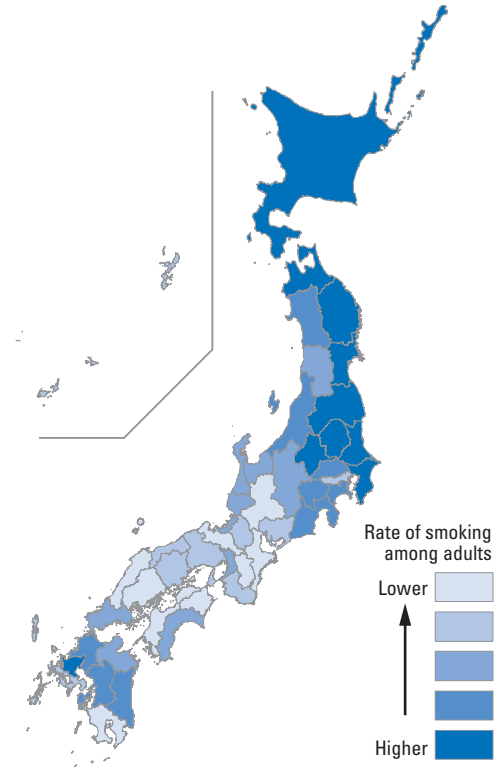
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Osaka	38.5
25th	Ibaraki	38.5
27th	Tottori	38.7
27th	Ishikawa	38.7
29th	Mie	39.1
30th	Fukuoka	40.0
31st	Yamanashi	40.1
32nd	Tokushima	40.6
33rd	Kumamoto	40.7
34th	Kochi	40.8
35th	Miyagi	41.2
36th	Tochigi	41.3
37th	Shimane	41.8
38th	Nagasaki	41.9
39th	Wakayama	42.5
40th	Oita	43.2
41st	Miyazaki	43.8
42nd	Fukui	44.1
43rd	Fukushima	45.7
44th	Aomori	46.1
45th	Hokkaido	46.4
46th	Kagoshima	48.2
47th	Okinawa	54.8



B10 Rate of smoking among adults

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Nara	17.100
2nd	Kagawa	17.358
3rd	Tokushima	17.399
4th	Kagoshima	17.418
5th	Kyoto	17.515
6th	Mie	17.705
7th	Gifu	17.749
8th	Shimane	17.953
9th	Ehime	18.042
10th	Hiroshima	18.129
11th	Tottori	18.161
12th	Okinawa	18.242
13th	Tokyo	18.330
14th	Shiga	18.721
15th	Okayama	18.788
16th	Aichi	18.835
17th	Nagasaki	18.854
18th	Wakayama	18.880
19th	Hyogo	18.902
20th	Yamaguchi	19.087
21st	Oita	19.142
22nd	Kochi	19.289
23rd	Yamagata	19.304
24th	Nagano	19.488

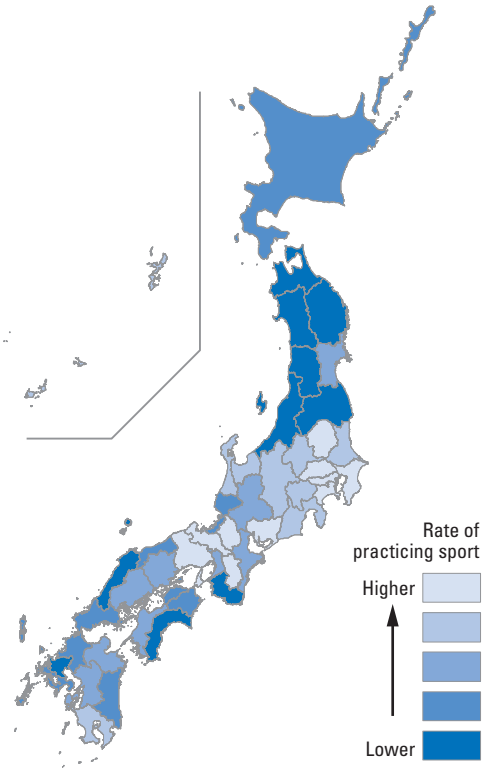
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Toyama	19.521
26th	Ishikawa	19.687
27th	Fukui	19.802
28th	Osaka	19.868
29th	Shizuoka	19.896
30th	Kanagawa	19.983
31st	Niigata	20.044
32nd	Miyazaki	20.047
33rd	Akita	20.262
34th	Fukuoka	20.374
35th	Yamanashi	20.462
36th	Saitama	20.759
37th	Kumamoto	20.900
38th	Miyagi	20.990
39th	Chiba	21.106
40th	Ibaraki	21.581
41st	Saga	21.659
42nd	Tochigi	21.838
43rd	Gunma	21.995
44th	Fukushima	22.391
45th	Iwate	22.627
46th	Aomori	23.837
47th	Hokkaido	24.661



B11 Rate of practicing sport (aged 10 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	75.7
2nd	Saitama	72.6
3rd	Kanagawa	72.4
4th	Chiba	71.6
4th	Shiga	71.6
6th	Aichi	71.2
7th	Kyoto	70.1
8th	Hyogo	69.5
8th	Nara	69.5
10th	Tochigi	69.3
11th	Ishikawa	69.1
12th	Ibaraki	68.5
13th	Yamanashi	68.2
13th	Shizuoka	68.2
13th	Kagoshima	68.2
16th	Gunma	68.1
16th	Nagano	68.1
18th	Toyama	67.9
18th	Okinawa	67.9
20th	Gifu	67.4
21st	Oita	67.2
22nd	Osaka	66.9
22nd	Mie	66.9
24th	Okayama	66.8

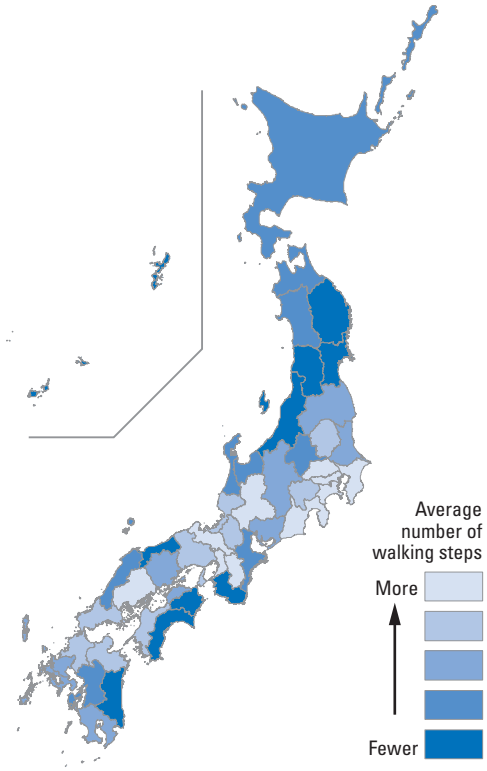
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Ehime	66.8
26th	Kumamoto	66.7
27th	Hiroshima	66.5
28th	Miyagi	66.4
29th	Kagawa	66.0
30th	Fukuoka	65.8
30th	Yamaguchi	65.8
32nd	Tokushima	65.4
33rd	Tottori	65.2
34th	Fukui	65.0
35th	Hokkaido	64.9
36th	Miyazaki	64.5
36th	Nagasaki	64.5
38th	Wakayama	63.6
39th	Shimane	63.5
40th	Saga	63.4
41st	Fukushima	63.1
42nd	Kochi	62.7
43rd	Niigata	62.6
44th	Yamagata	61.6
45th	Iwate	60.6
45th	Akita	60.6
47th	Aomori	56.0



B12 Average number of walking steps (per day)

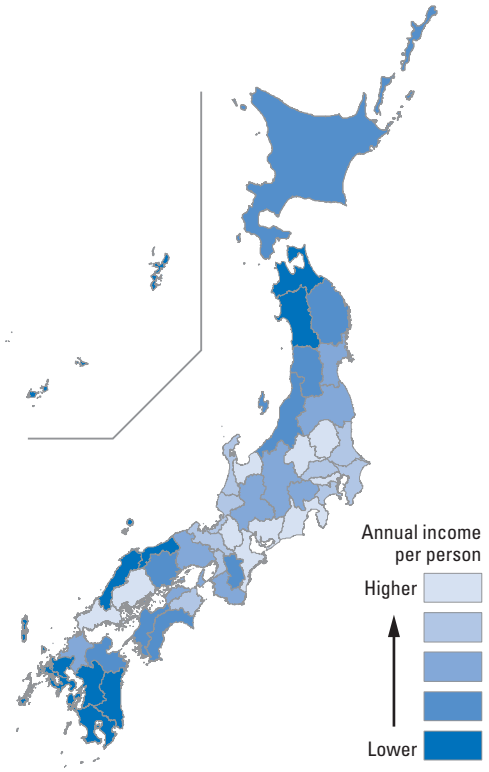
Ranking	Prefecture	Steps
1st	Kyoto	7963.88
2nd	Kanagawa	7915.29
3rd	Tokyo	7865.46
4th	Osaka	7824.16
5th	Shizuoka	7779.90
6th	Nara	7654.81
7th	Gifu	7612.24
8th	Saitama	7579.65
9th	Hiroshima	7574.34
10th	Chiba	7530.11
11th	Shiga	7507.47
12th	Yamaguchi	7367.41
13th	Ehime	7309.94
14th	Fukuoka	7288.14
15th	Oita	7244.84
16th	Hyogo	7223.28
17th	Fukui	7131.34
18th	Tochigi	7068.85
19th	Yamanashi	7019.11
20th	Nagasaki	6980.75
21st	Aichi	6977.41
22nd	Kagoshima	6965.29
23rd	Okayama	6964.57
24th	Kagawa	6938.83

Ranking	Prefecture	Steps
25th	Saga	6937.17
26th	Ibaraki	6927.76
27th	Fukushima	6854.65
28th	Nagano	6853.53
29th	Ishikawa	6833.07
30th	Kumamoto	6800.34
31st	Mie	6776.07
32nd	Gunma	6701.34
33rd	Aomori	6690.69
34th	Shimane	6673.34
35th	Hokkaido	6632.76
36th	Toyama	6592.47
37th	Akita	6580.75
38th	Niigata	6580.03
39th	Miyagi	6564.27
40th	Tokushima	6529.29
41st	Miyazaki	6436.31
42nd	Yamagata	6431.25
43rd	Okinawa	6426.47
44th	Iwate	6368.56
45th	Wakayama	6358.85
46th	Tottori	6261.99
47th	Kochi	5755.36



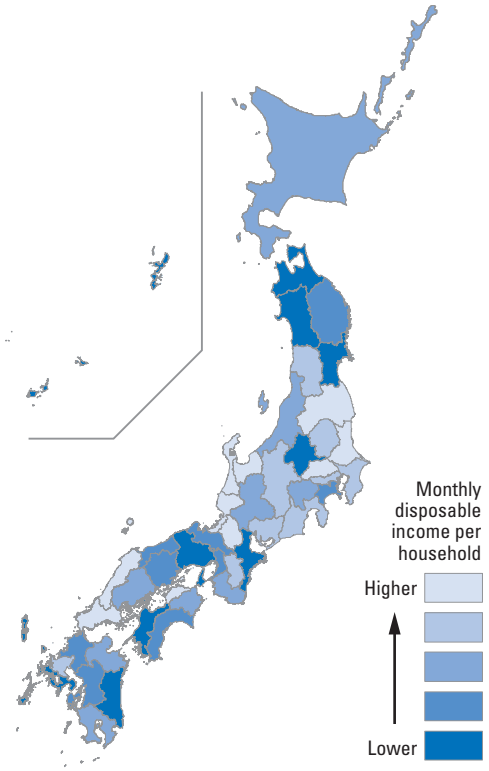
C1 Annual income per person

Ranking	Prefecture	1000s Yen
1st	Tokyo	4,512
2nd	Aichi	3,527
3rd	Shizuoka	3,220
4th	Tochigi	3,204
5th	Toyama	3,185
6th	Hiroshima	3,145
7th	Mie	3,144
8th	Shiga	3,126
8th	Yamaguchi	3,126
10th	Gunma	3,092
11th	Ibaraki	3,088
12th	Kyoto	3,028
13th	Osaka	3,013
14th	Fukui	2,973
15th	Chiba	2,970
16th	Ishikawa	2,947
17th	Kanagawa	2,929
18th	Tokushima	2,905
19th	Saitama	2,903
20th	Kagawa	2,890
21st	Fukushima	2,861
22nd	Hyogo	2,844
23rd	Nagano	2,821
24th	Miyagi	2,807
25th	Wakayama	2,798
26th	Yamanashi	2,797
27th	Fukuoka	2,759
28th	Gifu	2,717
29th	Iwate	2,716
30th	Okayama	2,711
31st	Niigata	2,697
32nd	Yamagata	2,589
33rd	Oita	2,583
34th	Hokkaido	2,560
35th	Nara	2,534
36th	Kochi	2,530
37th	Ehime	2,520
38th	Saga	2,509
39th	Akita	2,467
40th	Shimane	2,440
41st	Aomori	2,405
42nd	Kumamoto	2,395
43rd	Kagoshima	2,389
44th	Miyazaki	2,381
45th	Nagasaki	2,354
46th	Tottori	2,330
47th	Okinawa	2,129



C2 Monthly disposable income per household

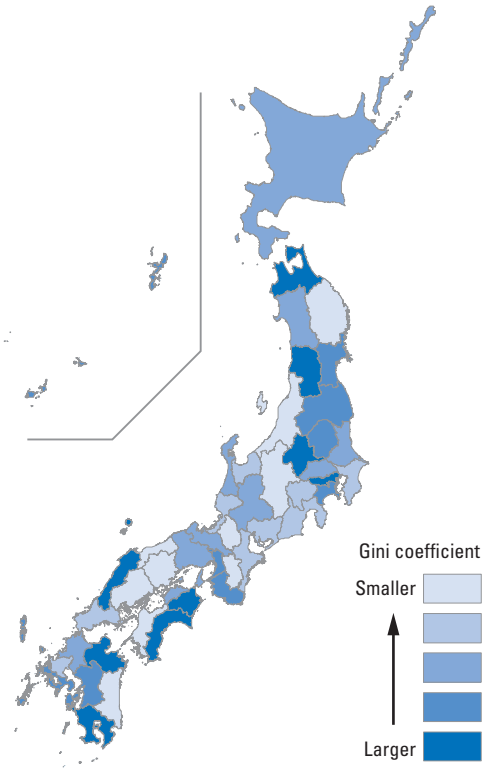
Ranking	Prefecture	Yen
1st	Toyama	530,185
2nd	Fukushima	517,816
3rd	Saitama	498,318
4th	Kagawa	491,074
5th	Ibaraki	474,614
6th	Ishikawa	473,801
7th	Yamaguchi	466,560
8th	Shimane	462,896
9th	Fukui	462,324
10th	Shiga	459,259
11th	Saga	456,885
12th	Nagano	456,846
13th	Yamagata	455,870
14th	Tochigi	454,731
15th	Shizuoka	454,045
16th	Tokyo	449,926
17th	Chiba	449,887
18th	Nara	449,685
19th	Aichi	447,532
20th	Kagoshima	446,776
21st	Gifu	445,213
22nd	Hokkaido	439,093
23rd	Yamanashi	439,065
24th	Hiroshima	428,678
25th	Wakayama	427,522
26th	Oita	426,416
27th	Tokushima	421,918
28th	Niigata	421,704
29th	Okayama	419,178
30th	Kochi	417,669
31st	Fukuoka	414,651
32nd	Tottori	410,665
33rd	Osaka	409,812
34th	Kumamoto	409,766
35th	Iwate	407,451
36th	Kyoto	406,169
37th	Kanagawa	402,625
38th	Ehime	401,537
39th	Mie	398,251
40th	Gunma	387,252
41st	Akita	386,830
42nd	Okinawa	373,752
43rd	Miyazaki	367,971
44th	Nagasaki	365,908
45th	Aomori	357,190
46th	Hyogo	345,564
47th	Miyagi	325,532



C3 Gini coefficient

Ranking	Prefecture	
1st	Iwate	0.275
2nd	Nagano	0.283
3rd	Tottori	0.289
4th	Niigata	0.291
4th	Ehime	0.291
6th	Shiga	0.293
6th	Nara	0.293
6th	Hiroshima	0.293
6th	Okayama	0.293
6th	Miyazaki	0.293
11th	Mie	0.295
12th	Shizuoka	0.296
13th	Yamanashi	0.298
14th	Yamaguchi	0.299
14th	Saga	0.299
16th	Toyama	0.300
16th	Fukui	0.300
18th	Chiba	0.301
18th	Aichi	0.301
20th	Ibaraki	0.302
21st	Gifu	0.303
21st	Akita	0.303
21st	Hyogo	0.303
24th	Kagawa	0.304

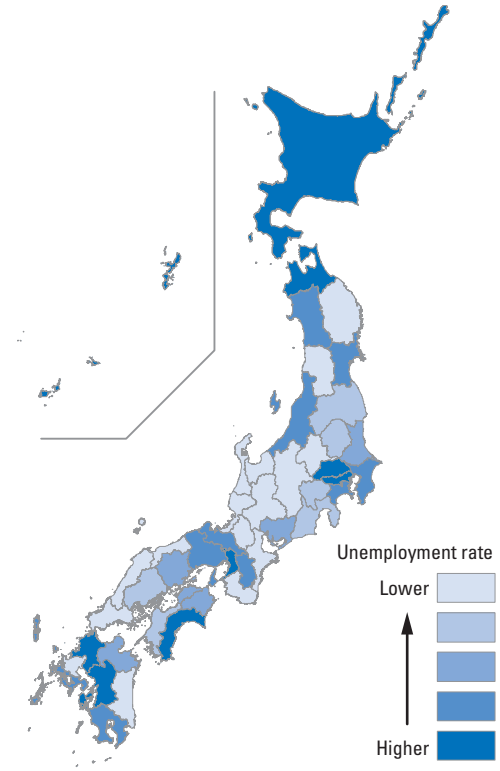
Ranking	Prefecture	
25th	Saitama	0.305
25th	Fukuoka	0.305
27th	Ishikawa	0.307
28th	Hokkaido	0.308
28th	Kyoto	0.308
30th	Fukushima	0.309
31st	Tochigi	0.311
31st	Kumamoto	0.311
33rd	Nagasaki	0.312
34th	Kanagawa	0.313
35th	Wakayama	0.315
35th	Osaka	0.315
37th	Okinawa	0.316
37th	Miyagi	0.316
39th	Yamagata	0.322
39th	Kagoshima	0.322
39th	Gunma	0.322
42nd	Tokushima	0.326
43rd	Aomori	0.327
44th	Shimane	0.330
44th	Kochi	0.330
46th	Oita	0.333
47th	Tokyo	0.343



C4 Unemployment rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Shimane	1.1
2nd	Wakayama	1.6
3rd	Fukui	1.7
3rd	Tottori	1.7
5th	Ishikawa	1.8
5th	Mie	1.8
7th	Nagano	2.0
7th	Shiga	2.0
7th	Miyazaki	2.0
10th	Iwate	2.1
10th	Yamagata	2.1
10th	Gunma	2.1
10th	Toyama	2.1
10th	Gifu	2.1
10th	Yamaguchi	2.1
10th	Saga	2.1
17th	Fukushima	2.3
17th	Tochigi	2.3
17th	Yamanashi	2.3
17th	Shizuoka	2.3
17th	Hiroshima	2.3
17th	Ehime	2.3
23rd	Ibaraki	2.4
23rd	Aichi	2.4

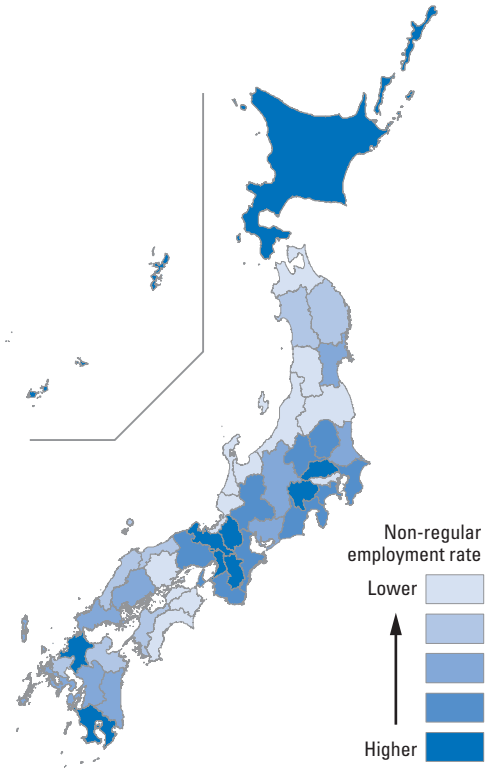
Ranking	Prefecture	%
23rd	Okayama	2.4
23rd	Kagawa	2.4
23rd	Oita	2.4
28th	Tokushima	2.5
29th	Niigata	2.6
29th	Nagasaki	2.6
31st	Chiba	2.7
31st	Kanagawa	2.7
31st	Kyoto	2.7
31st	Nara	2.7
35th	Miyagi	2.8
35th	Akita	2.8
35th	Hyogo	2.8
35th	Kagoshima	2.8
39th	Saitama	2.9
39th	Tokyo	2.9
41st	Kochi	3.0
42nd	Kumamoto	3.1
43rd	Hokkaido	3.3
44th	Aomori	3.4
44th	Osaka	3.4
44th	Fukuoka	3.4
47th	Okinawa	3.8



C5 Non-regular employment rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokushima	32.6
2nd	Yamagata	32.8
3rd	Toyama	33.1
4th	Kagawa	34.5
5th	Fukui	34.6
6th	Niigata	34.9
7th	Fukushima	35.0
8th	Tokyo	35.1
9th	Okayama	35.2
10th	Aomori	35.3
10th	Kochi	35.3
10th	Ishikawa	35.3
13th	Tottori	35.5
14th	Iwate	35.7
15th	Oita	35.8
16th	Saga	35.9
17th	Ehime	36.0
17th	Shimane	36.0
19th	Akita	36.1
20th	Miyagi	36.5
21st	Kumamoto	36.6
22nd	Hiroshima	37.3
23rd	Aichi	37.5
23rd	Yamaguchi	37.5

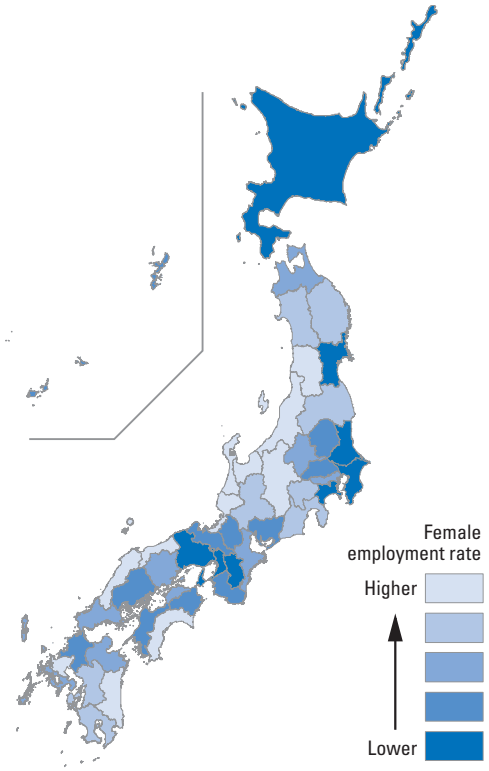
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Nagasaki	37.6
25th	Nagano	37.6
27th	Miyazaki	38.0
28th	Ibaraki	38.5
29th	Gifu	38.6
30th	Tochigi	38.9
30th	Shizuoka	38.9
32nd	Mie	39.2
33rd	Wakayama	39.3
34th	Hyogo	39.5
35th	Gunma	39.6
36th	Kanagawa	39.7
36th	Chiba	39.7
38th	Fukuoka	40.0
39th	Saitama	40.1
40th	Osaka	40.3
40th	Kagoshima	40.3
42nd	Hokkaido	40.6
42nd	Shiga	40.6
44th	Yamanashi	40.8
45th	Nara	41.1
46th	Kyoto	42.5
47th	Okinawa	43.1



C6 Female employment rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Fukui	74.8
2nd	Toyama	72.2
3rd	Shimane	71.8
4th	Tottori	71.6
5th	Ishikawa	71.2
6th	Yamagata	71.1
7th	Kochi	70.1
8th	Niigata	69.6
9th	Miyazaki	69.4
10th	Nagano	69.0
10th	Saga	69.0
12th	Iwate	68.5
13th	Akita	68.4
14th	Gifu	67.6
15th	Kumamoto	67.5
16th	Shizuoka	67.1
17th	Kagoshima	66.9
18th	Yamanashi	66.8
19th	Fukushima	66.3
20th	Okayama	66.2
21st	Yamaguchi	66.0
21st	Oita	66.0
23rd	Gunma	65.8
24th	Kagawa	65.7

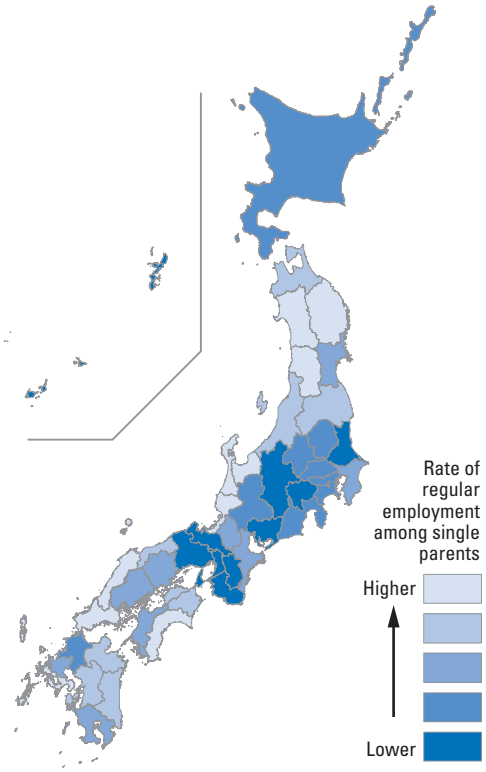
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Tokyo	65.6
26th	Nagasaki	65.4
27th	Aomori	65.3
28th	Mie	65.2
29th	Wakayama	65.1
30th	Shiga	65.0
31st	Ehime	64.7
32nd	Okinawa	64.4
33rd	Aichi	64.3
34th	Hiroshima	64.2
35th	Tochigi	64.1
36th	Tokushima	63.9
37th	Kyoto	63.7
37th	Saitama	63.7
37th	Fukuoka	63.7
40th	Ibaraki	63.1
41st	Chiba	63.0
42nd	Hokkaido	62.9
42nd	Miyagi	62.9
44th	Kanagawa	62.0
45th	Osaka	61.4
46th	Hyogo	60.6
47th	Nara	58.5



C7 Rate of regular employment among single parents

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Toyama	56.26
2nd	Shimane	51.13
3rd	Ishikawa	50.93
4th	Fukui	50.13
5th	Kochi	49.97
6th	Yamagata	49.37
7th	Akita	49.06
8th	Nagasaki	49.05
9th	Iwate	48.94
10th	Yamaguchi	48.90
11th	Fukushima	48.22
12th	Tokushima	47.97
13th	Oita	47.94
14th	Tottori	47.72
15th	Kumamoto	47.42
15th	Kagawa	47.42
17th	Miyazaki	46.90
18th	Niigata	46.88
19th	Aomori	46.35
20th	Saga	46.31
21st	Okayama	45.95
22nd	Ehime	45.86
23rd	Kagoshima	45.83
24th	Mie	44.60

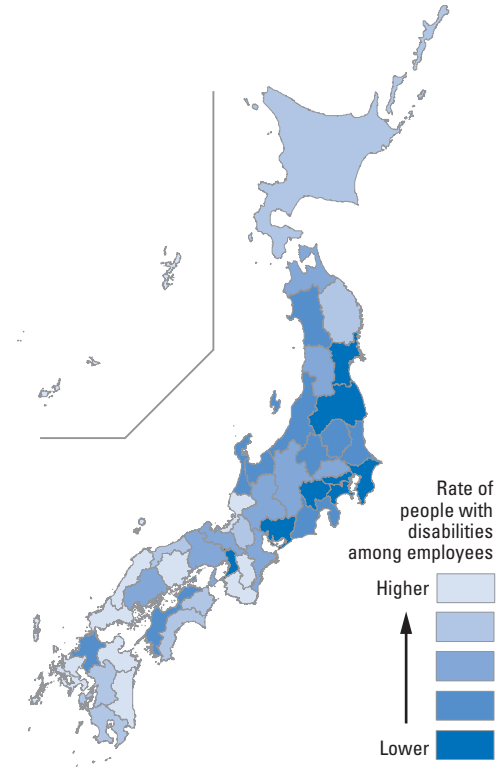
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Chiba	44.52
26th	Miyagi	44.23
27th	Hiroshima	44.07
28th	Shiga	43.48
29th	Fukuoka	42.91
30th	Saitama	42.68
31st	Shizuoka	42.66
32nd	Kanagawa	42.15
33rd	Gunma	41.88
34th	Gifu	41.85
35th	Tochigi	41.70
36th	Tokyo	41.12
37th	Hokkaido	40.74
38th	Ibaraki	40.62
39th	Nagano	40.56
40th	Nara	40.28
41st	Wakayama	40.11
41st	Aichi	40.11
43rd	Hyogo	39.99
44th	Okinawa	39.94
45th	Yamanashi	38.91
46th	Osaka	37.81
47th	Kyoto	37.46



C8 Rate of people with disabilities among employees

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Nara	2.62
2nd	Yamaguchi	2.56
3rd	Saga	2.54
4th	Okayama	2.52
5th	Oita	2.44
6th	Okinawa	2.43
7th	Fukui	2.40
8th	Miyazaki	2.30
9th	Nagasaki	2.26
10th	Shimane	2.25
10th	Wakayama	2.25
12th	Kumamoto	2.24
13th	Kagoshima	2.22
14th	Kochi	2.19
15th	Tokushima	2.17
16th	Iwate	2.16
16th	Tottori	2.16
18th	Shiga	2.13
18th	Hokkaido	2.13
20th	Mie	2.08
21st	Kyoto	2.07
22nd	Aomori	2.06
22nd	Nagano	2.06
24th	Hiroshima	2.05

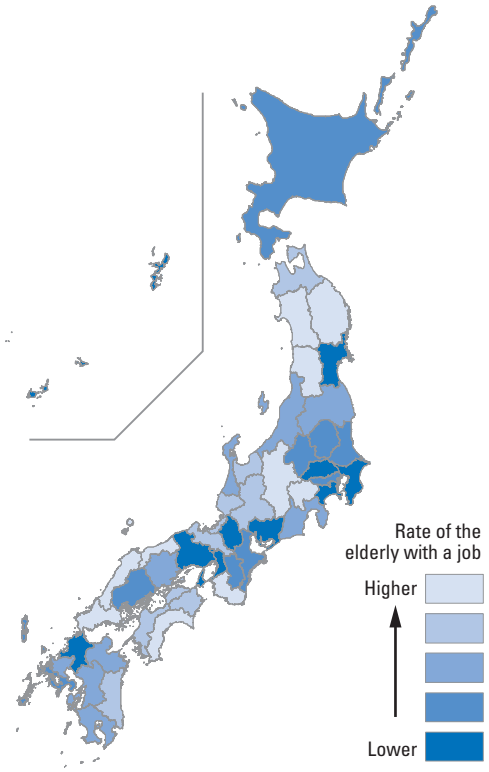
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Yamagata	2.03
25th	Hyogo	2.03
27th	Gifu	2.02
28th	Saitama	2.01
29th	Ishikawa	1.98
29th	Akita	1.98
29th	Tochigi	1.98
32nd	Toyama	1.97
32nd	Ehime	1.97
32nd	Fukuoka	1.97
32nd	Shizuoka	1.97
32nd	Ibaraki	1.97
37th	Kagawa	1.96
37th	Niigata	1.96
37th	Gunma	1.96
40th	Fukushima	1.95
40th	Yamanashi	1.95
42nd	Miyagi	1.94
43rd	Kanagawa	1.92
43rd	Osaka	1.92
45th	Chiba	1.91
46th	Aichi	1.89
47th	Tokyo	1.88



C9 Rate of the elderly with a job (aged 65 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kochi	16.88
2nd	Nagano	16.79
3rd	Shimane	16.59
4th	Yamanashi	15.50
5th	Wakayama	15.24
6th	Yamaguchi	15.20
7th	Akita	14.92
8th	Iwate	14.91
9th	Tottori	14.80
10th	Yamagata	14.48
11th	Toyama	14.41
12th	Kagawa	14.37
13th	Tokushima	14.36
14th	Aomori	14.34
15th	Ehime	14.31
16th	Kyoto	14.23
16th	Fukui	14.23
18th	Miyazaki	13.97
19th	Gifu	13.92
20th	Oita	13.88
21st	Fukushima	13.58
22nd	Ishikawa	13.54
23rd	Shizuoka	13.51
24th	Niigata	13.48

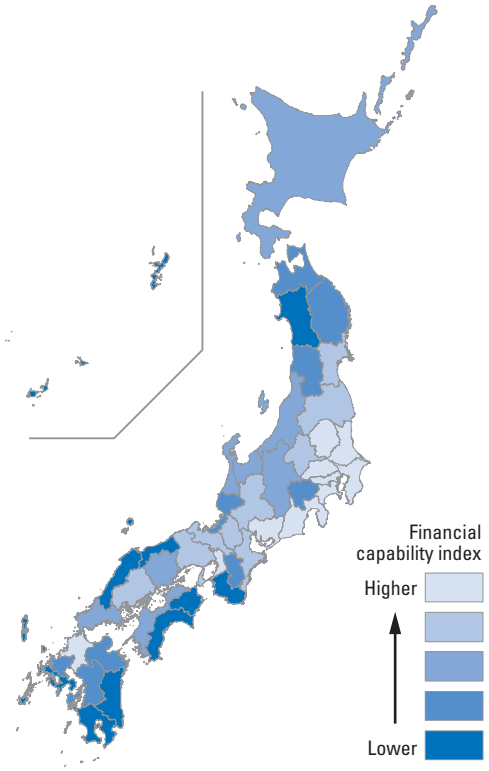
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Kumamoto	13.45
25th	Kagoshima	13.45
27th	Okayama	13.41
28th	Saga	13.37
29th	Gunma	13.33
30th	Hiroshima	13.06
31st	Mie	13.00
32nd	Nagasaki	12.83
33rd	Tochigi	12.78
34th	Nara	12.70
35th	Tokyo	12.66
36th	Ibaraki	12.59
37th	Hokkaido	12.42
38th	Osaka	12.21
38th	Chiba	12.21
40th	Hyogo	11.97
41st	Saitama	11.93
42nd	Fukuoka	11.69
43rd	Aichi	11.56
44th	Kanagawa	11.09
45th	Shiga	11.06
46th	Miyagi	11.00
47th	Okinawa	8.45



C10 Financial capability index

Ranking	Prefecture	
1st	Tokyo	1.10133
2nd	Aichi	0.92079
3rd	Kanagawa	0.90832
4th	Chiba	0.77827
5th	Saitama	0.76593
6th	Osaka	0.76505
7th	Shizuoka	0.71954
8th	Tochigi	0.63993
9th	Ibaraki	0.63726
10th	Fukuoka	0.63402
11th	Hyogo	0.63363
12th	Gunma	0.62459
13th	Miyagi	0.61443
14th	Hiroshima	0.60157
15th	Mie	0.58545
16th	Kyoto	0.58423
17th	Shiga	0.54974
18th	Gifu	0.53444
19th	Fukushima	0.53346
20th	Okayama	0.51755
21st	Nagano	0.49610
22nd	Ishikawa	0.48499
23rd	Kagawa	0.47572
24th	Toyama	0.46651

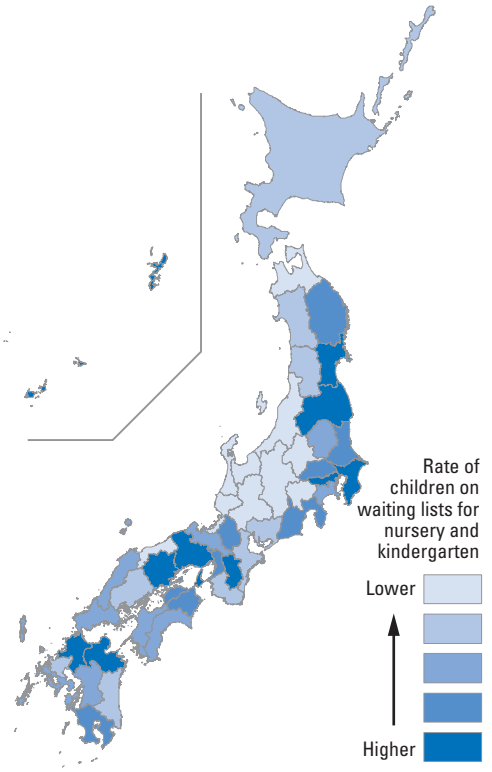
Ranking	Prefecture	
25th	Niigata	0.45107
26th	Yamaguchi	0.44031
27th	Hokkaido	0.43523
28th	Ehime	0.42524
29th	Nara	0.42074
30th	Kumamoto	0.39854
31st	Yamanashi	0.39625
32nd	Fukui	0.39353
33rd	Oita	0.37071
34th	Iwate	0.35156
35th	Yamagata	0.35108
36th	Saga	0.34093
37th	Aomori	0.34082
38th	Kagoshima	0.33303
39th	Miyazaki	0.33278
40th	Okinawa	0.33241
41st	Tokushima	0.32946
42nd	Wakayama	0.32692
43rd	Nagasaki	0.32607
44th	Akita	0.30876
45th	Tottori	0.26553
46th	Kochi	0.25820
47th	Shimane	0.25199



D1 Rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Aomori	0.000
1st	Toyama	0.000
1st	Ishikawa	0.000
1st	Fukui	0.000
1st	Yamanashi	0.000
1st	Nagano	0.000
1st	Tottori	0.000
8th	Niigata	0.003
9th	Gunma	0.005
9th	Gifu	0.005
11th	Hokkaido	0.087
12th	Miyazaki	0.110
13th	Aichi	0.122
14th	Wakayama	0.141
15th	Saga	0.142
16th	Akita	0.176
17th	Mie	0.254
18th	Yamagata	0.268
19th	Hiroshima	0.294
20th	Tochigi	0.349
21st	Kochi	0.351
22nd	Ehime	0.383
23rd	Yamaguchi	0.388
24th	Kyoto	0.396

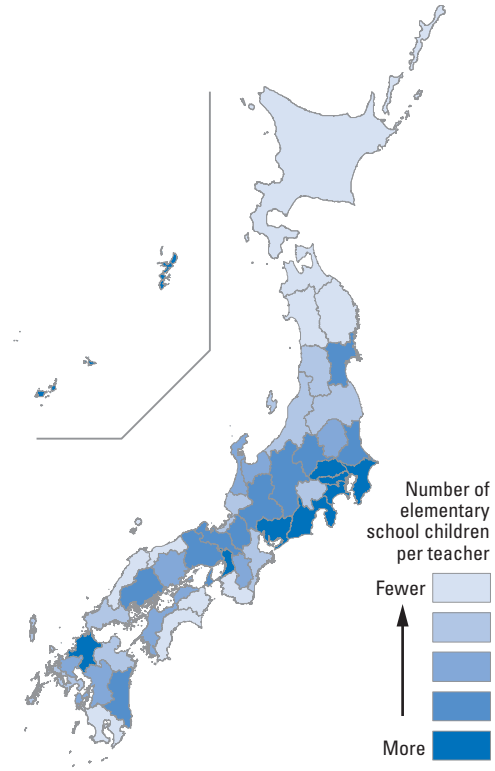
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Kumamoto	0.494
26th	Nagasaki	0.515
27th	Kanagawa	0.518
28th	Shimane	0.536
29th	Tokushima	0.596
30th	Iwate	0.614
31st	Osaka	0.717
32nd	Shizuoka	0.741
33rd	Kagoshima	0.856
34th	Ibaraki	0.953
35th	Kagawa	1.040
36th	Shiga	1.084
37th	Saitama	1.102
38th	Fukuoka	1.112
39th	Nara	1.156
40th	Hyogo	1.531
41st	Chiba	1.763
42nd	Miyagi	1.979
43rd	Oita	1.988
44th	Fukushima	2.029
45th	Okayama	2.325
46th	Tokyo	3.275
47th	Okinawa	4.376



D2 Number of elementary school children per teacher

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Shimane	10.98
2nd	Kochi	11.25
3rd	Tokushima	11.62
4th	Tottori	11.78
5th	Kagoshima	12.28
6th	Iwate	12.29
7th	Wakayama	12.39
8th	Aomori	12.71
9th	Hokkaido	13.01
10th	Akita	13.24
11th	Fukushima	13.29
12th	Nagasaki	13.38
13th	Niigata	13.42
14th	Yamaguchi	13.48
15th	Yamagata	13.50
16th	Yamanashi	13.54
17th	Oita	13.59
18th	Fukui	13.60
19th	Mie	13.65
20th	Kumamoto	13.79
20th	Okayama	13.79
22nd	Saga	13.86
23rd	Ehime	14.02
24th	Kagawa	14.48

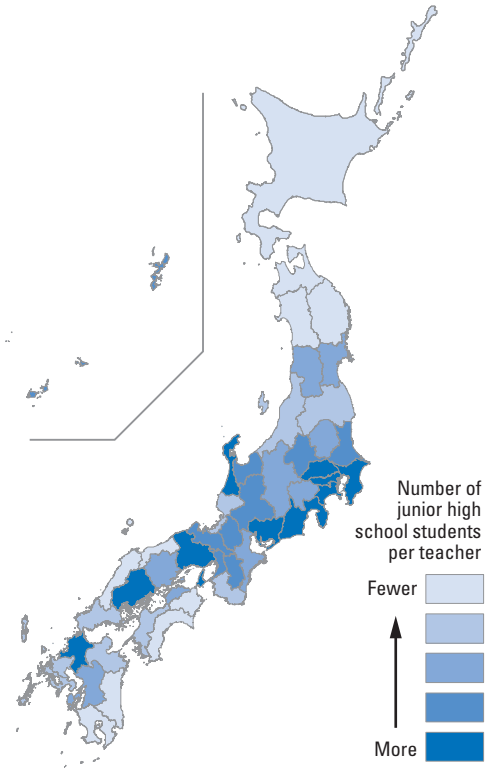
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Nara	14.52
26th	Ishikawa	14.69
27th	Toyama	14.70
28th	Tochigi	14.83
29th	Miyazaki	14.84
30th	Miyagi	14.99
31st	Gifu	15.05
32nd	Kyoto	15.08
32nd	Ibaraki	15.08
34th	Gunma	15.09
35th	Nagano	15.17
36th	Shiga	15.30
37th	Hiroshima	15.95
37th	Hyogo	15.95
39th	Osaka	16.17
40th	Okinawa	16.44
41st	Fukuoka	16.68
42nd	Shizuoka	17.07
43rd	Chiba	17.40
44th	Aichi	17.55
45th	Tokyo	17.78
46th	Saitama	18.43
47th	Kanagawa	18.47



D3 Number of junior high school students per teacher

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Kochi	8.82
2nd	Shimane	9.57
3rd	Tottori	10.65
4th	Tokushima	10.69
5th	Kagoshima	10.78
6th	Akita	10.79
7th	Aomori	10.92
8th	Miyazaki	10.95
9th	Iwate	11.01
10th	Hokkaido	11.05
11th	Wakayama	11.15
12th	Saga	11.24
13th	Nagasaki	11.31
14th	Yamaguchi	11.67
15th	Fukushima	11.78
15th	Oita	11.78
17th	Niigata	11.86
18th	Ehime	11.97
19th	Fukui	12.03
20th	Kumamoto	12.08
21st	Nagano	12.44
22nd	Yamanashi	12.52
23rd	Miyagi	12.61
24th	Yamagata	12.65

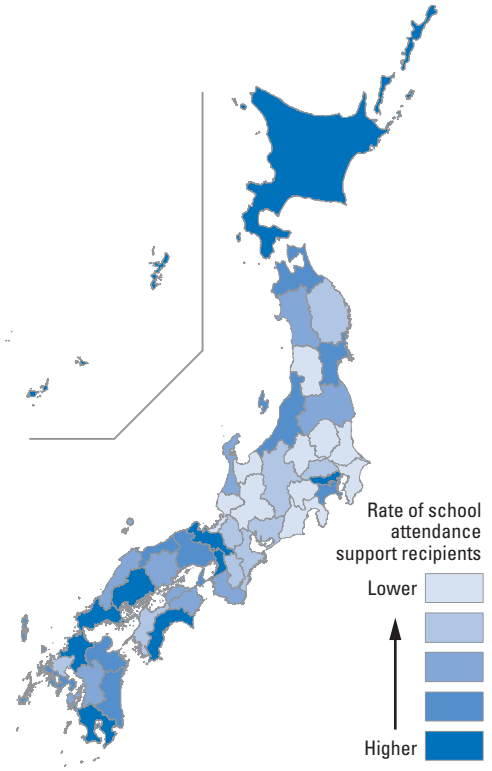
Ranking	Prefecture	People
24th	Mie	12.65
26th	Kagawa	12.84
27th	Tochigi	12.94
28th	Okayama	12.95
29th	Kyoto	12.99
30th	Ibaraki	13.16
31st	Nara	13.21
32nd	Okinawa	13.28
33rd	Gifu	13.31
34th	Gunma	13.43
35th	Toyama	13.64
36th	Shiga	13.73
37th	Osaka	14.06
38th	Hiroshima	14.08
39th	Ishikawa	14.18
40th	Hyogo	14.29
41st	Fukuoka	14.33
42nd	Shizuoka	14.77
43rd	Chiba	14.90
44th	Saitama	15.56
45th	Aichi	15.60
46th	Tokyo	15.83
47th	Kanagawa	15.92



D4 Rate of school attendance support recipients (out of all children/students in public elementary and junior high schools)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Toyama	6.76
2nd	Shizuoka	6.84
3rd	Tochigi	7.06
4th	Gunma	7.18
5th	Ibaraki	7.27
6th	Gifu	7.70
7th	Yamagata	7.80
8th	Fukui	8.27
9th	Chiba	8.78
10th	Yamanashi	9.97
11th	Aichi	10.46
12th	Nagano	11.04
13th	Saga	11.49
14th	Mie	12.11
15th	Ehime	12.19
16th	Nara	12.28
17th	Shiga	12.69
18th	Saitama	13.26
19th	Iwate	13.38
20th	Fukushima	13.41
21st	Akita	13.45
22nd	Ishikawa	13.68
23rd	Kagawa	13.89
24th	Tokushima	14.44

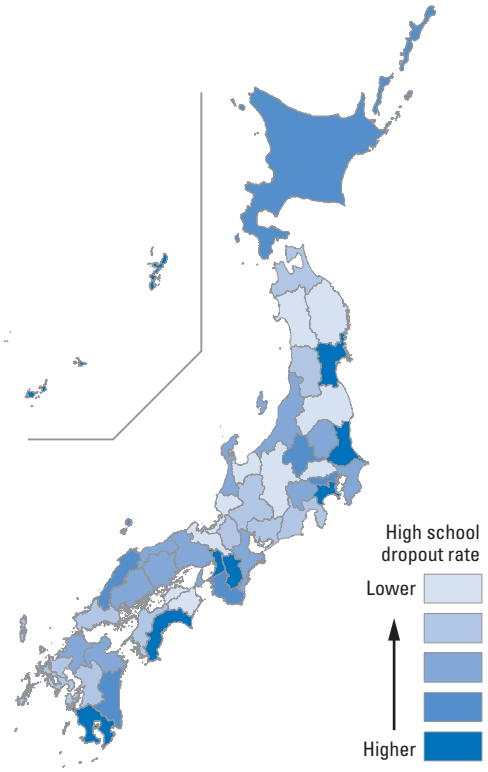
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Kumamoto	14.63
26th	Shimane	14.70
27th	Okayama	14.81
28th	Wakayama	14.95
29th	Tottori	15.11
30th	Miyagi	15.36
31st	Hyogo	15.65
32nd	Kanagawa	15.67
33rd	Miyazaki	16.05
34th	Oita	16.47
35th	Nagasaki	17.58
36th	Aomori	18.71
37th	Niigata	19.01
38th	Kyoto	19.34
39th	Okinawa	20.43
40th	Tokyo	20.52
41st	Hokkaido	21.64
42nd	Hiroshima	21.74
43rd	Kagoshima	21.81
44th	Yamaguchi	22.95
45th	Fukuoka	23.54
46th	Osaka	23.68
47th	Kochi	25.51



D5 High school dropout rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Fukushima	0.7
1st	Tokushima	0.7
3rd	Nagano	0.9
3rd	Iwate	0.9
3rd	Akita	0.9
6th	Toyama	1.0
6th	Fukui	1.0
6th	Saitama	1.0
6th	Kagawa	1.0
6th	Kyoto	1.0
11th	Gifu	1.1
11th	Yamagata	1.1
11th	Aichi	1.1
11th	Ehime	1.1
11th	Kumamoto	1.1
11th	Nagasaki	1.1
11th	Aomori	1.1
11th	Yamaguchi	1.1
19th	Shizuoka	1.2
19th	Saga	1.2
19th	Shiga	1.2
22nd	Chiba	1.3
22nd	Yamanashi	1.3
22nd	Tottori	1.3

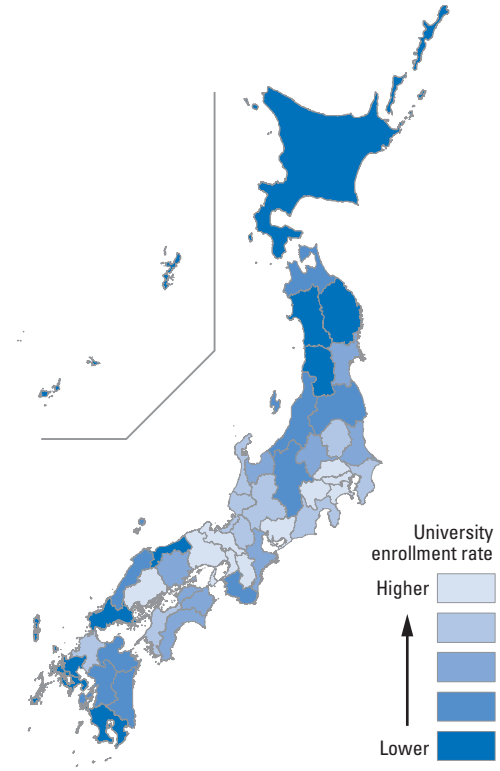
Ranking	Prefecture	%
22nd	Oita	1.3
22nd	Hiroshima	1.3
22nd	Fukuoka	1.3
28th	Tochigi	1.4
28th	Mie	1.4
28th	Ishikawa	1.4
28th	Okayama	1.4
28th	Hyogo	1.4
28th	Niigata	1.4
34th	Gunma	1.5
34th	Shimane	1.5
34th	Wakayama	1.5
34th	Miyazaki	1.5
34th	Tokyo	1.5
34th	Hokkaido	1.5
40th	Nara	1.6
40th	Miyagi	1.6
40th	Kanagawa	1.6
40th	Osaka	1.6
44th	Ibaraki	1.7
45th	Kagoshima	1.8
45th	Kochi	1.8
47th	Okinawa	2.0



D6 University enrollment rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kyoto	65.9
2nd	Tokyo	64.7
3rd	Kanagawa	61.0
4th	Hiroshima	60.6
4th	Hyogo	60.6
6th	Osaka	59.5
7th	Aichi	58.2
7th	Nara	58.2
9th	Yamanashi	57.2
9th	Saitama	57.2
11th	Fukui	56.8
12th	Chiba	55.7
13th	Gifu	55.5
14th	Ishikawa	55.1
15th	Shiga	54.6
16th	Ehime	53.7
17th	Fukuoka	53.5
18th	Shizuoka	53.0
19th	Tochigi	52.5
20th	Kagawa	52.2
21st	Tokushima	52.0
22nd	Gunma	51.9
22nd	Toyama	51.9
24th	Okayama	51.0

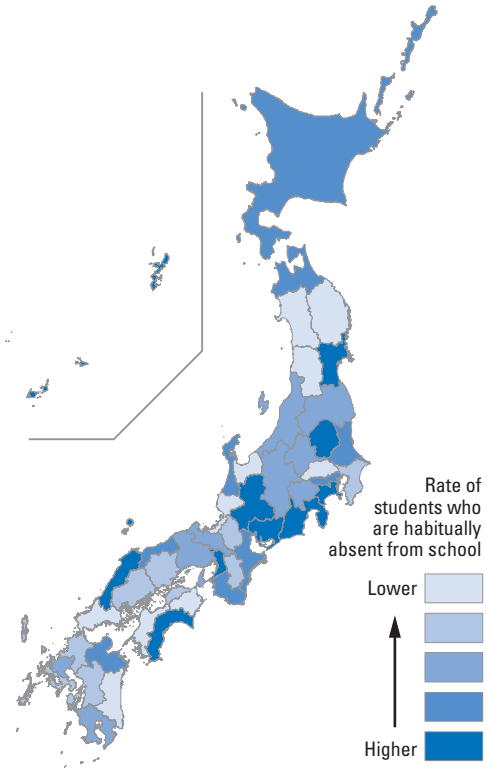
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Ibaraki	50.6
25th	Mie	50.6
27th	Kochi	49.3
27th	Miyagi	49.3
29th	Oita	47.9
30th	Wakayama	47.8
31st	Nagano	47.7
32nd	Aomori	46.9
33rd	Kumamoto	46.8
34th	Shimane	46.7
35th	Niigata	46.4
36th	Fukushima	46.3
37th	Miyazaki	46.0
38th	Hokkaido	45.5
39th	Akita	45.3
39th	Yamagata	45.3
41st	Nagasaki	45.0
42nd	Saga	44.7
43rd	Iwate	44.6
44th	Kagoshima	44.2
45th	Yamaguchi	44.1
46th	Tottori	43.8
47th	Okinawa	39.7



D7 Rate of students who are habitually absent from school (School truancy rate)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Akita	0.915
2nd	Tokushima	0.958
3rd	Toyama	0.977
4th	Saitama	1.024
5th	Fukui	1.026
6th	Iwate	1.107
7th	Yamagata	1.108
8th	Miyazaki	1.130
9th	Yamaguchi	1.136
10th	Ehime	1.144
11th	Nara	1.171
12th	Okayama	1.193
13th	Chiba	1.196
14th	Hiroshima	1.211
15th	Kumamoto	1.228
16th	Nagasaki	1.238
17th	Kagawa	1.239
18th	Fukuoka	1.258
19th	Shiga	1.266
20th	Niigata	1.268
21st	Fukushima	1.270
22nd	Kagoshima	1.280
23rd	Hyogo	1.287
24th	Nagano	1.290

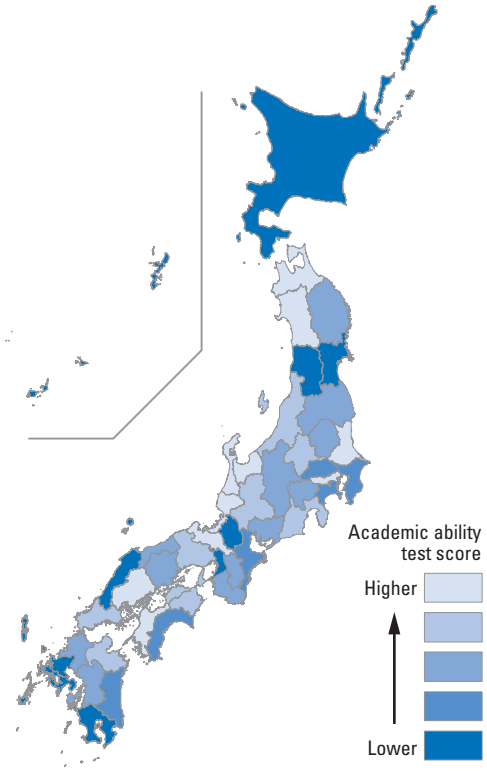
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Yamanashi	1.294
26th	Gunma	1.310
27th	Saga	1.313
28th	Kyoto	1.316
29th	Hokkaido	1.320
30th	Wakayama	1.327
31st	Aomori	1.332
32nd	Oita	1.351
33rd	Ishikawa	1.373
34th	Tottori	1.378
35th	Tokyo	1.382
36th	Ibaraki	1.387
37th	Mie	1.413
38th	Gifu	1.432
39th	Shimane	1.466
40th	Tochigi	1.528
41st	Osaka	1.544
42nd	Kanagawa	1.556
43rd	Shizuoka	1.575
44th	Aichi	1.588
45th	Okinawa	1.618
46th	Kochi	1.685
47th	Miyagi	1.759



D8 Academic ability test score

Ranking	Prefecture	Score
1st	Ishikawa	70.250
2nd	Akita	69.750
3rd	Fukui	69.625
4th	Toyama	67.500
5th	Ehime	67.375
6th	Tokyo	66.875
7th	Aomori	66.375
8th	Hiroshima	66.125
8th	Kyoto	66.125
10th	Ibaraki	66.000
11th	Niigata	65.750
11th	Shizuoka	65.750
13th	Yamaguchi	65.625
13th	Kagawa	65.625
15th	Hyogo	65.500
15th	Oita	65.500
17th	Gunma	65.375
17th	Gifu	65.375
19th	Tokushima	65.125
20th	Fukushima	64.875
21st	Iwate	64.750
21st	Nagano	64.750
21st	Tochigi	64.750
21st	Aichi	64.750

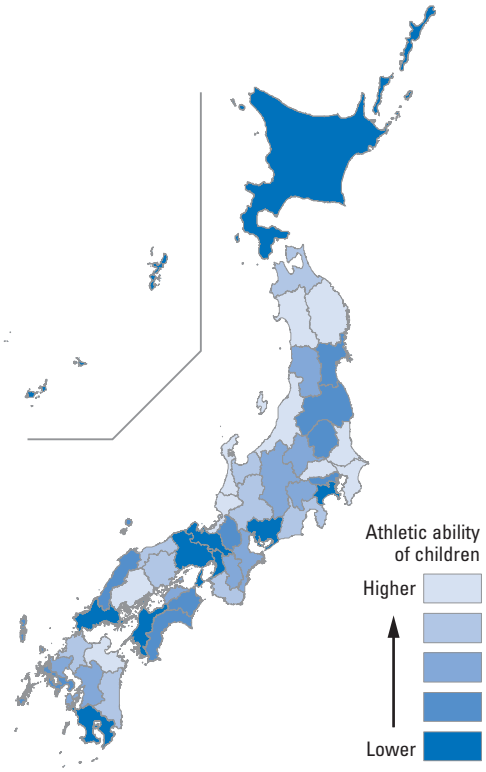
Ranking	Prefecture	Score
25th	Okayama	64.625
25th	Kumamoto	64.625
25th	Wakayama	64.625
28th	Nara	64.500
28th	Fukuoka	64.500
28th	Yamanashi	64.500
28th	Tottori	64.500
32nd	Miyazaki	64.375
33rd	Kanagawa	64.250
34th	Chiba	64.125
34th	Mie	64.125
36th	Saitama	64.000
36th	Kochi	64.000
38th	Yamagata	63.875
38th	Nagasaki	63.875
38th	Hokkaido	63.875
38th	Miyagi	63.875
42nd	Saga	63.750
42nd	Shimane	63.750
44th	Kagoshima	63.250
45th	Shiga	62.875
45th	Osaka	62.875
47th	Okinawa	62.000



D9 Athletic ability of children (average national sport test score)

Ranking	Prefecture	Score
1st	Fukui	54.53
2nd	Ibaraki	54.08
3rd	Saitama	53.22
4th	Ishikawa	53.21
5th	Niigata	53.15
6th	Akita	52.62
7th	Hiroshima	52.51
8th	Oita	52.32
9th	Iwate	52.08
10th	Chiba	51.97
11th	Miyazaki	51.38
12th	Toyama	51.32
13th	Shizuoka	51.14
14th	Fukuoka	51.11
15th	Gifu	50.94
16th	Okayama	50.90
17th	Wakayama	50.81
18th	Tottori	50.78
19th	Aomori	50.71
19th	Yamagata	50.71
21st	Saga	50.65
22nd	Gunma	50.60
23rd	Nagano	50.44
24th	Nara	50.41

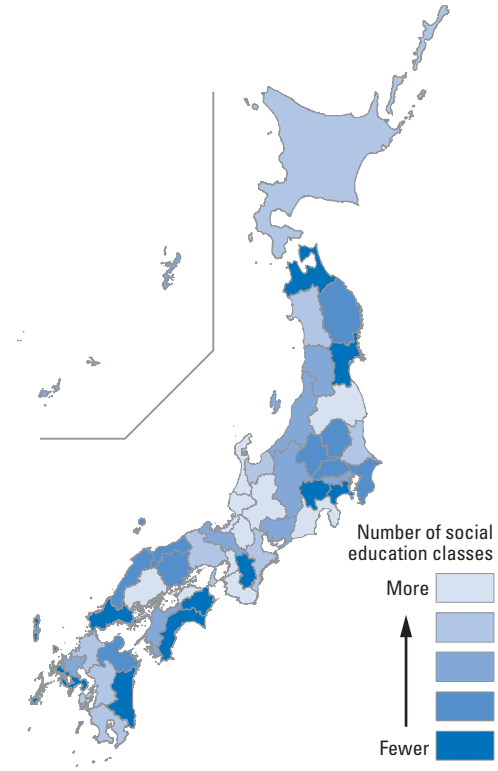
Ranking	Prefecture	Score
25th	Kagawa	50.40
26th	Yamanashi	50.38
26th	Kumamoto	50.38
28th	Mie	50.34
29th	Fukushima	50.29
30th	Kochi	50.26
31st	Tochigi	50.20
31st	Shiga	50.20
33rd	Shimane	50.10
34th	Nagasaki	50.09
35th	Tokyo	50.08
36th	Tokushima	49.94
37th	Miyagi	49.83
38th	Ehime	49.79
39th	Kyoto	49.70
40th	Kagoshima	49.53
41st	Yamaguchi	49.52
42nd	Okinawa	49.35
43rd	Hyogo	49.16
44th	Osaka	48.94
45th	Aichi	48.72
45th	Hokkaido	48.72
47th	Kanagawa	48.47



D10 Number of social education classes

Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
1st	Fukui	59.1
2nd	Ishikawa	54.1
3rd	Shiga	44.7
4th	Hiroshima	42.3
5th	Shizuoka	36.6
6th	Osaka	35.5
7th	Wakayama	30.2
8th	Fukushima	27.2
9th	Kagawa	26.6
10th	Gifu	26.5
11th	Toyama	25.1
12th	Mie	21.7
13th	Ibaraki	20.6
14th	Kagoshima	19.0
15th	Hokkaido	18.0
16th	Akita	17.7
17th	Kumamoto	15.8
18th	Fukuoka	15.1
19th	Hyogo	14.6
20th	Yamagata	13.5
21st	Nagano	13.0
22nd	Tokyo	12.6
23rd	Kyoto	12.4
24th	Ehime	11.5

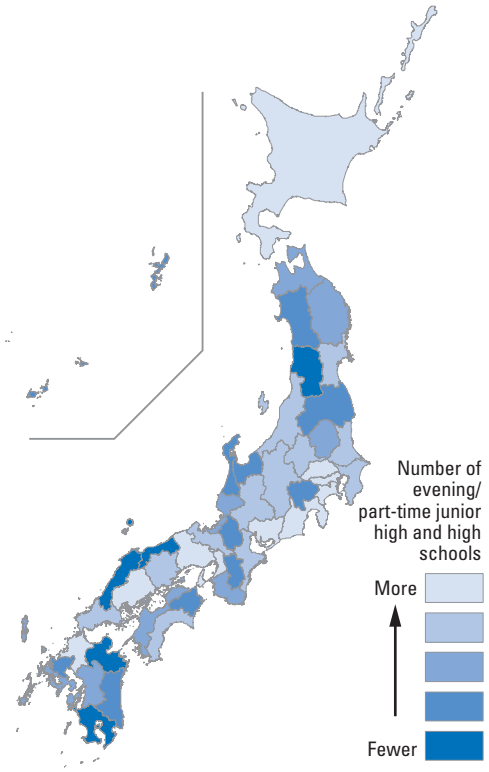
Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
25th	Aichi	10.6
26th	Saga	10.2
27th	Niigata	9.0
28th	Okinawa	8.9
29th	Gunma	8.0
30th	Shimane	7.2
31st	Chiba	6.7
32nd	Tochigi	6.6
33rd	Oita	6.2
34th	Tottori	5.4
35th	Iwate	4.0
36th	Okayama	3.9
37th	Saitama	3.1
38th	Miyagi	2.1
39th	Kochi	1.9
40th	Yamanashi	1.8
40th	Yamaguchi	1.8
42nd	Tokushima	1.7
42nd	Kanagawa	1.7
44th	Aomori	1.1
45th	Nara	1.0
46th	Miyazaki	0.0
46th	Nagasaki	0.0



D11 Number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools

Ranking	Prefecture	Schools
1st	Tokyo	74
2nd	Hokkaido	41
3rd	Aichi	33
4th	Kanagawa	28
5th	Saitama	24
6th	Hiroshima	23
6th	Hyogo	23
8th	Fukuoka	22
9th	Shizuoka	21
9th	Osaka	21
11th	Nagano	19
12th	Chiba	17
13th	Yamaguchi	15
14th	Gunma	14
14th	Kochi	14
16th	Kyoto	13
16th	Miyagi	13
18th	Ibaraki	12
19th	Gifu	11
19th	Mie	11
19th	Niigata	11
19th	Okayama	11
23rd	Wakayama	10
23rd	Ehime	10

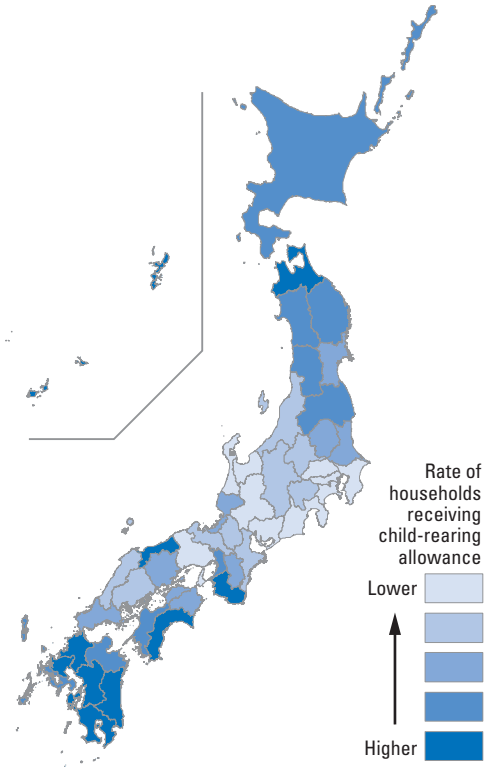
Ranking	Prefecture	Schools
25th	Kagawa	9
25th	Iwate	9
25th	Aomori	9
28th	Fukui	8
28th	Kumamoto	8
28th	Tochigi	8
28th	Nagasaki	8
32nd	Shiga	7
32nd	Fukushima	7
32nd	Okinawa	7
32nd	Yamanashi	7
32nd	Nara	7
37th	Ishikawa	6
37th	Toyama	6
37th	Akita	6
37th	Saga	6
37th	Tokushima	6
37th	Miyazaki	6
43rd	Yamagata	5
44th	Oita	4
44th	Tottori	4
46th	Shimane	3
47th	Kagoshima	2



E1 Rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance (out of all households)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	1.23
2nd	Kanagawa	1.34
3rd	Chiba	1.46
4th	Toyama	1.55
5th	Saitama	1.58
6th	Aichi	1.65
7th	Shizuoka	1.66
8th	Ishikawa	1.70
9th	Gifu	1.82
9th	Hyogo	1.82
11th	Hiroshima	1.86
12th	Niigata	1.87
12th	Shiga	1.87
14th	Mie	1.88
15th	Nagano	1.91
16th	Gunma	1.93
16th	Yamanashi	1.93
18th	Shimane	1.95
18th	Kyoto	1.95
20th	Yamaguchi	1.97
20th	Tochigi	1.97
22nd	Fukui	1.98
23rd	Okayama	2.02
24th	Nara	2.05

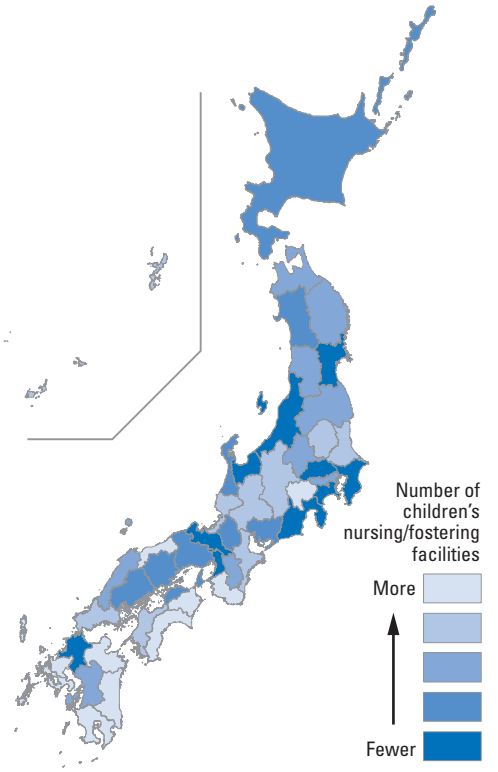
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Tokushima	2.07
26th	Ibaraki	2.09
27th	Miyagi	2.10
28th	Kagawa	2.18
29th	Akita	2.20
30th	Hokkaido	2.21
31st	Oita	2.23
31st	Yamagata	2.23
33rd	Osaka	2.24
34th	Ehime	2.28
35th	Iwate	2.33
36th	Fukushima	2.38
37th	Nagasaki	2.39
38th	Kagoshima	2.40
39th	Tottori	2.45
40th	Kochi	2.46
41st	Fukuoka	2.47
42nd	Wakayama	2.48
43rd	Kumamoto	2.62
44th	Saga	2.80
45th	Aomori	2.84
46th	Miyazaki	2.91
47th	Okinawa	3.96



E2 Number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Facilities
1st	Kochi	1.074
2nd	Tokushima	0.909
3rd	Tottori	0.866
4th	Kagoshima	0.834
5th	Yamanashi	0.826
6th	Wakayama	0.817
7th	Miyazaki	0.803
8th	Nagasaki	0.788
9th	Oita	0.764
10th	Saga	0.715
11th	Ehime	0.712
12th	Nagano	0.707
13th	Yamaguchi	0.704
14th	Mie	0.655
15th	Fukui	0.629
16th	Ibaraki	0.614
17th	Okinawa	0.565
18th	Tochigi	0.554
19th	Gifu	0.487
20th	Iwate	0.463
21st	Aomori	0.449
22nd	Kumamoto	0.444
22nd	Tokyo	0.444
24th	Yamagata	0.438

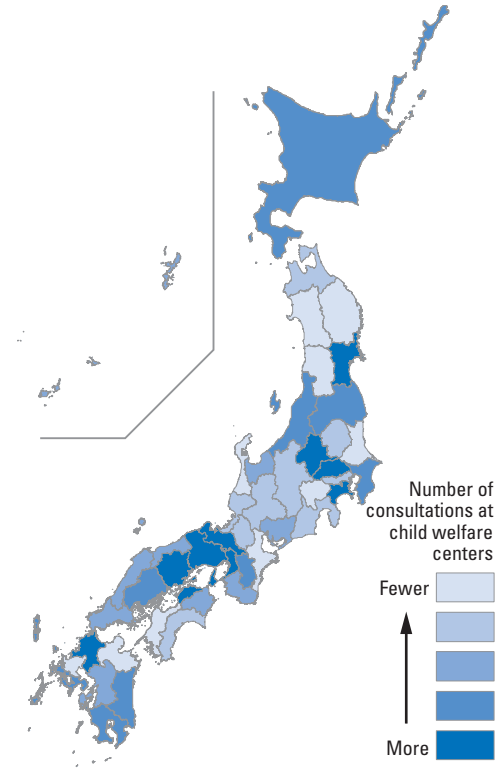
Ranking	Prefecture	Facilities
25th	Nara	0.434
26th	Shimane	0.427
27th	Fukushima	0.411
28th	Gunma	0.403
29th	Akita	0.381
30th	Okayama	0.363
31st	Ishikawa	0.345
32nd	Hokkaido	0.331
33rd	Hiroshima	0.317
34th	Hyogo	0.306
35th	Kagawa	0.304
36th	Shiga	0.282
36th	Aichi	0.282
38th	Toyama	0.279
39th	Saitama	0.277
40th	Chiba	0.275
41st	Osaka	0.271
42nd	Kyoto	0.229
43rd	Fukuoka	0.216
44th	Shizuoka	0.215
45th	Niigata	0.172
46th	Kanagawa	0.165
47th	Miyagi	0.043



E3 Number of consultations at child welfare centers (per 1,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Oita	1.220
2nd	Ibaraki	1.827
3rd	Saga	1.897
4th	Yamagata	1.907
5th	Ishikawa	2.126
6th	Iwate	2.195
7th	Mie	2.239
8th	Yamanashi	2.370
9th	Akita	2.387
10th	Ehime	2.470
11th	Nagano	2.535
12th	Shizuoka	2.567
13th	Kochi	2.636
14th	Tokyo	2.770
15th	Aomori	2.839
16th	Tochigi	2.866
16th	Fukui	2.866
18th	Gifu	2.938
18th	Shiga	2.938
20th	Tokushima	2.955
21st	Tottori	3.105
22nd	Aichi	3.116
23rd	Okinawa	3.119
24th	Shimane	3.204

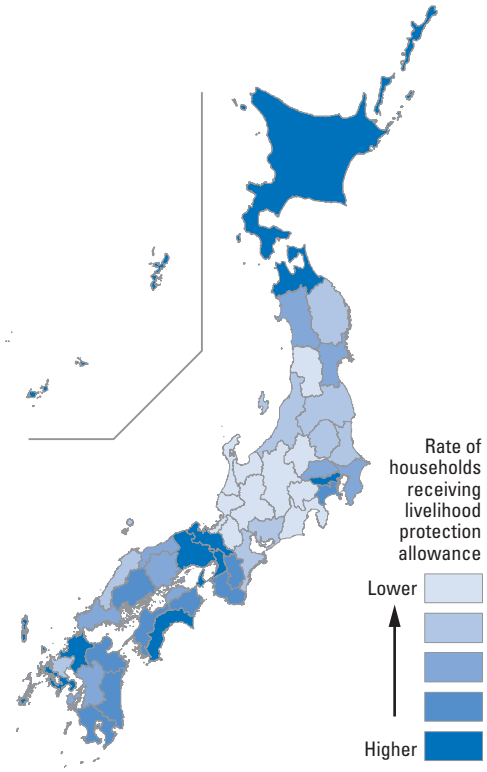
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Toyama	3.259
26th	Yamaguchi	3.294
27th	Wakayama	3.331
28th	Kumamoto	3.406
29th	Hiroshima	3.532
30th	Hokkaido	3.556
31st	Fukushima	3.628
32nd	Miyazaki	3.629
33rd	Chiba	3.721
34th	Nara	3.825
35th	Niigata	3.845
36th	Kagoshima	3.847
37th	Nagasaki	3.852
38th	Okayama	3.885
39th	Saitama	4.029
40th	Kanagawa	4.107
41st	Hyogo	4.152
42nd	Fukuoka	4.545
43rd	Gunma	5.073
44th	Kagawa	5.162
45th	Osaka	5.763
46th	Kyoto	5.778
47th	Miyagi	6.391



E4 Rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Toyama	0.330
2nd	Fukui	0.509
3rd	Nagano	0.518
4th	Gifu	0.566
5th	Ishikawa	0.628
6th	Yamagata	0.696
7th	Gunma	0.746
8th	Shiga	0.786
9th	Shizuoka	0.821
10th	Yamanashi	0.822
11th	Shimane	0.839
12th	Mie	0.864
13th	Fukushima	0.885
14th	Niigata	0.915
15th	Ibaraki	0.932
16th	Saga	0.934
17th	Aichi	1.020
18th	Iwate	1.042
19th	Tochigi	1.043
20th	Kagawa	1.051
21st	Yamaguchi	1.081
22nd	Miyagi	1.235
23rd	Tottori	1.257
24th	Saitama	1.312

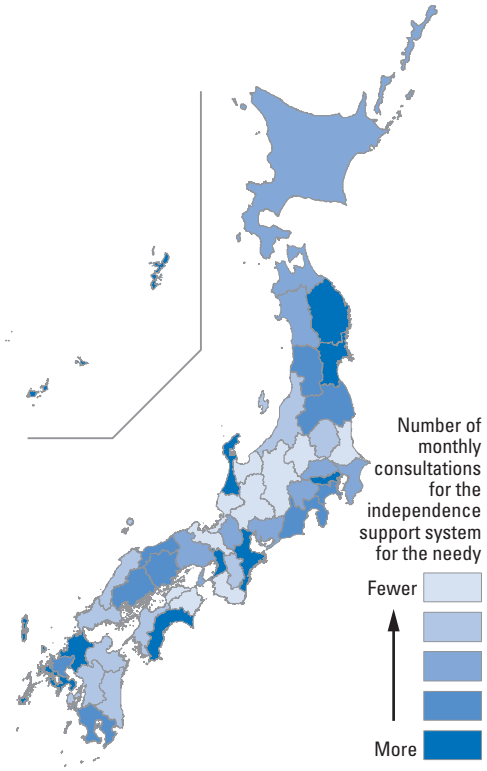
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Okayama	1.322
26th	Chiba	1.347
27th	Kumamoto	1.383
28th	Akita	1.429
29th	Nara	1.472
30th	Hiroshima	1.501
31st	Ehime	1.530
32nd	Wakayama	1.566
33rd	Miyazaki	1.598
34th	Oita	1.679
35th	Kanagawa	1.685
36th	Tokushima	1.784
37th	Kagoshima	1.831
38th	Hyogo	1.868
39th	Nagasaki	2.066
40th	Tokyo	2.110
41st	Kyoto	2.261
42nd	Aomori	2.275
43rd	Fukuoka	2.452
44th	Okinawa	2.498
45th	Kochi	2.624
46th	Hokkaido	3.026
47th	Osaka	3.214



E5 Number of monthly consultations for the independence support system for the needy (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Nagano	3.563
2nd	Fukui	7.925
3rd	Ibaraki	8.181
4th	Kyoto	8.492
5th	Toyama	8.883
6th	Gifu	9.707
7th	Gunma	10.056
8th	Kagawa	10.857
9th	Tokushima	11.014
10th	Wakayama	11.256
11th	Shimane	11.284
12th	Niigata	11.419
13th	Tochigi	11.532
14th	Nara	11.610
15th	Kumamoto	11.649
16th	Oita	11.925
17th	Miyazaki	12.537
18th	Ehime	12.557
19th	Yamaguchi	12.582
20th	Shiga	12.697
21st	Akita	13.185
22nd	Chiba	13.255
23rd	Saitama	13.365
24th	Hokkaido	13.398

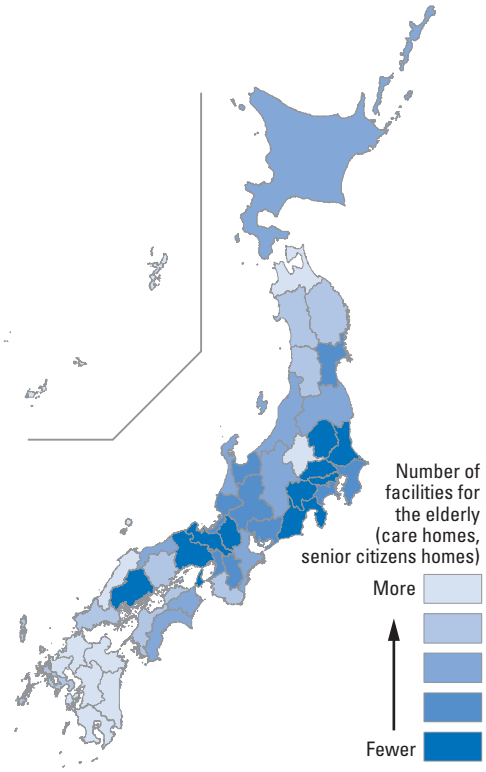
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Hyogo	13.459
26th	Aichi	13.538
27th	Aomori	13.563
28th	Yamanashi	13.590
29th	Kagoshima	13.608
30th	Shizuoka	14.051
31st	Fukushima	14.312
32nd	Okayama	14.405
33rd	Yamagata	14.484
34th	Tottori	14.847
35th	Kanagawa	15.286
36th	Saga	15.351
37th	Hiroshima	15.808
38th	Tokyo	16.016
39th	Mie	16.187
40th	Iwate	16.208
41st	Fukuoka	16.916
42nd	Nagasaki	20.528
43rd	Miyagi	20.721
44th	Ishikawa	22.572
45th	Okinawa	23.705
46th	Kochi	24.668
47th	Osaka	29.397



E6 Number of facilities for the elderly (care homes, senior citizens homes) (per 100,000 population aged 65 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	Facilities
1st	Miyazaki	143.0
2nd	Okinawa	108.5
3rd	Oita	105.8
4th	Kumamoto	102.4
5th	Aomori	102.3
6th	Saga	102.0
7th	Kagoshima	96.1
8th	Gunma	85.2
9th	Shimane	84.9
10th	Fukuoka	81.2
11th	Kagawa	75.8
12th	Nagasaki	75.6
13th	Yamagata	74.1
14th	Okayama	74.0
15th	Wakayama	73.9
16th	Yamaguchi	72.8
17th	Iwate	71.9
18th	Ehime	70.5
19th	Akita	68.7
20th	Tottori	66.8
21st	Mie	66.7
22nd	Tokushima	65.4
23rd	Nagano	64.7
24th	Hokkaido	59.9

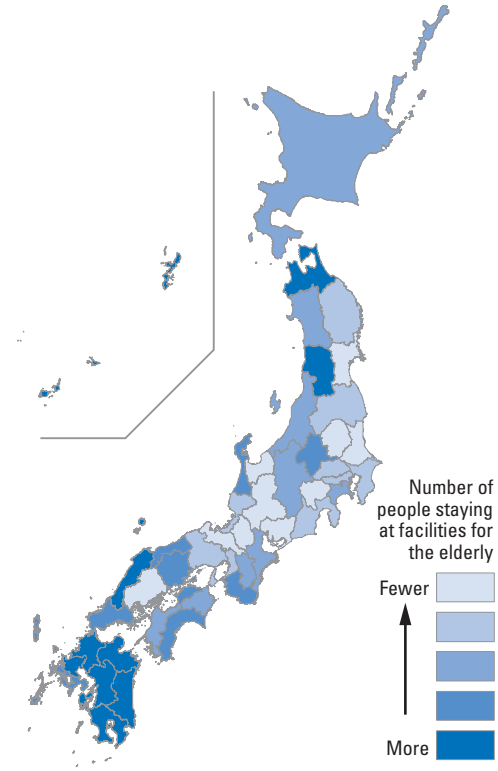
Ranking	Prefecture	Facilities
25th	Kochi	54.8
26th	Fukushima	54.4
27th	Niigata	53.4
28th	Ishikawa	53.0
29th	Nara	52.5
30th	Toyama	52.0
30th	Gifu	52.0
32nd	Aichi	50.0
33rd	Fukui	49.5
34th	Osaka	49.2
35th	Miyagi	49.0
36th	Chiba	47.9
37th	Kanagawa	47.5
38th	Ibaraki	46.9
39th	Hiroshima	46.1
40th	Shizuoka	45.9
41st	Saitama	44.7
42nd	Tochigi	44.5
43rd	Hyogo	41.5
44th	Yamanashi	39.2
45th	Tokyo	39.1
46th	Kyoto	38.0
47th	Shiga	34.9



E7 Number of people staying at facilities for the elderly (per 1,000 population aged 65 and over)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tochigi	19.3
2nd	Shiga	19.4
3rd	Yamanashi	20.0
4th	Miyagi	22.0
5th	Kyoto	22.3
6th	Hiroshima	22.8
7th	Ibaraki	23.2
8th	Aichi	23.3
9th	Gifu	23.4
10th	Toyama	24.3
11th	Chiba	24.8
12th	Tokyo	24.9
13th	Hyogo	25.0
14th	Osaka	25.1
15th	Shizuoka	25.4
16th	Saitama	25.7
17th	Fukushima	26.0
18th	Iwate	26.1
19th	Fukui	26.9
20th	Mie	27.8
20th	Nara	27.8
22nd	Ehime	27.9
22nd	Akita	27.9
24th	Tokushima	28.4

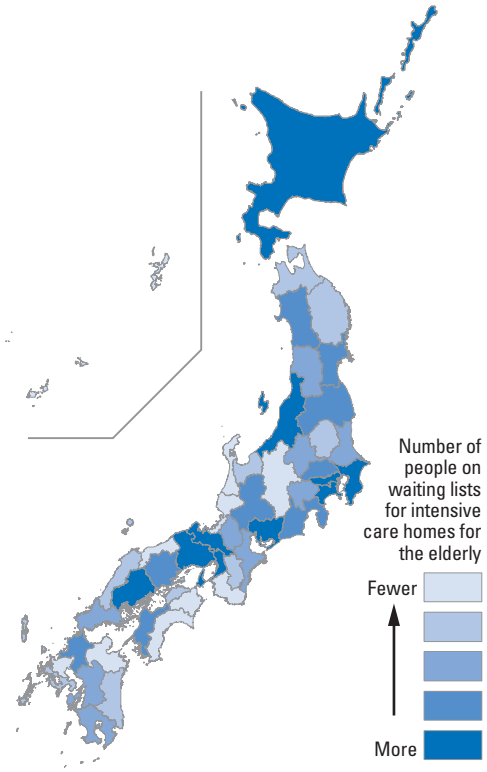
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Kanagawa	28.8
26th	Hokkaido	29.0
27th	Niigata	29.1
28th	Nagano	29.2
29th	Wakayama	29.4
30th	Nagasaki	29.9
31st	Kochi	30.1
32nd	Yamaguchi	30.9
33rd	Gunma	31.6
34th	Okayama	31.7
34th	Tottori	31.7
36th	Kagawa	32.1
36th	Ishikawa	32.1
38th	Okinawa	32.2
39th	Kumamoto	32.6
40th	Yamagata	33.2
41st	Kagoshima	34.9
41st	Fukuoka	34.9
43rd	Aomori	35.3
44th	Shimane	35.8
45th	Saga	35.9
46th	Oita	38.6
47th	Miyazaki	43.9



E8 Number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly (among those certified as long-term care levels 3-5)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokushima	1,161
2nd	Saga	2,083
3rd	Tottori	2,084
4th	Ishikawa	2,244
5th	Fukui	2,292
6th	Nagano	2,343
7th	Kochi	2,584
8th	Okinawa	2,587
9th	Wakayama	2,603
10th	Oita	2,795
11th	Nagasaki	2,846
12th	Nara	3,187
13th	Toyama	3,234
14th	Shimane	3,354
15th	Kagawa	3,392
16th	Tochigi	3,399
17th	Aomori	3,480
18th	Miyazaki	3,575
19th	Iwate	4,406
20th	Yamagata	4,632
21st	Kumamoto	4,666
22nd	Yamanashi	4,860
23rd	Shiga	4,905
24th	Gunma	4,959

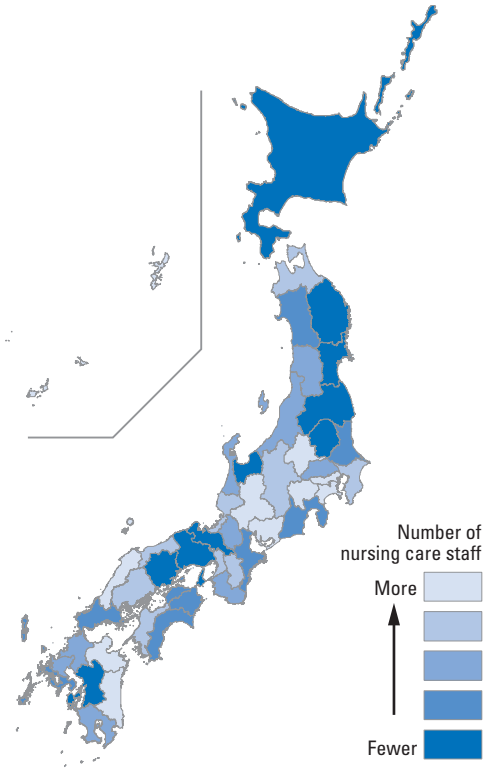
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Yamaguchi	5,001
26th	Ibaraki	5,059
27th	Kagoshima	5,100
28th	Mie	5,359
29th	Ehime	6,385
30th	Fukuoka	6,468
31st	Miyagi	6,652
32nd	Gifu	6,737
33rd	Akita	6,748
34th	Shizuoka	6,749
35th	Okayama	6,918
36th	Saitama	7,951
37th	Fukushima	8,494
38th	Kyoto	8,755
39th	Hiroshima	9,968
40th	Aichi	10,006
41st	Chiba	10,165
42nd	Niigata	11,070
43rd	Osaka	12,048
44th	Hokkaido	12,774
45th	Hyogo	14,983
46th	Kanagawa	16,691
47th	Tokyo	24,815



E9 Number of nursing care staff (per person certified as needing long-term care/support)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kanagawa	0.359
2nd	Oita	0.346
3rd	Gunma	0.342
4th	Okinawa	0.338
5th	Miyazaki	0.335
6th	Yamanashi	0.329
7th	Aichi	0.321
8th	Gifu	0.316
8th	Shimane	0.316
10th	Tokyo	0.313
11th	Tottori	0.311
12th	Aomori	0.309
12th	Nagano	0.309
14th	Nara	0.307
15th	Osaka	0.306
16th	Chiba	0.304
16th	Fukui	0.304
16th	Hiroshima	0.304
19th	Ehime	0.303
20th	Saga	0.301
21st	Ishikawa	0.300
22nd	Fukuoka	0.299
22nd	Kagoshima	0.299
24th	Wakayama	0.298

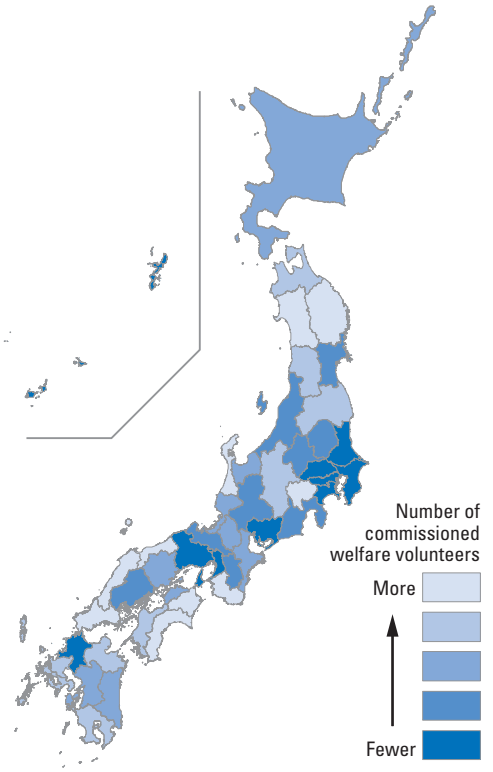
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Saitama	0.298
26th	Yamagata	0.294
27th	Shiga	0.292
27th	Niigata	0.292
29th	Yamaguchi	0.288
29th	Nagasaki	0.288
31st	Shizuoka	0.287
32nd	Tokushima	0.284
32nd	Ibaraki	0.284
32nd	Kagawa	0.284
32nd	Mie	0.284
36th	Akita	0.283
37th	Kochi	0.282
37th	Hokkaido	0.282
39th	Hyogo	0.281
40th	Tochigi	0.280
40th	Toyama	0.280
42nd	Okayama	0.278
42nd	Miyagi	0.278
44th	Kumamoto	0.273
45th	Fukushima	0.269
46th	Iwate	0.267
47th	Kyoto	0.251



E10 Number of commissioned welfare volunteers (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Kochi	331.5
2nd	Akita	326.6
3rd	Shimane	324.9
4th	Yamanashi	301.7
5th	Tottori	289.7
6th	Iwate	288.5
7th	Wakayama	278.0
8th	Yamaguchi	265.6
9th	Tokushima	264.2
10th	Ishikawa	262.6
11th	Ehime	262.0
12th	Nagasaki	259.3
13th	Yamagata	255.3
14th	Aomori	254.1
15th	Saga	252.8
16th	Kagoshima	252.0
17th	Nagano	249.8
18th	Oita	249.7
19th	Fukushima	248.1
20th	Toyama	236.4
21st	Hokkaido	234.7
22nd	Fukui	231.8
23rd	Miyazaki	231.3
24th	Kumamoto	228.1

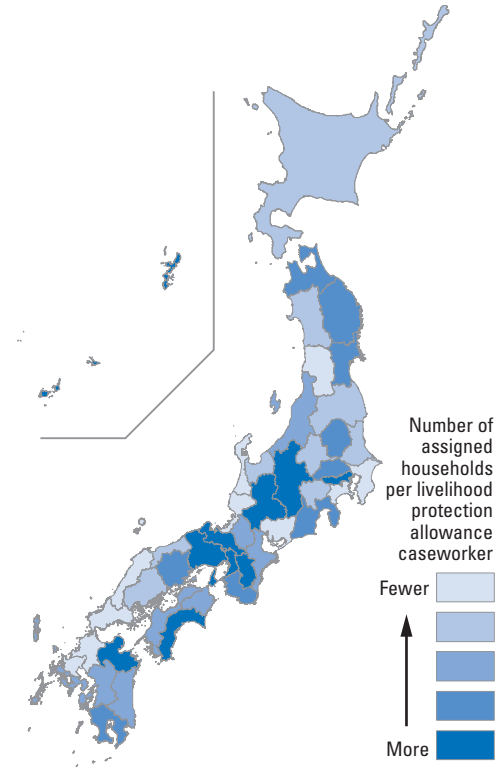
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Shiga	226.9
26th	Mie	224.6
27th	Okayama	223.7
28th	Kagawa	222.1
29th	Gifu	219.6
30th	Nara	218.6
31st	Kyoto	210.2
32nd	Niigata	208.3
33rd	Hiroshima	207.1
34th	Gunma	207.0
35th	Tochigi	195.0
36th	Miyagi	190.5
37th	Shizuoka	182.6
38th	Hyogo	179.5
39th	Ibaraki	178.7
40th	Fukuoka	173.2
41st	Aichi	154.4
42nd	Osaka	148.3
43rd	Okinawa	147.3
44th	Saitama	145.8
45th	Chiba	140.9
46th	Kanagawa	124.8
47th	Tokyo	75.4



E11 Number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker

Ranking	Prefecture	Households
1st	Aichi	47.721
2nd	Ishikawa	54.084
3rd	Shimane	58.263
4th	Fukui	61.460
5th	Yamagata	67.109
6th	Chiba	70.755
7th	Fukuoka	71.689
8th	Saga	72.596
9th	Yamaguchi	73.988
10th	Kanagawa	74.227
11th	Tottori	75.413
12th	Toyama	76.356
13th	Hokkaido	76.565
14th	Yamanashi	77.337
15th	Akita	77.720
16th	Fukushima	77.750
17th	Hiroshima	78.209
18th	Ibaraki	78.541
19th	Gunma	78.658
20th	Shiga	78.867
21st	Mie	78.884
22nd	Niigata	80.824
23rd	Tokushima	82.481
24th	Nagasaki	82.502

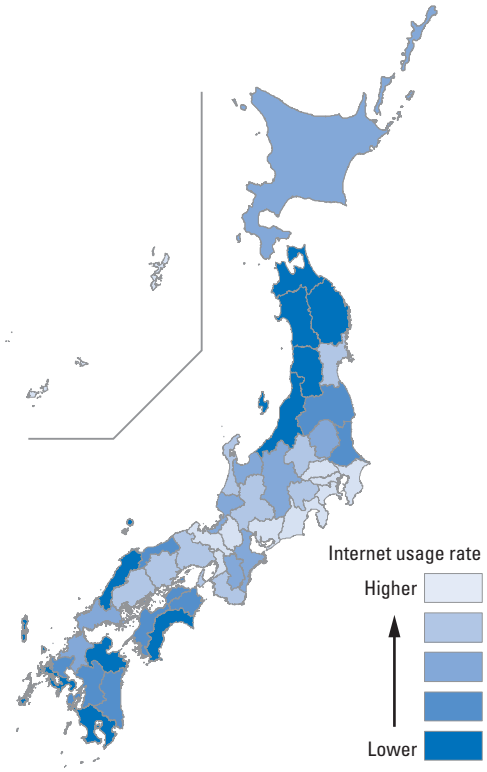
Ranking	Prefecture	Households
25th	Kumamoto	82.708
26th	Kagawa	83.020
27th	Ehime	84.062
28th	Miyazaki	85.243
29th	Shizuoka	86.081
30th	Saitama	87.210
31st	Iwate	87.383
32nd	Kagoshima	88.849
33rd	Okayama	89.009
34th	Miyagi	91.511
35th	Wakayama	92.358
36th	Aomori	93.353
37th	Tochigi	93.374
38th	Tokyo	93.528
39th	Kochi	93.744
40th	Oita	94.351
41st	Hyogo	102.607
42nd	Nagano	104.250
43rd	Nara	112.410
44th	Okinawa	113.690
45th	Gifu	136.141
46th	Osaka	256.127
47th	Kyoto	321.170



F1 Internet usage rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	87.7
2nd	Saitama	85.7
3rd	Kyoto	85.5
4th	Kanagawa	85.4
5th	Aichi	84.5
6th	Osaka	82.9
7th	Shiga	82.3
8th	Chiba	82.2
9th	Shizuoka	81.7
10th	Okinawa	81.3
11th	Hiroshima	80.8
12th	Yamanashi	80.3
12th	Gifu	80.3
14th	Gunma	80.0
15th	Ishikawa	79.9
15th	Okayama	79.9
17th	Miyagi	79.7
17th	Wakayama	79.7
19th	Hyogo	79.6
20th	Mie	79.5
21st	Tochigi	79.3
21st	Yamaguchi	79.3
23rd	Fukuoka	79.0
24th	Fukui	78.9

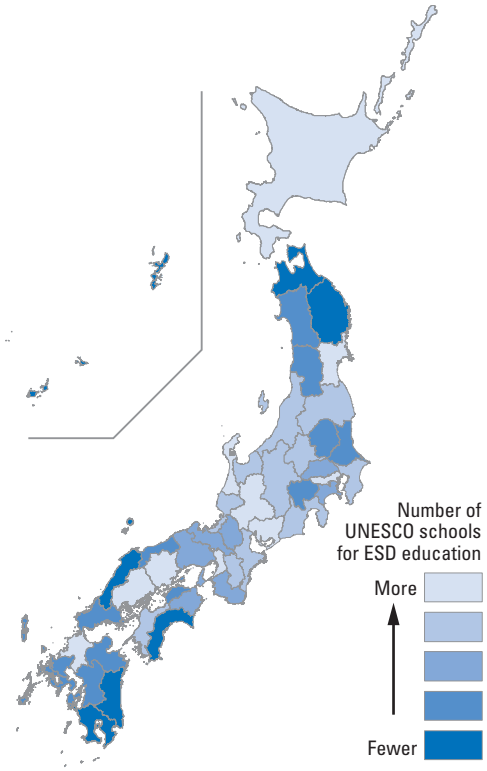
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Nara	78.9
26th	Nagano	77.9
27th	Hokkaido	77.7
28th	Toyama	77.5
29th	Saga	77.1
30th	Fukushima	76.4
30th	Ehime	76.4
32nd	Tokushima	76.1
32nd	Kagawa	76.1
34th	Kumamoto	75.4
35th	Miyazaki	75.1
36th	Ibaraki	74.8
37th	Tottori	73.4
38th	Oita	73.0
39th	Shimane	72.9
40th	Yamagata	72.6
41st	Aomori	72.5
42nd	Niigata	72.2
42nd	Nagasaki	72.2
44th	Kochi	71.8
45th	Akita	71.5
46th	Iwate	70.5
47th	Kagoshima	67.9



F2 Number of UNESCO schools for ESD education

Ranking	Prefecture	Schools
1st	Aichi	163
2nd	Tokyo	96
3rd	Ishikawa	89
3rd	Miyagi	89
5th	Okayama	65
6th	Hiroshima	59
7th	Fukuoka	49
7th	Hokkaido	49
9th	Gifu	48
10th	Osaka	44
11th	Nara	40
12th	Niigata	31
13th	Ehime	28
14th	Chiba	26
15th	Gunma	21
16th	Fukui	16
16th	Nagano	16
18th	Shizuoka	15
19th	Mie	14
19th	Toyama	14
19th	Fukushima	14
22nd	Kyoto	13
23rd	Saitama	10
23rd	Kanagawa	10

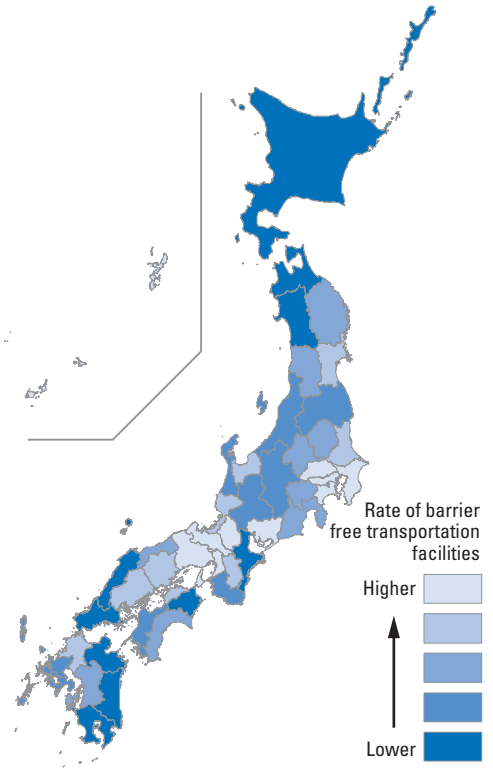
Ranking	Prefecture	Schools
23rd	Wakayama	10
23rd	Hyogo	10
27th	Tokushima	9
28th	Shiga	8
29th	Yamaguchi	6
30th	Yamanashi	5
30th	Ibaraki	5
30th	Oita	5
30th	Yamagata	5
34th	Tochigi	4
34th	Kagawa	4
36th	Saga	3
36th	Kumamoto	3
36th	Tottori	3
36th	Nagasaki	3
36th	Akita	3
41st	Okinawa	2
41st	Miyazaki	2
41st	Shimane	2
41st	Kochi	2
45th	Aomori	1
45th	Iwate	1
45th	Kagoshima	1



F3 Rate of barrier free transportation facilities (at train stations)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Okinawa	100.0
2nd	Kanagawa	87.1
3rd	Tokyo	86.9
4th	Osaka	80.5
5th	Saitama	76.5
6th	Aichi	70.3
7th	Chiba	69.1
8th	Hyogo	62.4
9th	Kyoto	56.8
10th	Shiga	52.0
11th	Fukuoka	48.2
12th	Miyagi	46.3
13th	Nara	46.2
14th	Okayama	43.0
15th	Hiroshima	42.5
16th	Ibaraki	40.0
17th	Kagawa	36.3
18th	Fukui	35.1
19th	Toyama	34.4
20th	Shizuoka	33.6
21st	Kumamoto	31.7
21st	Yamagata	31.7
23rd	Tochigi	31.3
24th	Tottori	31.1

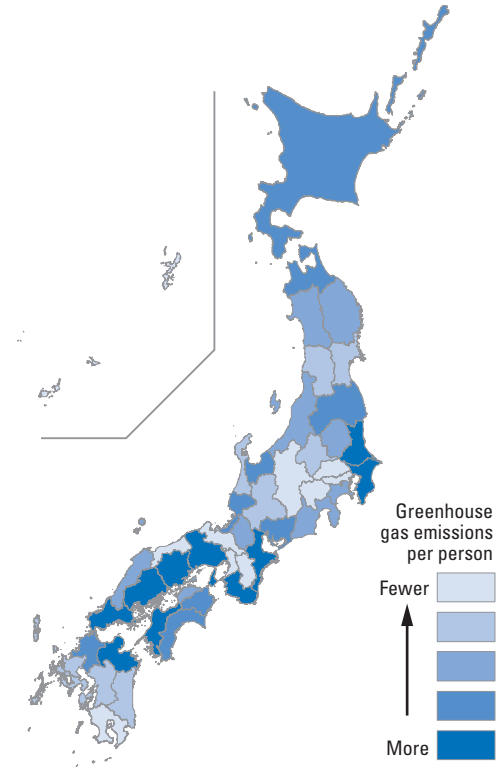
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Iwate	31.1
26th	Gunma	30.1
26th	Yamanashi	30.1
28th	Kochi	28.1
29th	Gifu	26.6
30th	Saga	26.3
31st	Niigata	25.0
32nd	Ehime	22.8
33rd	Nagano	22.6
34th	Fukushima	22.5
35th	Ishikawa	22.2
36th	Nagasaki	22.1
37th	Wakayama	22.0
38th	Mie	21.9
39th	Tokushima	21.1
40th	Shimane	20.3
41st	Hokkaido	18.7
42nd	Akita	15.2
43rd	Aomori	15.0
44th	Yamaguchi	13.2
45th	Kagoshima	12.9
46th	Miyazaki	11.8
47th	Oita	10.3



F4 Greenhouse gas emissions per person (per year)

Ranking	Prefecture	t-CO_2
1st	Nara	0.596
2nd	Tokyo	0.963
3rd	Kagoshima	0.985
4th	Yamanashi	1.128
5th	Nagano	1.164
6th	Kyoto	1.434
7th	Okinawa	1.447
8th	Saitama	1.515
9th	Tottori	1.848
10th	Osaka	1.884
11th	Nagasaki	1.894
12th	Miyazaki	1.896
13th	Yamagata	1.957
14th	Ishikawa	2.052
15th	Kumamoto	2.121
16th	Gunma	2.324
17th	Saga	2.427
18th	Miyagi	2.450
19th	Gifu	2.647
20th	Shimane	2.931
21st	Akita	2.952
22nd	Kanagawa	2.998
22nd	Shizuoka	2.998
24th	Kagawa	3.123

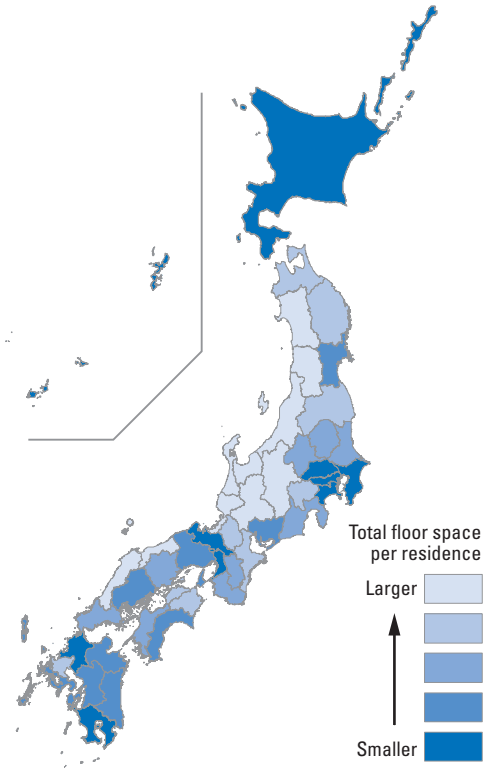
Ranking	Prefecture	t-CO_2
25th	Tochigi	3.158
26th	Iwate	3.212
27th	Shiga	3.629
28th	Niigata	3.729
29th	Hokkaido	4.129
30th	Tokushima	4.509
31st	Aomori	4.540
32nd	Toyama	4.644
33rd	Aichi	5.178
34th	Kochi	5.263
35th	Fukui	5.280
36th	Fukushima	5.650
37th	Fukuoka	6.113
38th	Hyogo	6.600
39th	Chiba	7.793
40th	Mie	8.307
41st	Ehime	8.679
42nd	Ibaraki	10.257
43rd	Wakayama	11.874
44th	Hiroshima	13.340
45th	Okayama	16.853
46th	Yamaguchi	23.450
47th	Oita	24.393



F5 Total floor space per residence

Ranking	Prefecture	m²
1st	Toyama	152.18
2nd	Fukui	146.16
3rd	Yamagata	141.51
4th	Akita	138.61
5th	Niigata	134.93
6th	Shimane	130.73
7th	Ishikawa	130.21
8th	Nagano	127.84
9th	Tottori	126.09
10th	Gifu	124.23
11th	Aomori	123.31
12th	Iwate	122.61
13th	Shiga	122.05
14th	Saga	118.31
15th	Fukushima	114.63
16th	Mie	114.15
17th	Kagawa	114.06
18th	Tokushima	113.96
19th	Yamanashi	113.27
20th	Nara	112.63
21st	Okayama	111.71
22nd	Tochigi	110.24
23rd	Wakayama	110.23
24th	Gunma	109.89

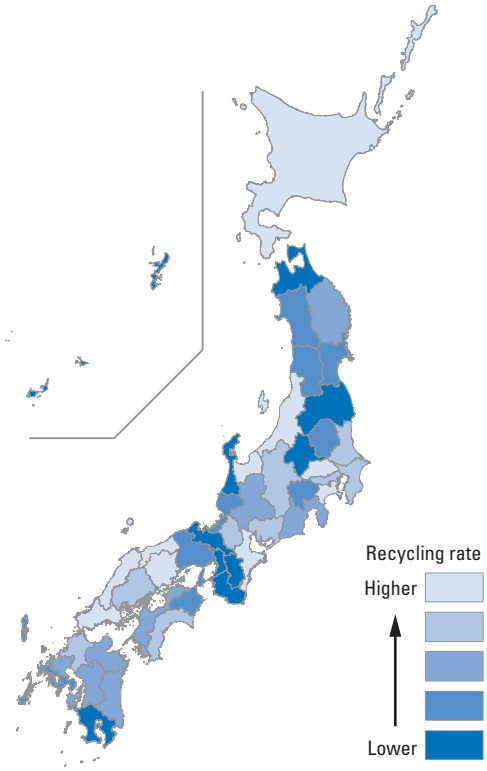
Ranking	Prefecture	m²
25th	Ibaraki	108.55
26th	Shizuoka	105.42
27th	Yamaguchi	104.60
28th	Ehime	102.45
29th	Kumamoto	101.66
30th	Oita	99.88
31st	Nagasaki	99.54
32nd	Miyazaki	98.53
33rd	Hiroshima	97.29
34th	Miyagi	97.07
35th	Kochi	95.69
36th	Aichi	95.01
37th	Hyogo	94.91
38th	Hokkaido	93.08
39th	Kagoshima	89.64
40th	Chiba	89.40
41st	Kyoto	87.86
42nd	Saitama	86.58
43rd	Fukuoka	86.55
44th	Kanagawa	76.62
45th	Okinawa	76.28
46th	Osaka	76.22
47th	Tokyo	64.48



F6 Recycling rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Yamaguchi	30.7
2nd	Mie	29.7
3rd	Okayama	29.5
4th	Tottori	26.0
5th	Kanagawa	25.7
6th	Hokkaido	24.6
6th	Saitama	24.6
8th	Shimane	24.2
9th	Toyama	24.0
10th	Niigata	23.3
11th	Nagano	23.1
12th	Ibaraki	22.8
12th	Chiba	22.8
12th	Tokyo	22.8
15th	Aichi	22.3
16th	Kochi	22.2
17th	Hiroshima	21.8
18th	Fukuoka	21.1
19th	Shiga	21.0
20th	Shizuoka	20.5
21st	Oita	20.1
22nd	Gifu	19.9
23rd	Kagawa	19.3
24th	Kumamoto	19.1

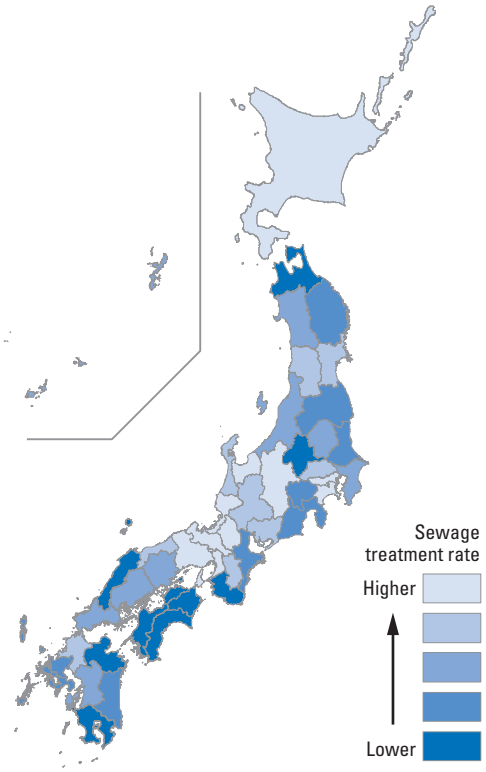
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Saga	18.7
26th	Ehime	18.6
27th	Miyazaki	18.3
28th	Iwate	17.4
29th	Tokushima	16.9
30th	Tochigi	16.8
30th	Hyogo	16.8
32nd	Yamanashi	16.7
33rd	Fukui	16.6
34th	Miyagi	16.4
35th	Akita	16.2
36th	Yamagata	15.8
36th	Nagasaki	15.8
38th	Nara	15.6
38th	Gunma	15.6
38th	Kagoshima	15.6
41st	Okinawa	14.7
42nd	Kyoto	14.1
43rd	Fukushima	13.9
44th	Ishikawa	13.8
45th	Osaka	13.7
46th	Aomori	13.5
46th	Wakayama	13.5



F7 Sewage treatment rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	99.8
2nd	Hyogo	98.7
3rd	Shiga	98.6
4th	Kanagawa	97.9
5th	Kyoto	97.8
6th	Nagano	97.6
7th	Osaka	97.4
8th	Toyama	96.3
9th	Hokkaido	95.2
9th	Fukui	95.2
11th	Ishikawa	93.6
12th	Tottori	93.1
13th	Gifu	91.6
14th	Fukuoka	91.5
15th	Saitama	91.2
15th	Yamagata	91.2
17th	Miyagi	90.6
18th	Aichi	89.8
19th	Nara	88.8
20th	Chiba	87.5
21st	Hiroshima	87.1
22nd	Niigata	86.6
23rd	Yamaguchi	86.2
24th	Kumamoto	86.1

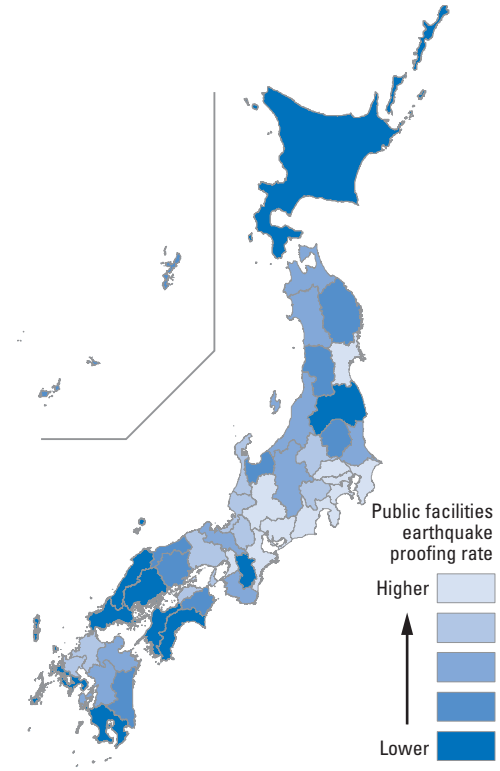
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Akita	86.1
26th	Tochigi	85.5
27th	Okayama	85.2
27th	Okinawa	85.2
29th	Miyazaki	84.8
30th	Mie	83.5
31st	Ibaraki	83.3
32nd	Saga	82.0
33rd	Fukushima	81.8
34th	Yamanashi	81.3
35th	Iwate	79.8
36th	Shizuoka	79.6
37th	Nagasaki	79.5
38th	Gunma	79.3
39th	Kagoshima	79.0
40th	Shimane	78.6
41st	Aomori	78.1
42nd	Ehime	77.2
43rd	Kochi	76.2
44th	Kagawa	75.3
45th	Oita	74.9
46th	Wakayama	62.2
47th	Tokushima	58.9



F8 Public facilities earthquake proofing rate

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	98.8
2nd	Aichi	97.1
2nd	Shizuoka	97.1
4th	Osaka	96.8
4th	Miyagi	96.8
6th	Mie	96.5
7th	Kanagawa	96.0
8th	Gifu	95.5
9th	Saitama	94.7
10th	Chiba	94.4
11th	Yamanashi	94.3
12th	Fukuoka	93.8
13th	Shiga	93.4
14th	Saga	93.1
15th	Ishikawa	92.8
15th	Gunma	92.8
17th	Fukui	92.6
18th	Kagawa	92.5
19th	Hyogo	92.4
20th	Nagano	92.3
21st	Kumamoto	91.8
22nd	Ibaraki	91.7
23rd	Wakayama	91.5
24th	Kyoto	91.4

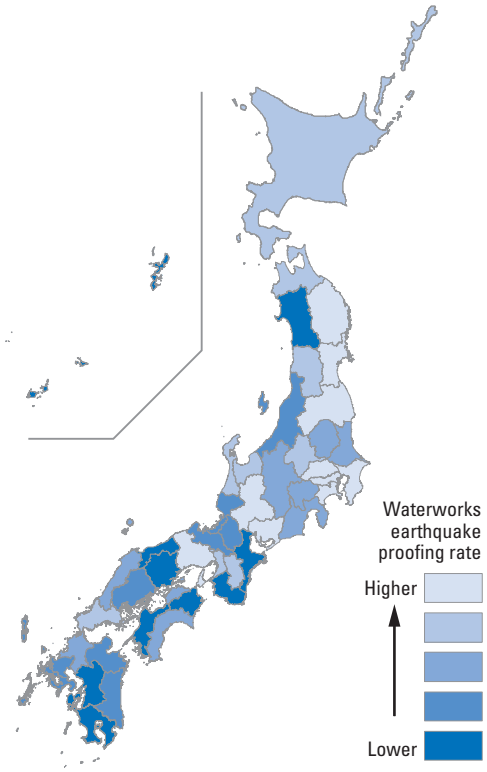
Ranking	Prefecture	%
24th	Niigata	91.4
26th	Oita	91.0
27th	Aomori	90.6
28th	Akita	90.1
29th	Tottori	89.8
29th	Yamagata	89.8
29th	Tochigi	89.8
29th	Okinawa	89.8
33rd	Tokushima	89.7
34th	Miyazaki	89.5
35th	Toyama	89.4
36th	Okayama	89.0
37th	Iwate	88.8
38th	Kochi	88.2
39th	Kagoshima	88.1
40th	Shimane	86.4
41st	Ehime	86.3
42nd	Fukushima	85.6
43rd	Yamaguchi	85.5
44th	Nara	85.2
45th	Hokkaido	85.1
46th	Nagasaki	84.8
47th	Hiroshima	81.0



F9 Waterworks earthquake proofing rate (basic duct line)

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kanagawa	67.2
2nd	Tokyo	63.0
3rd	Aichi	59.7
4th	Chiba	55.1
5th	Miyagi	49.4
5th	Iwate	49.4
7th	Fukushima	49.1
8th	Gifu	44.9
9th	Hyogo	44.1
10th	Saitama	43.0
11th	Nara	41.5
12th	Hokkaido	41.3
13th	Aomori	40.9
14th	Gunma	40.0
15th	Osaka	39.7
16th	Yamagata	39.6
16th	Yamaguchi	39.6
18th	Ishikawa	38.7
19th	Toyama	38.5
20th	Kagawa	38.0
21st	Shizuoka	37.1
22nd	Fukuoka	36.4
22nd	Ibaraki	36.4
24th	Shimane	35.5

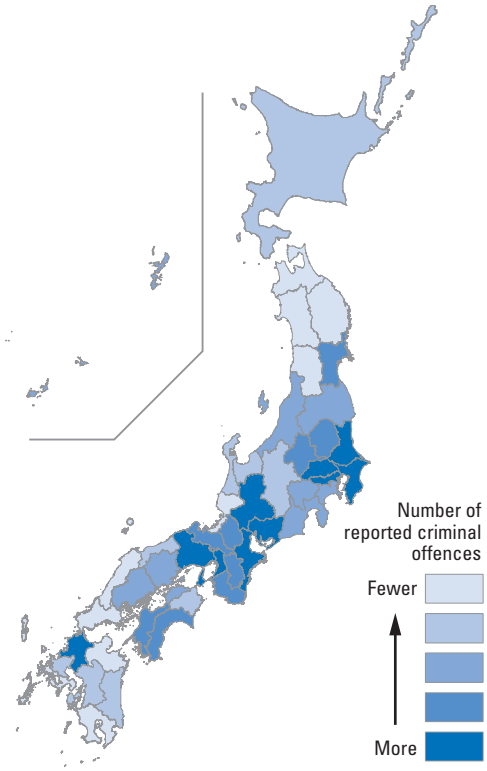
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Nagano	35.2
26th	Yamanashi	34.6
27th	Kochi	34.5
28th	Tochigi	33.0
29th	Miyazaki	32.9
30th	Hiroshima	32.4
31st	Kyoto	31.9
32nd	Fukui	31.5
33rd	Niigata	31.1
34th	Shiga	29.9
35th	Oita	29.5
36th	Nagasaki	29.4
37th	Saga	28.0
38th	Kumamoto	27.8
39th	Mie	27.5
40th	Okayama	27.3
41st	Tottori	26.5
42nd	Tokushima	26.1
43rd	Ehime	25.6
44th	Okinawa	24.7
45th	Wakayama	23.8
46th	Kagoshima	23.3
47th	Akita	22.8



F10 Number of reported criminal offences (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Akita	243.8
2nd	Iwate	273.7
3rd	Nagasaki	314.9
4th	Oita	343.6
5th	Aomori	360.6
6th	Yamagata	360.7
7th	Shimane	404.8
8th	Fukui	414.8
9th	Kagoshima	425.6
10th	Yamaguchi	455.2
11th	Miyazaki	458.2
12th	Nagano	459.3
13th	Tottori	460.9
14th	Kumamoto	469.6
15th	Ishikawa	470.2
16th	Tokushima	497.2
17th	Toyama	504.7
18th	Saga	525.6
19th	Hokkaido	529.3
20th	Okinawa	557.7
21st	Yamanashi	561.0
22nd	Niigata	562.7
23rd	Hiroshima	564.9
24th	Shizuoka	567.9

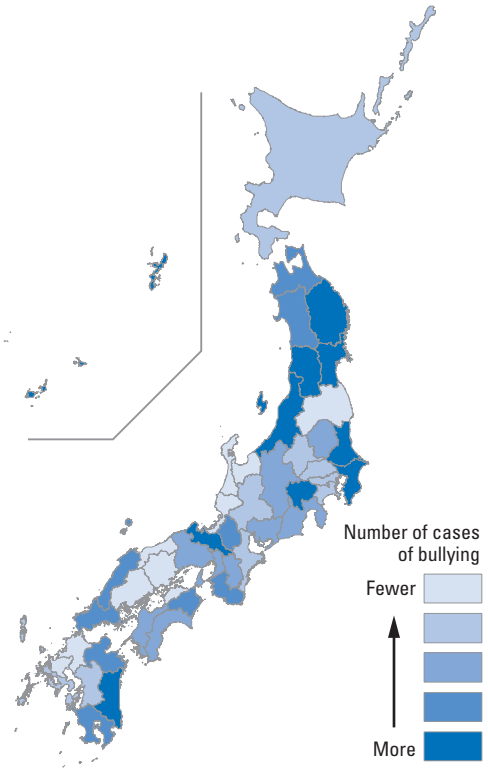
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Kagawa	579.1
26th	Okayama	582.3
27th	Kanagawa	585.5
28th	Fukushima	591.2
29th	Shiga	618.3
30th	Wakayama	626.6
31st	Miyagi	642.7
32nd	Kochi	649.2
33rd	Tochigi	652.4
34th	Gunma	668.6
35th	Nara	671.5
36th	Ehime	675.0
37th	Kyoto	715.8
38th	Mie	741.4
39th	Gifu	741.9
40th	Fukuoka	824.9
41st	Chiba	848.1
42nd	Ibaraki	857.8
43rd	Saitama	867.1
44th	Aichi	870.6
45th	Tokyo	912.6
46th	Hyogo	923.5
47th	Osaka	1,213.0



G1 Number of cases of bullying (per 1,000 children/students)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Kagawa	5.0
2nd	Saga	5.6
3rd	Hiroshima	7.3
4th	Toyama	8.9
5th	Fukuoka	9.1
6th	Tottori	9.6
7th	Fukushima	9.9
7th	Ishikawa	9.9
9th	Okayama	10.3
10th	Fukui	11.5
11th	Saitama	12.2
12th	Kumamoto	13.1
13th	Mie	13.2
14th	Gunma	13.6
15th	Nagasaki	14.5
16th	Gifu	14.9
17th	Tokyo	15.3
18th	Hokkaido	15.5
19th	Kanagawa	16.2
20th	Hyogo	16.3
20th	Nara	16.3
22nd	Ehime	16.8
23rd	Nagano	17.8
24th	Kochi	18.9

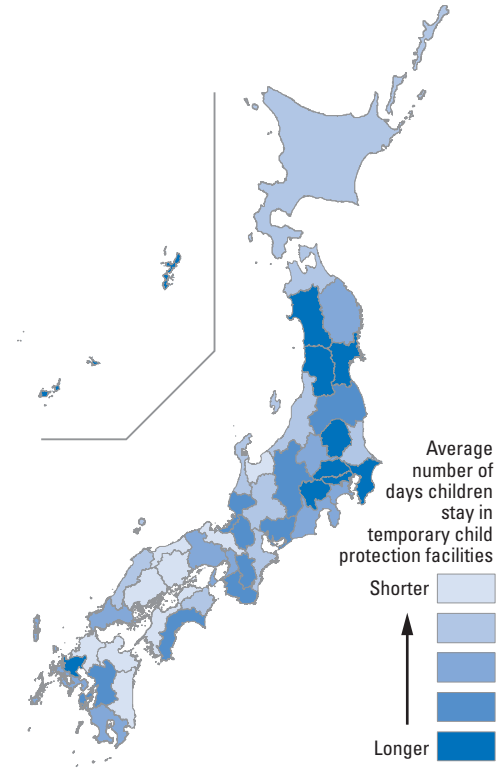
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Osaka	19.0
26th	Aichi	19.2
27th	Shizuoka	19.3
28th	Tochigi	19.9
29th	Yamaguchi	20.4
30th	Shimane	21.8
31st	Akita	28.4
32nd	Tokushima	28.9
33rd	Shiga	29.4
34th	Oita	29.7
35th	Kagoshima	31.2
36th	Wakayama	36.6
37th	Aomori	38.8
38th	Ibaraki	39.4
39th	Yamanashi	39.5
40th	Niigata	41.6
41st	Iwate	44.4
42nd	Chiba	49.7
43rd	Yamagata	56.6
44th	Okinawa	57.8
45th	Miyagi	77.9
46th	Miyazaki	85.7
47th	Kyoto	96.8



G2 Average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities

Ranking	Prefecture	Days
1st	Tottori	8.4
2nd	Okayama	11.4
3rd	Ehime	11.7
4th	Kagawa	13.1
5th	Toyama	13.6
6th	Kyoto	13.8
7th	Miyazaki	15.5
8th	Hiroshima	16.1
9th	Fukuoka	18.0
10th	Oita	18.6
11th	Mie	18.8
12th	Shimane	19.1
12th	Ibaraki	19.1
14th	Gifu	19.5
15th	Tokushima	20.1
16th	Aomori	21.0
17th	Niigata	21.4
18th	Hokkaido	21.6
19th	Ishikawa	22.0
20th	Iwate	23.4
21st	Kagoshima	23.9
22nd	Nagasaki	24.3
23rd	Yamaguchi	24.4
24th	Osaka	24.6

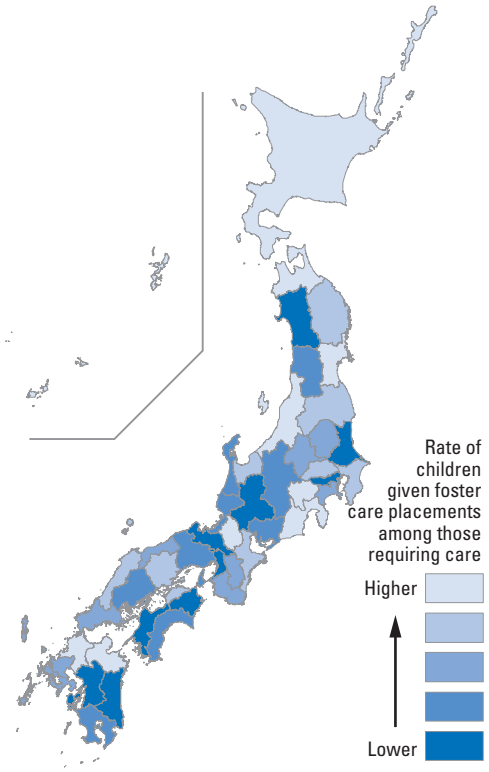
Ranking	Prefecture	Days
25th	Gunma	25.9
26th	Shizuoka	26.7
27th	Hyogo	26.9
28th	Kanagawa	27.7
29th	Nara	28.1
30th	Aichi	28.8
31st	Shiga	29.5
32nd	Fukui	29.9
32nd	Nagano	29.9
34th	Fukushima	30.9
35th	Kochi	31.4
36th	Wakayama	33.0
37th	Kumamoto	34.8
38th	Okinawa	35.6
39th	Chiba	38.2
40th	Saga	39.7
41st	Tochigi	40.8
42nd	Tokyo	41.3
43rd	Yamanashi	41.9
44th	Miyagi	45.9
45th	Akita	46.8
46th	Saitama	48.3
47th	Yamagata	51.3



G3 Rate of children given foster care placements among those requiring care

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Niigata	42.4
2nd	Shiga	39.3
3rd	Okinawa	35.5
4th	Miyagi	33.1
5th	Oita	30.6
6th	Shizuoka	28.9
7th	Hokkaido	28.7
8th	Yamanashi	27.8
9th	Fukuoka	25.7
10th	Aomori	25.3
11th	Kagawa	25.1
12th	Shimane	25.0
13th	Chiba	24.4
14th	Iwate	24.2
15th	Mie	22.9
16th	Toyama	22.8
17th	Fukushima	20.8
18th	Saitama	20.7
19th	Okayama	20.6
20th	Tottori	20.5
21st	Tochigi	20.4
22nd	Saga	19.7
23rd	Wakayama	18.4
24th	Nara	18.1

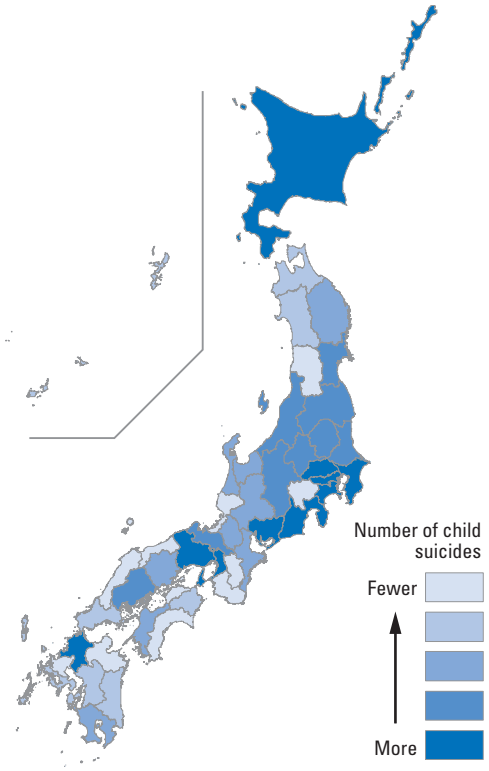
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Nagasaki	17.0
26th	Yamaguchi	16.1
27th	Kanagawa	16.0
28th	Gunma	15.8
29th	Ishikawa	15.7
30th	Yamagata	15.6
31st	Kochi	15.0
32nd	Hyogo	14.5
33rd	Hiroshima	14.3
33rd	Aichi	14.3
35th	Kagoshima	13.5
36th	Fukui	13.4
37th	Nagano	13.2
38th	Tokushima	13.1
38th	Tokyo	13.1
40th	Ehime	12.6
41st	Ibaraki	12.5
42nd	Miyazaki	12.1
43rd	Gifu	11.7
44th	Kumamoto	11.6
45th	Kyoto	11.3
46th	Osaka	10.7
47th	Akita	8.5



G4 Number of child suicides (aged under 20) (averaged over 2015-2017)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Fukui	1.7
1st	Tottori	1.7
3rd	Yamagata	2.3
4th	Shimane	3.0
4th	Kochi	3.0
6th	Yamanashi	3.3
7th	Kagawa	3.7
7th	Saga	3.7
9th	Oita	4.0
10th	Nara	4.3
10th	Wakayama	4.3
12th	Aomori	4.7
12th	Akita	4.7
12th	Yamaguchi	4.7
12th	Tokushima	4.7
12th	Okinawa	4.7
17th	Kumamoto	5.0
17th	Miyazaki	5.0
19th	Nagasaki	5.3
20th	Iwate	6.0
20th	Toyama	6.0
20th	Okayama	6.0
23rd	Gifu	7.0
24th	Ishikawa	7.3

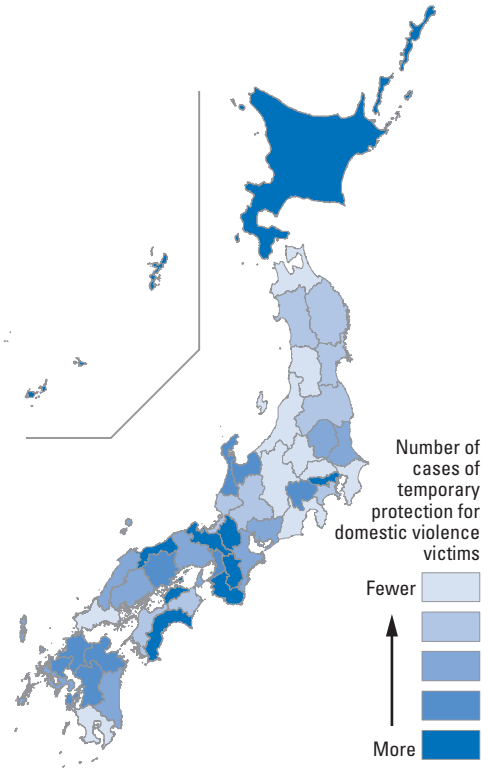
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Ehime	7.7
26th	Shiga	8.0
26th	Kagoshima	8.0
28th	Mie	10.0
29th	Miyagi	10.3
30th	Hiroshima	11.0
31st	Tochigi	11.3
32nd	Gunma	11.7
32nd	Nagano	11.7
34th	Kyoto	13.0
35th	Fukushima	13.3
36th	Ibaraki	13.7
36th	Niigata	13.7
38th	Shizuoka	16.7
39th	Osaka	17.7
40th	Hyogo	20.3
41st	Fukuoka	20.7
42nd	Hokkaido	28.0
43rd	Chiba	28.7
44th	Kanagawa	31.3
45th	Saitama	32.0
46th	Aichi	36.0
47th	Tokyo	66.3



G5 Number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Niigata	0.955
2nd	Saitama	1.445
3rd	Yamaguchi	1.566
4th	Nagano	1.572
5th	Yamagata	1.780
6th	Chiba	1.896
7th	Kagoshima	1.942
8th	Aomori	1.987
9th	Shizuoka	2.000
10th	Gunma	2.179
11th	Ehime	2.238
12th	Akita	2.346
13th	Fukushima	2.821
14th	Tokushima	2.911
15th	Miyagi	2.956
16th	Iwate	2.970
17th	Gifu	3.002
18th	Fukui	3.051
19th	Kanagawa	3.309
20th	Shimane	3.312
21st	Ibaraki	3.394
22nd	Hiroshima	3.411
23rd	Aichi	3.501
24th	Miyazaki	3.532

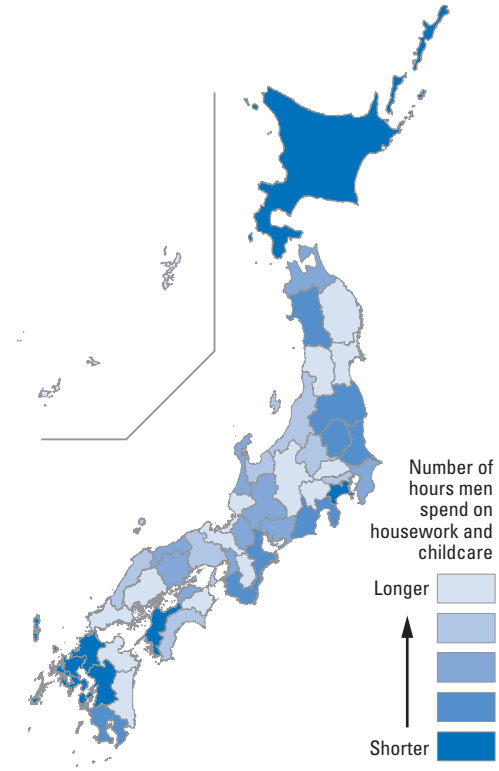
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Tochigi	3.596
26th	Mie	3.855
27th	Nagasaki	3.994
28th	Hyogo	4.065
29th	Yamanashi	4.072
30th	Fukuoka	4.254
31st	Oita	4.287
32nd	Kumamoto	4.311
33rd	Okayama	4.476
34th	Toyama	4.689
35th	Ishikawa	5.026
36th	Osaka	5.453
37th	Saga	5.523
38th	Kyoto	5.670
39th	Kochi	5.767
40th	Hokkaido	5.909
41st	Tottori	6.452
42nd	Shiga	6.582
43rd	Tokyo	6.681
44th	Nara	7.403
45th	Wakayama	8.821
46th	Kagawa	9.116
47th	Okinawa	9.766



G6 Number of hours men spend on housework and childcare (per week)

Ranking	Prefecture	Hours
1st	Miyazaki	34
2nd	Tokushima	33
3rd	Nagano	32
3rd	Iwate	32
3rd	Hiroshima	32
6th	Yamagata	31
6th	Miyagi	31
6th	Yamanashi	31
6th	Okinawa	31
10th	Saitama	30
10th	Yamaguchi	30
10th	Fukui	30
10th	Oita	30
10th	Kyoto	30
10th	Nara	30
16th	Niigata	29
16th	Gunma	29
16th	Shimane	29
16th	Hyogo	29
16th	Toyama	29
16th	Kochi	29
16th	Tokyo	29
23rd	Chiba	28
23rd	Osaka	28

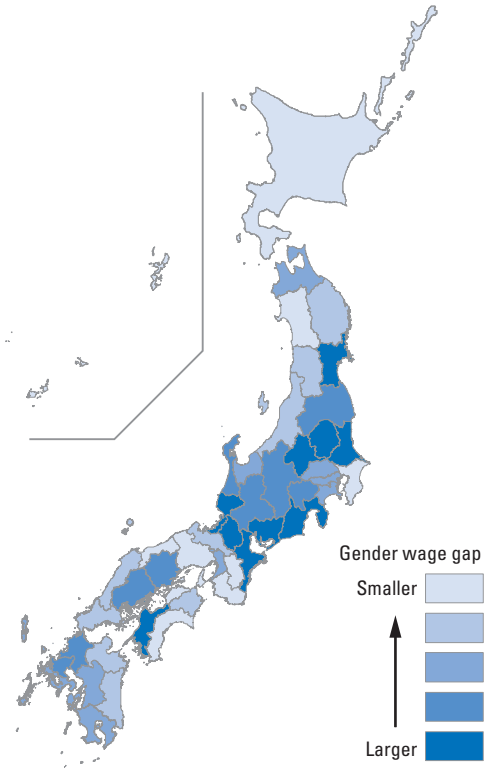
Ranking	Prefecture	Hours
23rd	Shiga	28
26th	Aomori	27
26th	Gifu	27
26th	Aichi	27
26th	Okayama	27
26th	Ishikawa	27
26th	Tottori	27
26th	Kagawa	27
33rd	Kagoshima	26
33rd	Shizuoka	26
33rd	Akita	26
33rd	Fukushima	26
33rd	Ibaraki	26
33rd	Tochigi	26
33rd	Mie	26
33rd	Wakayama	26
41st	Kanagawa	25
41st	Nagasaki	25
41st	Hokkaido	25
44th	Ehime	23
44th	Fukuoka	23
44th	Kumamoto	23
44th	Saga	23



G7 Gender wage gap (female pay as a proportion of male pay)

Ranking	Prefecture	
1st	Okinawa	79.493
2nd	Tottori	76.658
3rd	Kochi	76.433
4th	Akita	75.163
5th	Nara	74.979
6th	Chiba	74.946
7th	Hokkaido	73.704
8th	Wakayama	73.617
9th	Kagawa	73.536
10th	Hyogo	73.448
11th	Yamaguchi	73.393
12th	Miyazaki	73.354
13th	Iwate	73.140
14th	Niigata	73.110
15th	Shimane	73.051
16th	Kyoto	72.957
17th	Yamagata	72.899
18th	Oita	72.882
19th	Tokushima	72.881
20th	Osaka	72.658
21st	Kumamoto	72.629
22nd	Tokyo	72.555
23rd	Aomori	72.155
24th	Saitama	72.020

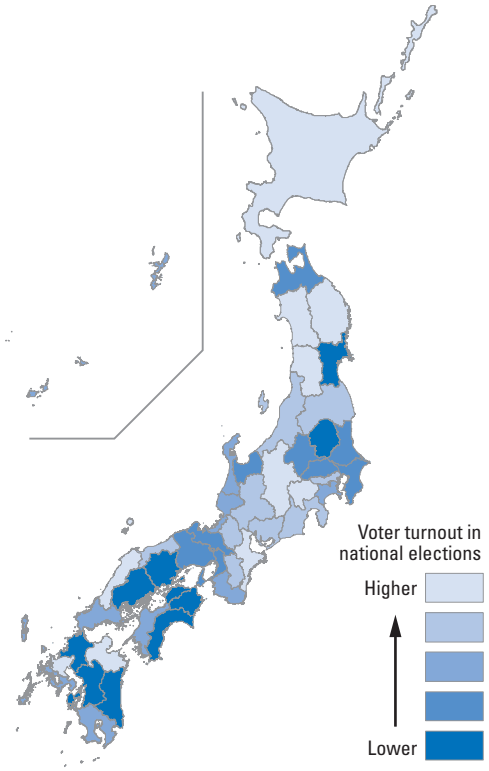
Ranking	Prefecture	
25th	Nagasaki	71.959
26th	Kanagawa	71.783
27th	Kagoshima	71.587
28th	Toyama	71.507
29th	Ishikawa	71.340
30th	Nagano	70.954
31st	Fukushima	70.826
32nd	Hiroshima	70.487
33rd	Yamanashi	70.401
34th	Okayama	70.271
35th	Fukuoka	70.120
36th	Saga	70.107
37th	Gifu	70.073
38th	Miyagi	70.067
39th	Aichi	69.582
40th	Tochigi	69.460
41st	Gunma	69.321
42nd	Fukui	69.319
43rd	Shiga	69.068
44th	Ehime	68.242
45th	Mie	68.119
46th	Ibaraki	67.745
47th	Shizuoka	67.471



H1 Voter turnout in national elections

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Shimane	60.72
2nd	Yamagata	60.69
3rd	Nagano	59.17
4th	Yamanashi	59.01
5th	Akita	58.33
6th	Mie	57.98
7th	Oita	57.25
8th	Saga	57.23
9th	Iwate	57.01
10th	Hokkaido	56.57
11th	Nara	56.25
12th	Niigata	56.24
13th	Tokyo	55.93
14th	Shizuoka	55.69
15th	Gifu	55.33
15th	Tottori	55.33
17th	Shiga	55.16
18th	Fukushima	54.82
19th	Aichi	54.80
20th	Kanagawa	54.67
21st	Nagasaki	53.51
22nd	Okinawa	53.41
23rd	Fukui	53.25
24th	Yamaguchi	53.21

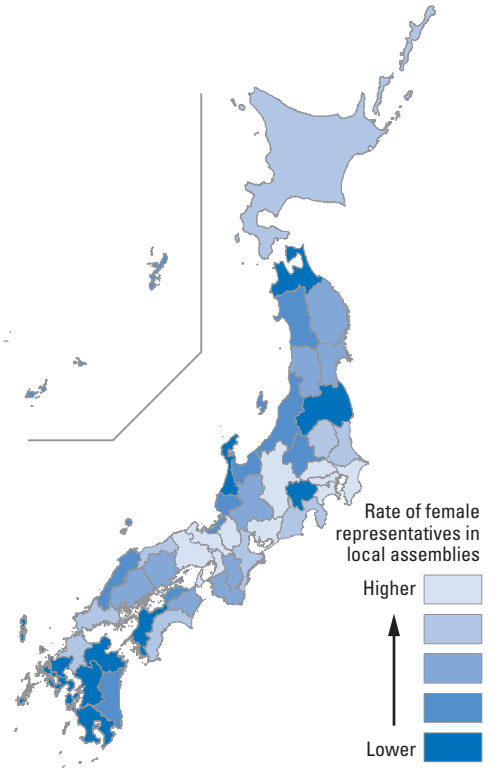
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Wakayama	53.17
25th	Kagoshima	53.17
27th	Ehime	53.08
28th	Ishikawa	53.02
29th	Ibaraki	53.01
30th	Hyogo	52.30
31st	Saitama	51.96
32nd	Chiba	51.63
33rd	Toyama	51.54
34th	Osaka	51.45
35th	Gunma	51.12
36th	Kyoto	51.08
37th	Aomori	51.07
38th	Fukuoka	50.83
39th	Miyagi	50.81
40th	Kumamoto	50.76
41st	Tochigi	50.74
42nd	Okayama	50.73
43rd	Kagawa	50.30
44th	Miyazaki	49.81
45th	Hiroshima	49.80
46th	Kochi	48.25
47th	Tokushima	47.10



H2 Rate of female representatives in local assemblies

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Tokyo	26.872
2nd	Kanagawa	20.114
3rd	Saitama	19.896
4th	Osaka	19.185
5th	Kyoto	17.108
6th	Chiba	16.999
7th	Hyogo	14.725
8th	Aichi	14.274
9th	Shiga	14.146
10th	Nagano	14.051
11th	Mie	13.899
12th	Tochigi	13.153
13th	Shizuoka	12.225
14th	Hokkaido	12.098
15th	Yamaguchi	12.085
16th	Ibaraki	12.000
17th	Tottori	11.935
18th	Fukuoka	11.867
19th	Kochi	11.814
20th	Gifu	11.639
21st	Nara	11.466
22nd	Hiroshima	11.311
23rd	Wakayama	11.087
24th	Miyagi	10.920

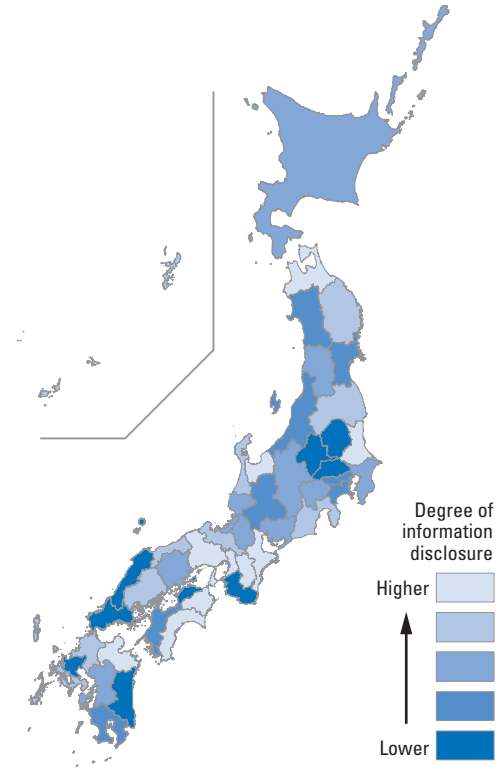
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Okayama	10.837
26th	Iwate	10.828
27th	Yamagata	10.357
28th	Tokushima	10.123
29th	Miyazaki	10.115
30th	Okinawa	9.795
31st	Fukui	9.281
32nd	Niigata	9.063
33rd	Kagawa	8.709
34th	Toyama	8.525
35th	Gunma	8.293
36th	Shimane	8.262
37th	Akita	8.130
38th	Kagoshima	8.097
39th	Saga	8.052
40th	Ehime	8.046
41st	Fukushima	8.013
42nd	Yamanashi	7.877
43rd	Kumamoto	7.840
44th	Nagasaki	7.256
45th	Ishikawa	7.082
46th	Oita	6.801
47th	Aomori	6.563



H3 Degree of information disclosure

Ranking	Prefecture	Score
1st	Hyogo	97
2nd	Osaka	92
2nd	Toyama	92
4th	Kochi	74
4th	Aomori	74
6th	Oita	72
7th	Nara	67
8th	Mie	58
9th	Ibaraki	57
10th	Tokushima	54
11th	Tottori	50
12th	Kyoto	49
12th	Hiroshima	49
14th	Okinawa	47
14th	Ishikawa	47
16th	Fukuoka	42
16th	Iwate	42
18th	Shizuoka	39
18th	Fukushima	39
18th	Nagasaki	39
21st	Chiba	37
21st	Nagano	37
21st	Yamagata	37
21st	Yamanashi	37

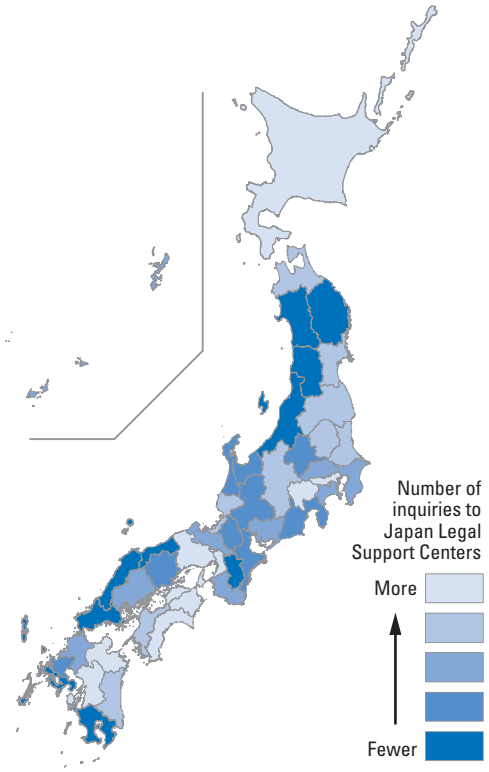
Ranking	Prefecture	Score
21st	Kumamoto	37
26th	Fukui	35
27th	Aichi	34
28th	Shiga	32
28th	Hokkaido	32
28th	Okayama	32
31st	Gifu	30
31st	Kagoshima	30
33rd	Miyagi	29
34th	Tokyo	27
34th	Ehime	27
36th	Niigata	25
37th	Kanagawa	22
37th	Akita	22
39th	Tochigi	19
40th	Shimane	18
41st	Kagawa	17
42nd	Wakayama	15
43rd	Yamaguchi	12
43rd	Miyazaki	12
43rd	Gunma	12
43rd	Saga	12
47th	Saitama	11



H4 Number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Kumamoto	55.192
2nd	Tokushima	54.027
3rd	Oita	53.578
4th	Tokyo	53.377
5th	Kagawa	53.261
6th	Hyogo	49.101
7th	Osaka	48.440
8th	Kochi	47.184
9th	Hokkaido	46.859
10th	Yamanashi	45.940
11th	Ehime	45.745
12th	Nagano	45.378
13th	Fukui	45.320
14th	Miyagi	44.017
15th	Ibaraki	43.401
16th	Fukushima	43.072
17th	Miyazaki	42.217
18th	Tochigi	42.152
19th	Aomori	41.833
20th	Okinawa	41.793
21st	Chiba	40.877
22nd	Wakayama	38.826
23rd	Kanagawa	38.750
24th	Kyoto	37.455

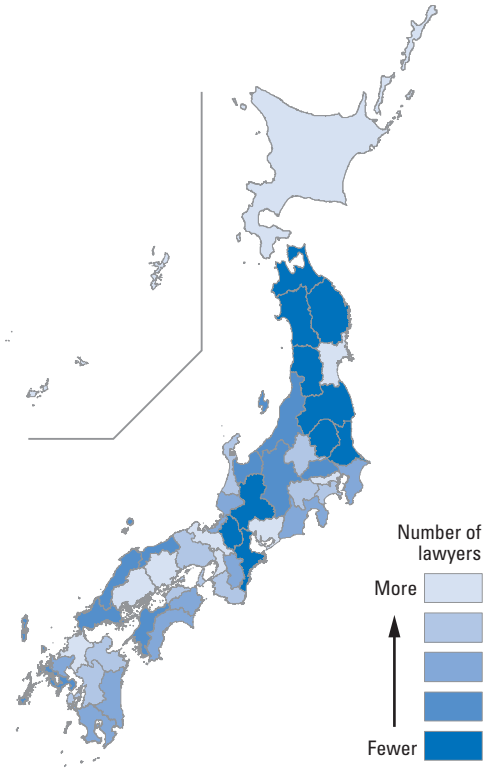
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Hiroshima	37.096
26th	Fukuoka	36.609
27th	Saitama	34.729
28th	Aichi	34.596
29th	Ishikawa	34.422
30th	Mie	34.381
31st	Toyama	34.251
32nd	Saga	33.188
33rd	Shizuoka	33.050
34th	Shiga	32.597
35th	Okayama	32.120
36th	Gunma	31.739
37th	Gifu	31.217
38th	Tottori	30.982
39th	Akita	30.069
40th	Shimane	29.174
41st	Nara	28.437
42nd	Yamagata	28.005
43rd	Niigata	27.642
44th	Nagasaki	26.928
45th	Yamaguchi	25.746
46th	Iwate	21.396
47th	Kagoshima	18.888



H5 Number of lawyers (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokyo	13.39
2nd	Osaka	5.04
3rd	Kyoto	2.89
4th	Aichi	2.56
5th	Fukuoka	2.43
6th	Okayama	2.06
7th	Hiroshima	2.03
8th	Miyagi	1.88
9th	Hokkaido	1.83
10th	Okinawa	1.82
11th	Kagawa	1.80
12th	Kanagawa	1.74
13th	Hyogo	1.66
14th	Kumamoto	1.52
15th	Wakayama	1.51
16th	Ishikawa	1.49
17th	Yamanashi	1.45
18th	Gunma	1.43
19th	Oita	1.38
20th	Fukui	1.32
21st	Miyazaki	1.30
22nd	Tokushima	1.29
23rd	Shizuoka	1.26
24th	Kochi	1.25

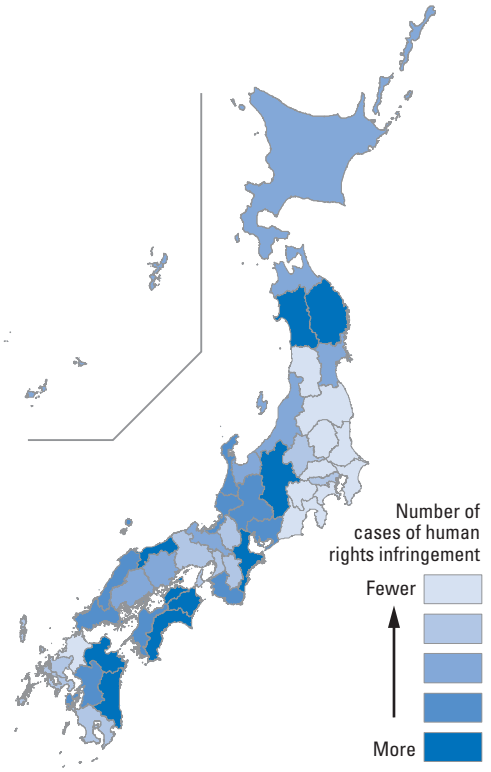
Ranking	Prefecture	People
24th	Nara	1.25
24th	Kagoshima	1.25
27th	Chiba	1.24
27th	Saga	1.24
29th	Yamaguchi	1.22
30th	Niigata	1.21
31st	Ehime	1.20
31st	Nagasaki	1.20
33rd	Nagano	1.17
34th	Toyama	1.15
35th	Saitama	1.14
35th	Shimane	1.14
37th	Tottori	1.12
38th	Tochigi	1.10
39th	Mie	1.06
40th	Fukushima	1.05
41st	Shiga	1.02
42nd	Ibaraki	0.97
43rd	Gifu	0.96
44th	Aomori	0.93
45th	Yamagata	0.91
46th	Iwate	0.83
47th	Akita	0.78



H6 Number of cases of human rights infringement (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
1st	Saitama	0.291
2nd	Chiba	0.701
3rd	Yamanashi	0.838
4th	Shizuoka	0.952
5th	Tochigi	0.966
6th	Kanagawa	1.033
7th	Ibaraki	1.044
8th	Fukuoka	1.095
9th	Fukushima	1.259
10th	Yamagata	1.370
11th	Shiga	1.430
12th	Kagoshima	1.439
13th	Tokyo	1.489
14th	Gunma	1.495
15th	Saga	1.553
16th	Osaka	1.566
17th	Nara	1.580
18th	Nagasaki	1.595
19th	Hyogo	1.694
20th	Aomori	1.698
21st	Hokkaido	1.722
22nd	Miyagi	1.808
23rd	Hiroshima	1.817
24th	Kyoto	1.885

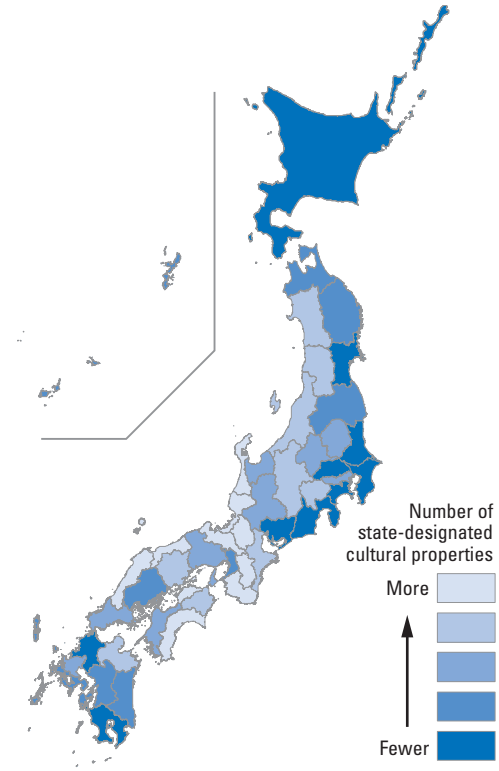
Ranking	Prefecture	Cases
25th	Okinawa	1.899
26th	Toyama	1.913
27th	Okayama	1.998
28th	Niigata	2.029
29th	Wakayama	2.032
30th	Yamaguchi	2.068
31st	Kumamoto	2.074
32nd	Fukui	2.092
33rd	Aichi	2.155
34th	Ishikawa	2.258
35th	Shimane	2.321
36th	Ehime	2.375
37th	Gifu	2.425
38th	Akita	2.490
39th	Oita	2.648
40th	Miyazaki	2.893
41st	Iwate	2.964
42nd	Nagano	3.044
43rd	Mie	3.217
44th	Tottori	3.841
45th	Tokushima	4.334
46th	Kagawa	4.736
47th	Kochi	5.574



J1 Number of state-designated cultural properties (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
1st	Nara	14.318
2nd	Kyoto	12.414
3rd	Shiga	9.770
4th	Wakayama	7.323
5th	Shimane	6.004
6th	Tottori	5.939
7th	Kagawa	5.850
8th	Kochi	5.763
9th	Fukui	4.692
10th	Ishikawa	4.259
11th	Nagano	3.893
12th	Yamanashi	3.636
13th	Tokushima	3.631
14th	Oita	3.464
15th	Yamagata	3.144
16th	Okayama	2.900
17th	Niigata	2.876
18th	Akita	2.847
19th	Mie	2.808
20th	Tokyo	2.649
21st	Saga	2.628
22nd	Yamaguchi	2.571
23rd	Gifu	2.517
24th	Ehime	2.446

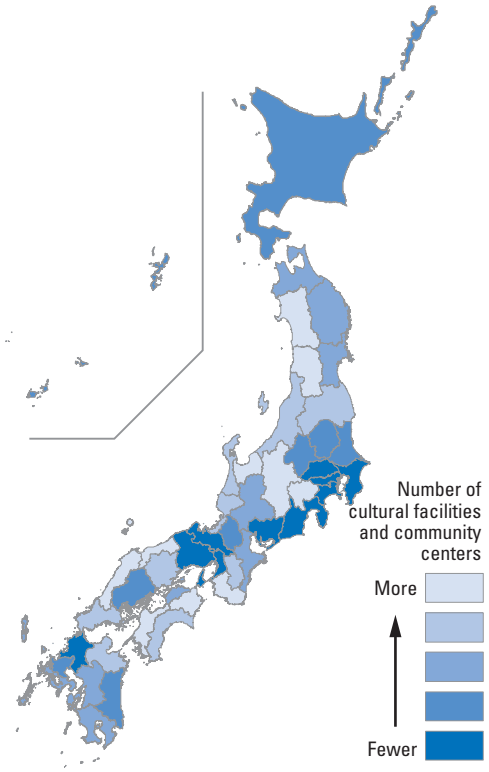
Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
25th	Gunma	2.426
26th	Tochigi	2.387
27th	Hyogo	2.249
28th	Toyama	2.197
29th	Iwate	2.143
30th	Nagasaki	2.125
31st	Fukushima	1.953
32nd	Hiroshima	1.899
33rd	Kumamoto	1.794
34th	Miyazaki	1.763
35th	Osaka	1.743
36th	Aomori	1.704
37th	Okinawa	1.638
38th	Shizuoka	1.512
39th	Kagoshima	1.455
40th	Ibaraki	1.437
41st	Miyagi	1.276
42nd	Aichi	1.235
43rd	Fukuoka	0.994
44th	Kanagawa	0.759
45th	Chiba	0.627
46th	Hokkaido	0.560
47th	Saitama	0.424



J2 Number of cultural facilities and community centers (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
1st	Nagano	8.80
2nd	Yamanashi	7.72
3rd	Yamagata	5.32
4th	Tokushima	5.12
5th	Akita	4.50
6th	Toyama	4.40
7th	Tottori	4.32
8th	Shimane	4.26
9th	Wakayama	4.09
9th	Ehime	4.09
11th	Ishikawa	3.96
12th	Fukui	3.84
13th	Kochi	3.78
14th	Nara	3.47
15th	Okayama	3.02
16th	Niigata	2.86
17th	Oita	2.73
18th	Yamaguchi	2.71
19th	Fukushima	2.69
20th	Mie	2.63
21st	Aomori	2.51
22nd	Kumamoto	2.49
23rd	Kagoshima	2.47
24th	Iwate	2.42

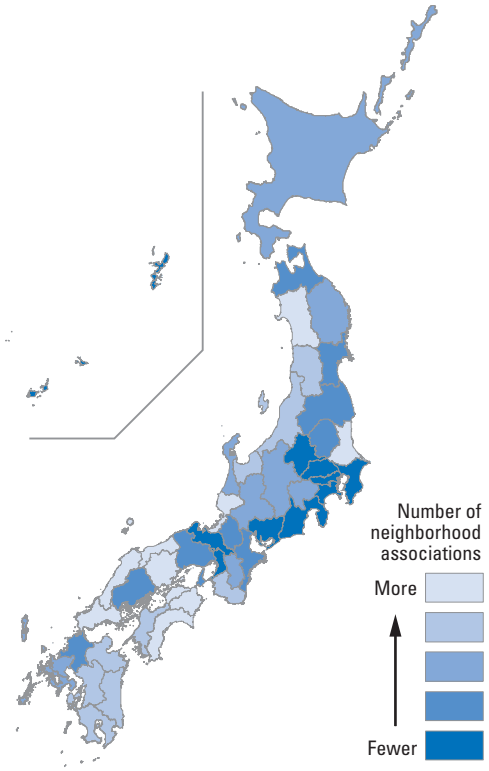
Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
25th	Gifu	2.41
26th	Miyagi	2.39
27th	Kagawa	2.29
28th	Nagasaki	2.18
29th	Saga	2.08
30th	Gunma	1.85
31st	Shiga	1.79
32nd	Hiroshima	1.74
33rd	Tochigi	1.63
34th	Miyazaki	1.54
35th	Ibaraki	1.46
35th	Hokkaido	1.46
37th	Okinawa	1.26
38th	Kyoto	1.19
38th	Fukuoka	1.19
40th	Saitama	1.09
41st	Hyogo	1.05
42nd	Chiba	0.95
43rd	Shizuoka	0.88
44th	Aichi	0.84
45th	Osaka	0.63
46th	Tokyo	0.59
47th	Kanagawa	0.45



J3 Number of neighborhood associations (per 1,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
1st	Shimane	96
2nd	Tokushima	72
3rd	Kagawa	69
4th	Kochi	65
5th	Okayama	58
6th	Akita	54
7th	Yamaguchi	52
8th	Tottori	51
9th	Fukui	49
10th	Ibaraki	47
11th	Ehime	46
12th	Kagoshima	44
13th	Toyama	43
14th	Wakayama	40
14th	Kumamoto	40
16th	Yamagata	39
16th	Miyazaki	39
18th	Niigata	37
18th	Oita	37
20th	Gifu	36
21st	Ishikawa	35
22nd	Nagano	33
23rd	Nagasaki	32
24th	Yamanashi	31

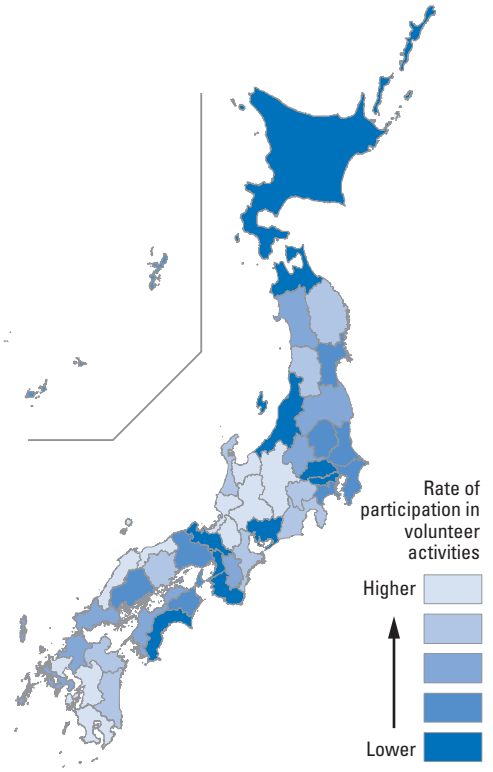
Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
24th	Iwate	31
26th	Nara	30
27th	Saga	29
27th	Hokkaido	29
29th	Mie	27
29th	Aomori	27
31st	Hiroshima	26
32nd	Fukushima	25
33rd	Shiga	24
34th	Tochigi	23
35th	Fukuoka	21
36th	Miyagi	20
37th	Hyogo	19
38th	Aichi	18
39th	Chiba	16
40th	Gunma	15
40th	Osaka	15
42nd	Kyoto	14
42nd	Shizuoka	14
44th	Saitama	10
45th	Okinawa	8
45th	Kanagawa	8
47th	Tokyo	7



J4 Rate of participation in volunteer activities

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Shiga	33.9
2nd	Gifu	33.4
3rd	Shimane	33.1
4th	Kumamoto	32.7
5th	Kagoshima	32.6
5th	Saga	32.6
7th	Toyama	32.4
8th	Nagano	32.3
9th	Tottori	32.2
9th	Fukui	32.2
11th	Yamagata	32.1
12th	Ishikawa	31.6
13th	Okayama	30.8
14th	Iwate	30.2
15th	Oita	29.8
16th	Yamanashi	29.7
17th	Shizuoka	29.4
18th	Miyazaki	29.1
19th	Mie	29.0
20th	Gunma	28.3
21st	Kagawa	28.2
22nd	Fukushima	28.1
22nd	Fukuoka	28.1
24th	Yamaguchi	27.8

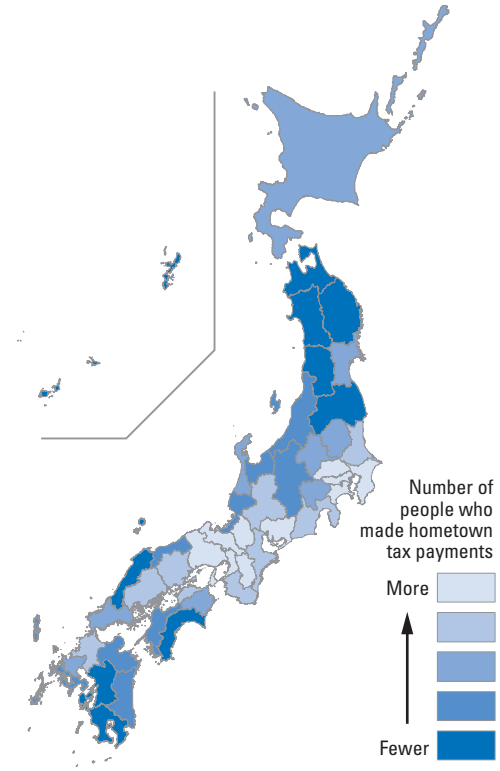
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Nagasaki	27.7
26th	Ehime	27.5
27th	Akita	27.2
28th	Nara	26.8
29th	Miyagi	26.7
30th	Tokushima	26.2
30th	Ibaraki	26.2
30th	Tochigi	26.2
33rd	Hyogo	26.0
34th	Hiroshima	25.6
35th	Kanagawa	25.5
36th	Chiba	25.2
37th	Okinawa	25.1
38th	Aichi	24.6
38th	Kyoto	24.6
40th	Niigata	24.5
41st	Wakayama	24.2
41st	Saitama	24.2
43rd	Kochi	22.6
43rd	Hokkaido	22.6
45th	Aomori	22.4
46th	Tokyo	21.6
47th	Osaka	20.6



J5 Number of people who made hometown tax payments (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokyo	468.130
2nd	Kanagawa	344.694
3rd	Osaka	307.522
4th	Hyogo	289.537
5th	Aichi	286.069
6th	Kyoto	269.609
7th	Chiba	269.114
8th	Nara	269.002
9th	Saitama	242.820
10th	Shiga	238.089
11th	Fukuoka	194.515
12th	Mie	189.187
13th	Gifu	183.693
14th	Hiroshima	176.085
15th	Shizuoka	169.949
16th	Okayama	169.732
17th	Kagawa	154.631
18th	Ibaraki	153.035
19th	Wakayama	151.322
20th	Ishikawa	150.322
21st	Hokkaido	149.120
22nd	Miyagi	146.431
23rd	Gunma	142.662
24th	Tochigi	135.285

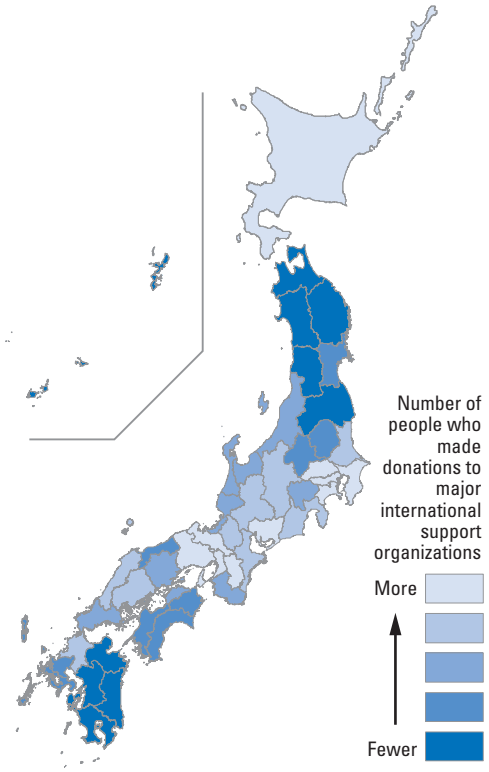
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Tokushima	131.361
26th	Saga	128.577
27th	Yamanashi	128.072
28th	Yamaguchi	127.862
29th	Fukui	119.316
30th	Ehime	118.508
31st	Nagano	115.163
32nd	Toyama	112.416
33rd	Tottori	104.831
34th	Nagasaki	99.115
35th	Oita	99.080
36th	Miyazaki	98.255
37th	Niigata	96.292
38th	Kochi	95.617
39th	Yamagata	93.633
40th	Fukushima	92.875
41st	Kumamoto	92.852
42nd	Shimane	88.944
43rd	Okinawa	88.248
44th	Kagoshima	86.528
45th	Iwate	72.283
46th	Aomori	67.662
47th	Akita	67.307



J6 Number of people who made donations to major international support organizations (per 100,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokyo	1.750
2nd	Nara	1.456
3rd	Kanagawa	1.428
4th	Hyogo	1.270
5th	Chiba	1.243
6th	Kyoto	1.223
7th	Osaka	1.171
8th	Hokkaido	1.165
9th	Saitama	1.159
10th	Aichi	1.131
11th	Shizuoka	0.940
12th	Fukuoka	0.897
13th	Mie	0.888
14th	Gifu	0.873
15th	Shiga	0.845
16th	Ibaraki	0.729
17th	Shimane	0.690
18th	Hiroshima	0.670
19th	Nagano	0.647
20th	Wakayama	0.646
21st	Ishikawa	0.644
22nd	Yamaguchi	0.621
23rd	Yamanashi	0.612
24th	Okayama	0.611

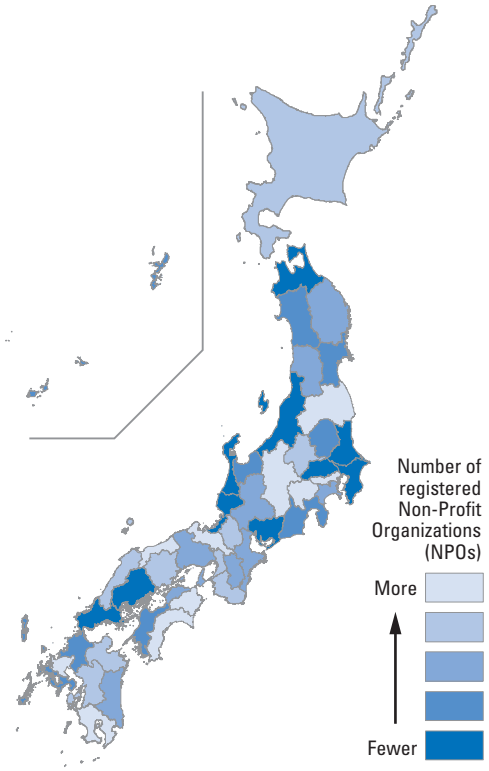
Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Toyama	0.590
26th	Kagawa	0.582
27th	Niigata	0.564
28th	Fukui	0.557
29th	Tochigi	0.551
30th	Gunma	0.550
31st	Saga	0.522
32nd	Kochi	0.506
33rd	Nagasaki	0.491
34th	Tokushima	0.490
35th	Ehime	0.478
36th	Tottori	0.469
37th	Miyagi	0.464
38th	Oita	0.428
39th	Yamagata	0.416
40th	Okinawa	0.408
41st	Akita	0.396
42nd	Iwate	0.375
43rd	Fukushima	0.366
44th	Kagoshima	0.359
45th	Aomori	0.354
46th	Miyazaki	0.347
47th	Kumamoto	0.321



J7 Number of registered Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs) (per 10,000 population)

Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
1st	Tokyo	6.946
2nd	Yamanashi	5.639
3rd	Kyoto	5.380
4th	Kagoshima	5.290
5th	Tottori	4.993
6th	Tokushima	4.846
7th	Nagano	4.792
8th	Fukushima	4.782
9th	Saga	4.524
10th	Kochi	4.522
11th	Gunma	4.391
12th	Oita	4.259
13th	Okayama	4.249
14th	Kumamoto	4.248
15th	Shiga	4.142
16th	Shimane	4.080
17th	Osaka	4.054
18th	Wakayama	4.041
19th	Hokkaido	4.030
20th	Mie	3.969
21st	Kanagawa	3.946
22nd	Nara	3.944
23rd	Hyogo	3.932
24th	Yamagata	3.930

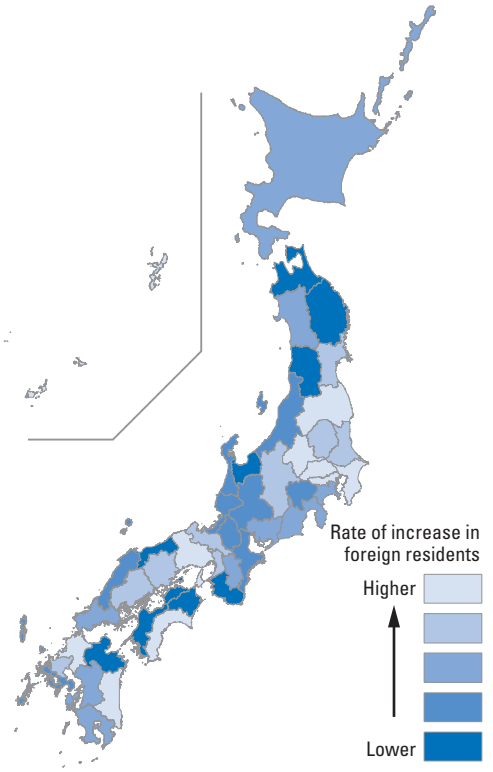
Ranking	Prefecture	Numbers
25th	Miyazaki	3.903
26th	Iwate	3.899
27th	Kagawa	3.866
28th	Gifu	3.816
29th	Okinawa	3.765
30th	Nagasaki	3.633
31st	Miyagi	3.551
32nd	Toyama	3.497
33rd	Fukuoka	3.491
34th	Akita	3.448
35th	Shizuoka	3.438
36th	Ehime	3.335
37th	Tochigi	3.243
38th	Chiba	3.177
39th	Aomori	3.156
40th	Niigata	3.147
41st	Ishikawa	3.121
42nd	Yamaguchi	3.108
43rd	Fukui	3.086
44th	Hiroshima	3.026
45th	Saitama	2.927
46th	Ibaraki	2.829
47th	Aichi	2.639



J8 Rate of increase in foreign residents

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Okinawa	362.39
2nd	Miyazaki	305.68
3rd	Kochi	197.54
4th	Fukuoka	191.02
5th	Gunma	180.87
6th	Fukushima	179.60
7th	Tokyo	175.14
8th	Chiba	167.55
9th	Hyogo	164.59
10th	Saitama	160.50
11th	Kyoto	145.72
12th	Tochigi	133.63
13th	Miyagi	127.44
14th	Hiroshima	126.08
15th	Ibaraki	120.01
16th	Osaka	117.14
17th	Saga	117.09
18th	Nagano	112.20
19th	Okayama	111.89
20th	Aichi	110.78
21st	Hokkaido	106.94
22nd	Kanagawa	93.47
23rd	Yamaguchi	93.36
24th	Akita	90.48

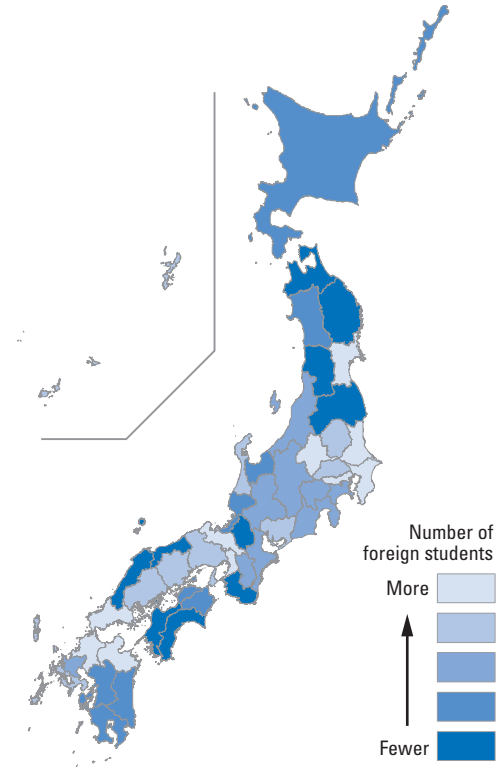
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Shizuoka	84.05
26th	Nara	81.38
27th	Kumamoto	77.57
28th	Kagoshima	73.25
29th	Niigata	60.84
30th	Mie	60.30
31st	Nagasaki	59.04
32nd	Ishikawa	57.59
33rd	Yamanashi	57.44
34th	Shiga	49.66
35th	Fukui	42.77
36th	Shimane	41.74
37th	Gifu	38.92
38th	Wakayama	38.57
39th	Ehime	34.84
40th	Tottori	33.16
41st	Toyama	27.70
42nd	Kagawa	25.75
43rd	Yamagata	13.33
44th	Oita	11.08
45th	Aomori	10.03
46th	Tokushima	5.68
47th	Iwate	-11.75



J9 Number of foreign students (per 10,000 population)

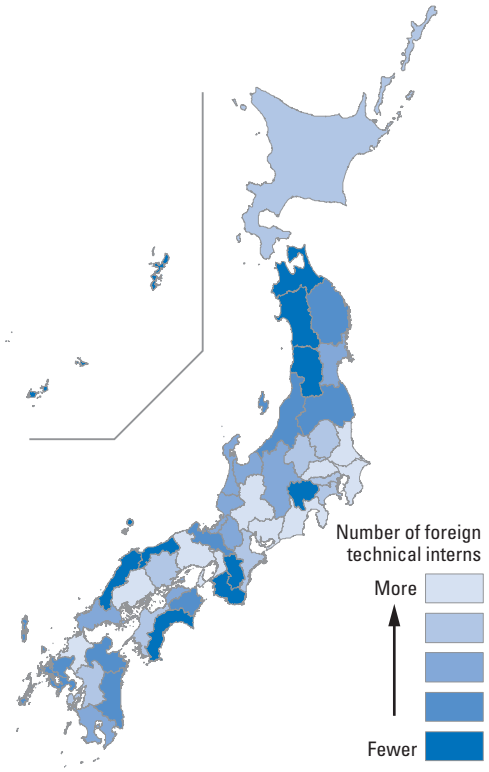
Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Tokyo	76.5
2nd	Kyoto	43.7
3rd	Fukuoka	34.2
4th	Oita	30.8
5th	Gunma	30.5
6th	Osaka	24.5
7th	Ibaraki	18.7
8th	Chiba	18.4
9th	Yamaguchi	17.6
10th	Miyagi	17.1
11th	Hyogo	16.8
12th	Ishikawa	16.6
13th	Okayama	15.9
14th	Tochigi	15.2
15th	Okinawa	15.1
16th	Hiroshima	14.3
17th	Saitama	14.1
18th	Nagasaki	13.7
19th	Aichi	12.4
20th	Yamanashi	12.3
21st	Kanagawa	10.7
22nd	Niigata	9.8
23rd	Gifu	9.4
24th	Nara	8.8

Ranking	Prefecture	People
25th	Saga	7.7
26th	Shizuoka	7.4
27th	Nagano	7.1
28th	Mie	6.6
29th	Hokkaido	6.4
29th	Kagoshima	6.4
31st	Kumamoto	6.2
32nd	Toyama	6.1
33rd	Fukui	5.2
34th	Tokushima	4.9
35th	Kagawa	4.8
36th	Miyazaki	4.5
37th	Akita	4.2
38th	Shimane	3.9
39th	Ehime	3.8
40th	Fukushima	3.7
40th	Wakayama	3.7
42nd	Tottori	3.6
43rd	Shiga	3.0
44th	Kochi	2.9
45th	Aomori	2.5
45th	Iwate	2.5
47th	Yamagata	2.4



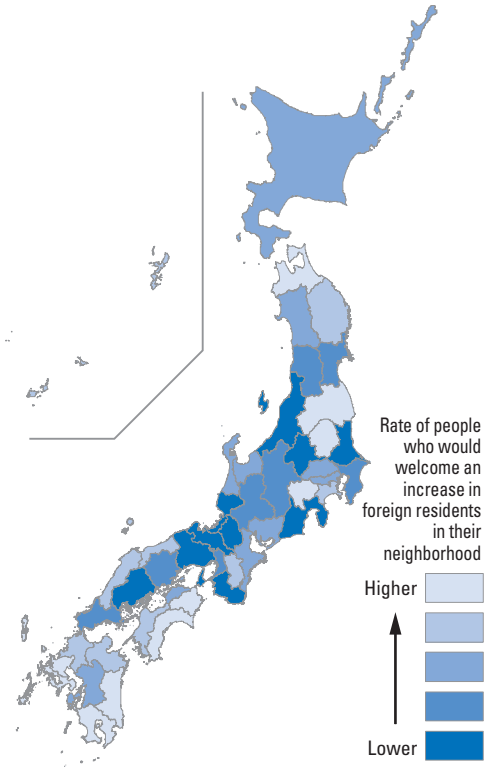
J10 Number of foreign technical interns

Ranking	Prefecture	People
1st	Aichi	28,805
2nd	Ibaraki	13,841
3rd	Hiroshima	13,840
4th	Chiba	13,362
5th	Saitama	12,616
6th	Gifu	11,600
7th	Osaka	10,637
8th	Shizuoka	10,482
9th	Fukuoka	9,170
10th	Hyogo	8,741
11th	Mie	8,617
12th	Hokkaido	8,610
13th	Kanagawa	8,292
14th	Gunma	7,484
15th	Okayama	7,436
16th	Tokyo	7,382
17th	Tochigi	5,790
18th	Ehime	5,753
19th	Kumamoto	5,700
20th	Toyama	4,906
20th	Kagawa	4,906
22nd	Nagano	4,891
23rd	Shiga	4,155
24th	Ishikawa	4,146
25th	Yamaguchi	3,788
26th	Kagoshima	3,738
27th	Fukui	3,582
28th	Miyagi	3,283
29th	Fukushima	3,066
30th	Oita	3,043
31st	Kyoto	3,018
32nd	Nagasaki	2,835
33rd	Niigata	2,799
34th	Iwate	2,553
35th	Tokushima	2,511
36th	Miyazaki	2,424
37th	Saga	2,157
38th	Nara	1,824
39th	Shimane	1,778
40th	Aomori	1,650
41st	Yamagata	1,563
42nd	Yamanashi	1,535
43rd	Tottori	1,378
44th	Kochi	1,355
45th	Okinawa	1,330
46th	Wakayama	892
47th	Akita	847



J11 Rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents in their neighborhood

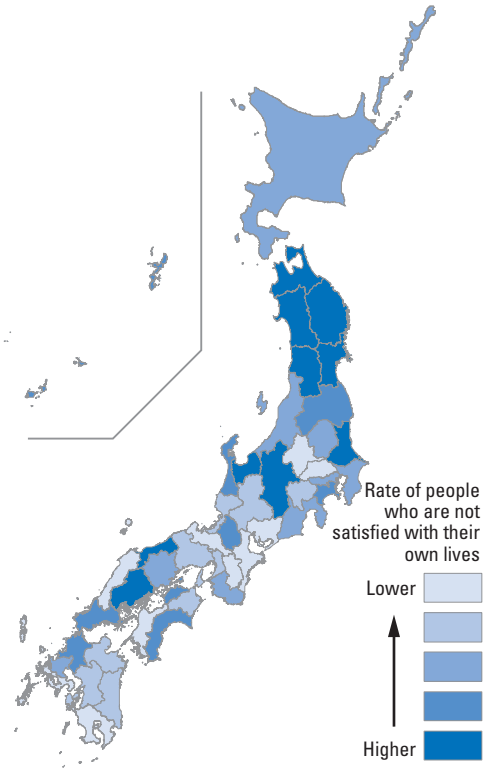
Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Nagasaki	26.0
2nd	Tochigi	25.0
2nd	Kagoshima	25.0
2nd	Fukushima	25.0
2nd	Saga	25.0
6th	Yamanashi	23.7
7th	Kochi	22.4
8th	Miyazaki	22.0
8th	Aomori	22.0
10th	Tokushima	21.1
11th	Ehime	21.0
11th	Nara	21.0
11th	Okinawa	21.0
14th	Fukuoka	20.5
14th	Kanagawa	20.5
16th	Oita	20.0
16th	Iwate	20.0
18th	Shimane	19.7
18th	Tottori	19.7
20th	Hokkaido	19.3
21st	Kumamoto	19.0
22nd	Tokyo	18.8
23rd	Saitama	18.2
24th	Toyama	18.0
25th	Aichi	17.6
26th	Kagawa	17.1
27th	Mie	17.0
27th	Ishikawa	17.0
27th	Akita	17.0
30th	Okayama	16.0
30th	Yamaguchi	16.0
30th	Yamagata	16.0
33rd	Osaka	15.9
33rd	Gifu	15.9
33rd	Nagano	15.9
36th	Miyagi	15.1
37th	Chiba	14.8
38th	Hyogo	14.2
39th	Hiroshima	13.5
39th	Niigata	13.5
41st	Fukui	13.2
42nd	Ibaraki	12.7
42nd	Shizuoka	12.7
44th	Shiga	12.0
45th	Kyoto	11.9
46th	Gunma	11.0
47th	Wakayama	9.2



K1 Rate of people who are not satisfied with their own lives

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Kagoshima	16.0
2nd	Nagasaki	20.0
3rd	Kyoto	20.6
4th	Mie	22.0
4th	Nara	22.0
6th	Saitama	22.2
7th	Shimane	22.4
8th	Gunma	23.0
8th	Ehime	23.0
10th	Aichi	23.3
11th	Yamanashi	23.7
12th	Gifu	23.8
13th	Osaka	23.9
13th	Hyogo	23.9
15th	Miyazaki	24.0
16th	Fukui	25.0
16th	Tokushima	25.0
16th	Kumamoto	25.0
16th	Oita	25.0
20th	Shizuoka	25.4
21st	Hokkaido	25.6
21st	Tokyo	25.6
23rd	Wakayama	26.3
23rd	Saga	26.3

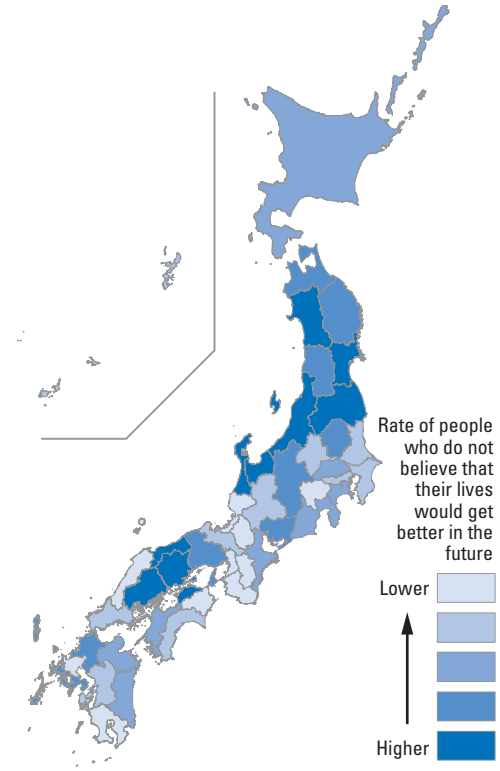
Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Tochigi	27.0
25th	Okayama	27.0
27th	Chiba	27.3
28th	Niigata	27.8
29th	Shiga	28.0
30th	Fukuoka	28.4
31st	Kagawa	28.9
31st	Kochi	28.9
33rd	Fukushima	29.0
33rd	Kanagawa	29.0
33rd	Ishikawa	29.0
33rd	Yamaguchi	29.0
37th	Okinawa	30.0
38th	Ibaraki	31.0
38th	Nagano	31.0
40th	Miyagi	31.7
41st	Akita	32.0
42nd	Hiroshima	32.5
43rd	Iwate	33.0
43rd	Yamagata	33.0
43rd	Toyama	33.0
46th	Aomori	35.0
47th	Tottori	35.5



K2 Rate of people who do not believe that their lives would get better in the future

Ranking	Prefecture	%
1st	Fukui	24.1
2nd	Saga	25.1
2nd	Shimane	25.1
4th	Kagoshima	26.0
5th	Nara	28.1
6th	Osaka	29.4
7th	Shiga	30.0
8th	Yamanashi	30.3
9th	Wakayama	30.4
10th	Tokushima	30.6
11th	Yamaguchi	30.9
12th	Kyoto	31.8
12th	Chiba	31.8
14th	Kochi	32.0
14th	Okinawa	32.0
16th	Gunma	32.3
17th	Tokyo	32.8
18th	Ibaraki	34.1
18th	Gifu	34.1
18th	Kumamoto	34.1
21st	Kanagawa	34.6
22nd	Mie	34.9
23rd	Miyazaki	35.2
23rd	Oita	35.2

Ranking	Prefecture	%
25th	Hokkaido	35.8
26th	Shizuoka	36.5
27th	Saitama	36.9
28th	Ehime	37.3
29th	Nagasaki	38.1
29th	Nagano	38.1
31st	Tochigi	38.2
32nd	Iwate	38.3
33rd	Fukuoka	38.6
34th	Aichi	38.8
35th	Yamagata	39.0
36th	Hyogo	39.8
37th	Aomori	40.0
38th	Fukushima	40.2
39th	Niigata	40.5
40th	Tottori	40.8
41st	Toyama	41.0
42nd	Akita	41.2
43rd	Miyagi	42.0
44th	Hiroshima	42.8
45th	Ishikawa	43.3
46th	Okayama	46.2
47th	Kagawa	50.4



Chapter 2

Prefectural HDI Scores

1. Indexing Method

In order to provide a comprehensive comparison of how prefectures perform, indicators were summarized as three indices (Life, Livelihood and Dignity) according to the method used by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to calculate the Human Development Index (HDI). HDI is a simple indicator of three dimensions of human development: income, health and education, and is used to measure a country's average level of achievement (UNDP, Human Development Report).

Using this method, the prefectural-level statistical data for each indicator was normalized to have a value from 0 to 1. For indicators where higher values are desirable, such as "average life expectancy at birth" and "total fertility rate," the data was normalized using the following formula to give a maximum value of 1 and a minimum value of 0. Each data point X was normalized to a value Y with a maximum value of 1 and a minimum of 0.

$$Y = \frac{X - x_{\min}}{x_{max} - x_{\min}}$$

For indicators where lower values are desirable (or where a high value indicates the existence of a problem to be solved), such as "number of deaths due to traffic accidents" and "medical expenses per person," the formula below was used to produce a maximum value of 1 and a minimum of 0. In this case, Y is 0 when X is at its maximum, and 1 when at its minimum.

$$Y = \frac{X - x_{max}}{x_{\min} - x_{max}}$$

Using the formulae above, each indicator was converted to a variable between 0 and 1. The indices for each of the Life (23), Livelihood (42), and Dignity (26) indicators presented in Chapter 1–2 were totaled together, and their averages were used to calculate Life, Livelihood and Dignity indices for each prefecture. Some indicators were excluded from the calculation of indices because it was difficult to determine whether higher or lower numbers were desirable, or because the data was not necessarily comprehensive (such indicators as B8: number of people with disabilities, E7: number of people living in facilities for the elderly, and F2: number of UNESCO schools). Having excluded these indicators, Life (22), Livelihood (40), and Dignity (26) indices were calculated, then combined to produce an Overall index (88 items).

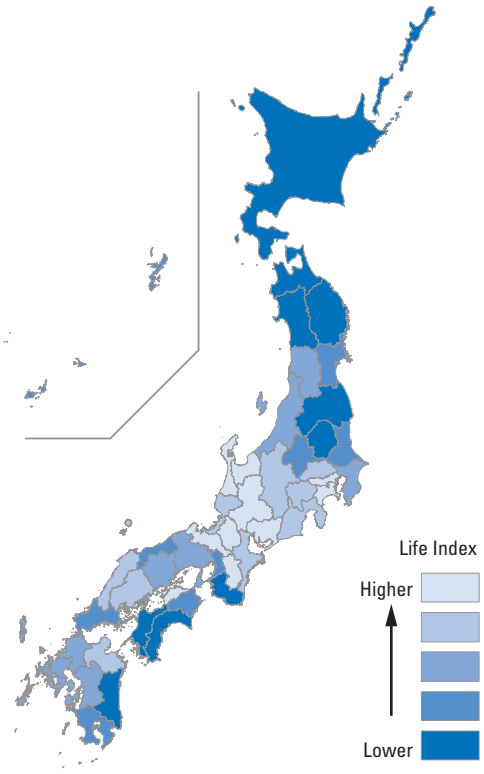
The following table shows which of the above two formulae was chosen, and why, for a number of other indicators.

Indicator		Indexing Method	Reason
A5:	Unmarried rate (at age 50)	Lower rate: closer to 1 Higher rate: closer to 0	Questions about "marriage as an option" and "hurdles to marriage and reasons for staying single" were asked in a 2015 survey of unmarried people by the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research. In relation to these questions, the survey results showed that 85% of respondents wished to get married, but cited "financial, housing, and occupational issues/constraints" as barriers to doing so, producing a disparity with their desires in life.
A7:	Rate of children in single-parent households	Lower rate: closer to 1 Higher rate: closer to 0	The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW)'s Nationwide Survey on Single-Parent Households (2016) showed that the average income of single-parent households was lower compared to the average income of households with children as a whole. Overall, children in single-parent households require more public support than those in other households.
B6:	Proportion of people taking regular health checks	Higher proportion: closer to 1 Lower proportion: closer to 0	A 2010 study by Tohoku University Professor Atsushi Hozawa and others found that those who underwent regular health checks had lower mortality rates than those who did not.
B12:	Average number of walking steps per day	Higher number: closer to 1 Lower number: closer to 0	The MHLW 's "Kenko-Nippon-21" ("Healthy Japan 21") identified the importance of peoples' levels of physical activity. Those who were more physically active or exercise more often had lower morbidity and mortality. Moreover, physical activity and exercise were found to have a beneficial effect on mental health and quality of life.
D9:	Athletic ability of children (average national sport test score)	Higher level: closer to 1 Lower level: closer to 0	The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)'s 24th Central Council for Education (2002) showed that reductions in children's levels of physical ability led to future lifestyle-related diseases, as well as having an impact on children and society as a whole. Accordingly, guidelines have been issued that include creating an environment in which children's physical ability can improve.
D10:	Number of social education classes	Higher number: closer to 1 Lower number: closer to 0	Many local governments actively encourage citizens' participation in social education classes. These provide opportunities to learn about a wide range of subjects, from those useful for day-to-day life to local issues. These might include the nearby environment, social welfare, and thinking about community development by reviewing the area's history and nature.
F4:	Greenhouse gas emissions per person (per year)	Lower amount: closer to 1 Higher amount: closer to 0	It should be noted that this is not directly related to energy conservation efforts; prefectures with small populations where heavy chemical industries are located, as well as those in colder regions, will tend to have higher emissions per person. However, measures to combat global warming are urgently required, and must be made in line with the government's greenhouse gas emissions reduction targets.
G6:	Number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare (per week)	Higher number: closer to 1 Lower number: closer to 0	One of the goals of the Fourth Basic Plan for Gender Equality deals with the time that husbands with children under six spend on housework and childcare.
J8:	Rate of increase in foreign residents	Higher rate: closer to 1 Lower rate: closer to 0	According to a United Nations report ranking the happiness of countries and regions around the world, the factors driving Japan's ranking down include its low figures for "freedom to make life choices" and "generosity." Multi-lingual and multicultural coexistence are important factors that boost the happiness and international outlook of the local community.
J10:	Number of foreign technical interns	Higher number: closer to 1 Lower number: closer to 0	Many issues have been pointed out with respect to Japan's intake of foreign technical interns, including human rights problems (see Chapter 12 in Part 2). This indicator is added to cover foreign residents more broadly, alongside long-term residents and international students, thereby illustrating the "international outlook of a region."

2. Life Index

The Life index scores by prefecture show many high-performing prefectures in the Tokai (Aichi, Gifu, Shizuoka), Hokuriku (Toyama, Ishikawa, Fukui), Kinki, and South Kanto (Tokyo, Kanagawa, Saitama, Chiba) regions. Conversely, low scores can be observed among many prefectures in Tohoku, Hokkaido, North Kanto (Gunma, Ibaraki, Tochigi), and Shikoku. These prefectures share a great number of common issues that should be addressed with regard to residents' health, such as high medical expenses per person, high rates of smoking among adults, short average life expectancy at birth, and short healthy life expectancy (HALE). They also have common characteristics in terms of social structure, with low fertility rates, depopulation in progress, as well as high numbers of deaths by suicide and suicidal ideation. In these regions, it will be necessary to improve residents' health, bolster mutual and public support, and improve social structures.

Figure / Table 1: Life index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Aichi	0.662
2nd	Shiga	0.660
3rd	Tokyo	0.651
4th	Toyama	0.643
5th	Ishikawa	0.641
6th	Kyoto	0.630
7th	Gifu	0.622
8th	Kanagawa	0.608
9th	Nara	0.608
10th	Kagawa	0.605
11th	Yamanashi	0.604
12th	Fukui	0.599
13th	Nagano	0.597
14th	Saitama	0.596
15th	Shizuoka	0.591
16th	Mie	0.587
17th	Shimane	0.577
18th	Hiroshima	0.576
19th	Oita	0.571
20th	Chiba	0.570
21st	Okayama	0.563
22nd	Niigata	0.562
23rd	Saga	0.560
24th	Hyogo	0.559

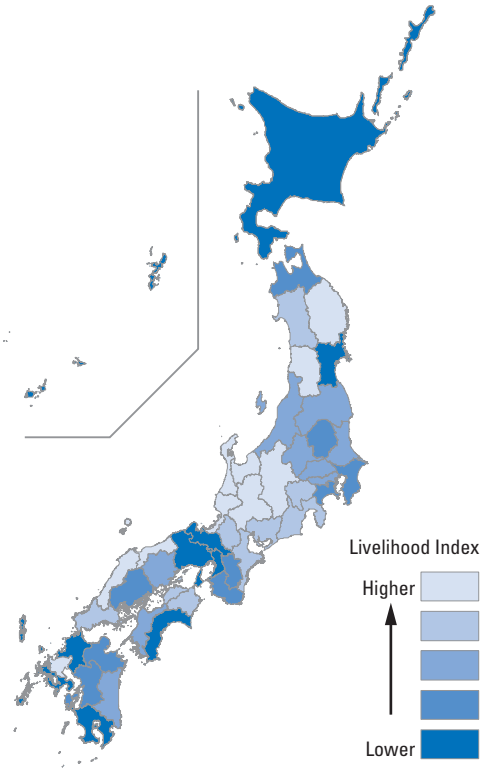
Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Fukuoka	0.556
26th	Yamagata	0.556
27th	Kumamoto	0.550
28th	Nagasaki	0.549
29th	Kagoshima	0.548
30th	Okinawa	0.546
31st	Gunma	0.528
32nd	Miyagi	0.523
33rd	Yamaguchi	0.520
33th	Osaka	0.520
35th	Tokushima	0.519
36th	Tottori	0.500
37th	Ibaraki	0.500
38th	Ehime	0.495
39th	Kochi	0.489
40th	Miyazaki	0.486
41st	Tochigi	0.482
42nd	Wakayama	0.479
43rd	Akita	0.416
44th	Fukushima	0.407
45th	Hokkaido	0.404
46th	Iwate	0.369
47th	Aomori	0.340

Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

3. Livelihood Index

Looking at the Livelihood index by prefecture, many prefectures with high index scores can be observed in the Hokuriku (Toyama, Ishikawa, Fukui), Koshin (Yamanashi, Niigata), and San'in (Tottori, Okayama) regions. Meanwhile, many of those with low index scores are located in such regions as Hokkaido, South Kanto, Kinki, Kyushu and Okinawa. What these prefectures have in common is numerous issues to be addressed in terms of their economies and the welfare of their citizens: unemployment and non-regular employment rates, low regular employment rates for single-parent households, and high rates of households receiving child-rearing allowance and livelihood protection allowance. They also seem to share characteristics in terms of their social structures regarding education, showing a tendency towards high rates of high school dropouts and children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten. These results imply the need for improvements to employment, the economy, and education in these regions.

Figure / Table 2: Livelihood index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Fukui	0.677
2nd	Toyama	0.630
3rd	Nagano	0.593
4th	Ishikawa	0.592
5th	Shimane	0.559
6th	Yamagata	0.558
7th	Tottori	0.557
8th	Iwate	0.554
9th	Saga	0.552
10th	Gifu	0.550
11th	Akita	0.547
12th	Yamaguchi	0.534
13th	Yamanashi	0.533
14th	Shiga	0.526
15th	Mie	0.525
16th	Shizuoka	0.522
17th	Aichi	0.522
18th	Tokushima	0.522
19th	Kagawa	0.519
20th	Miyazaki	0.517
21st	Niigata	0.509
22nd	Saitama	0.509
23rd	Tokyo	0.509
24th	Ibaraki	0.507

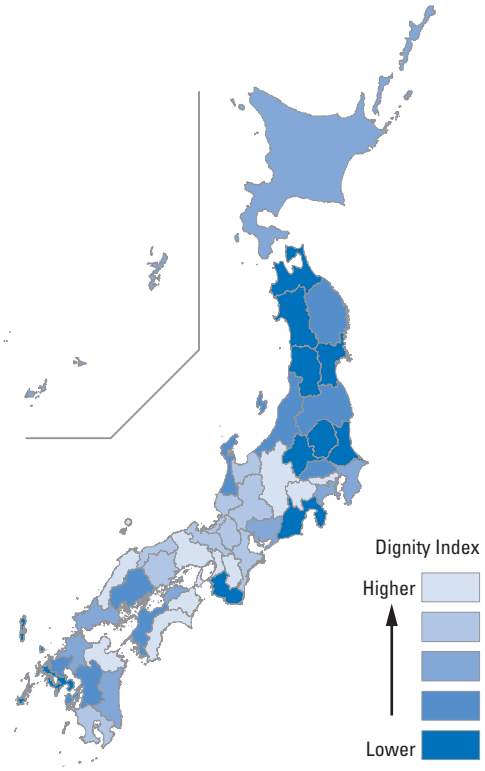
Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Fukushima	0.503
26th	Okayama	0.502
27th	Ehime	0.501
28th	Gunma	0.501
29th	Oita	0.499
30th	Kumamoto	0.494
31st	Hiroshima	0.494
32nd	Chiba	0.491
33rd	Wakayama	0.486
34th	Tochigi	0.483
35th	Nara	0.477
36th	Kanagawa	0.475
37th	Aomori	0.470
38th	Kochi	0.462
39th	Nagasaki	0.449
40th	Hokkaido	0.434
41st	Kagoshima	0.432
42nd	Kyoto	0.430
43rd	Hyogo	0.426
44th	Fukuoka	0.423
45th	Miyagi	0.398
46th	Osaka	0.358
47th	Okinawa	0.331

Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

4. Dignity Index

The Dignity index scores for each prefecture show many high-performing prefectures in the Kinki, Koshin, and San'in regions. Tokyo's position is boosted by its unique circumstances relative to other prefectures, such as its high numbers of lawyers, people making hometown tax payments, and NPOs. Conversely, low scores can be observed among many prefectures in such regions as Tohoku and North Kanto. Nationwide, there is a trend for Dignity index scores to be higher in the west of Japan and lower in the east. Those prefectures with low index scores have lower numbers of state-designated cultural properties, cultural facilities, and neighborhood associations, sharing many issues to be addressed in terms of the indicators for community and civic engagement among residents. In prefectures with high Dignity index scores, the social structures relating to community and individual dignity also seem to share common characteristics: people tend to have high levels of satisfaction with their own lives and high hopes and expectations for their futures.

Figure / Table 3: Dignity index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Tokyo	0.512
2nd	Nara	0.484
3rd	Shimane	0.482
4th	Nagano	0.466
5th	Oita	0.464
6th	Tokushima	0.462
7th	Yamanashi	0.455
8th	Kochi	0.452
9th	Hyogo	0.441
10th	Osaka	0.440
11th	Kyoto	0.437
12th	Tottori	0.434
13th	Mie	0.432
14th	Gifu	0.411
15th	Fukui	0.408
16th	Shiga	0.408
17th	Kagoshima	0.403
18th	Toyama	0.403
19th	Okayama	0.395
20th	Miyazaki	0.394
21st	Kagawa	0.393
22nd	Hokkaido	0.392
23rd	Okinawa	0.389
24th	Chiba	0.388

Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Aichi	0.387
26th	Kanagawa	0.385
27th	Yamaguchi	0.385
28th	Fukuoka	0.384
29th	Saga	0.378
30th	Fukushima	0.376
31st	Ehime	0.373
32nd	Kumamoto	0.372
33rd	Ishikawa	0.371
34th	Saitama	0.368
35th	Iwate	0.367
36th	Niigata	0.367
37th	Hiroshima	0.366
38th	Nagasaki	0.366
39th	Gunma	0.363
40th	Shizuoka	0.361
41st	Yamagata	0.353
42nd	Ibaraki	0.350
43rd	Tochigi	0.340
44th	Wakayama	0.331
45th	Akita	0.328
46th	Aomori	0.326
47th	Miyagi	0.320

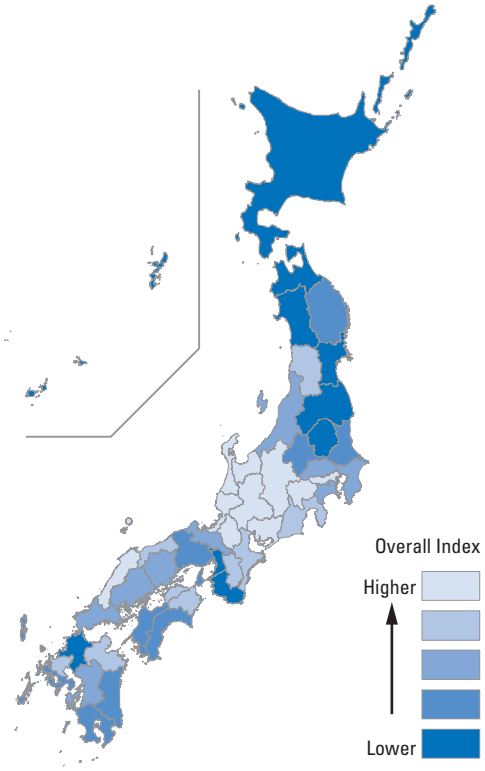
Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

5. Overall Index

The Overall index scores by prefecture show many high-index prefectures in the Hokuriku, Koshin and Chubu regions. Many of the prefectures with high Overall index scores have high Livelihood index scores, having advantageous conditions in terms of the economy, working environment, education, welfare and lifestyle. These prefectures also perform well in the Life index, with good average life expectancy at birth, high rates of people taking regular health checks, showing high levels of health awareness among residents. On the other hand, the Dignity index shows many issues to be addressed in terms of the conditions surrounding women and children, trust in public institutions, community, civic engagement and levels of individual life satisfaction.

At the other end of the spectrum, the prefectures with low Overall index scores are the Tohoku prefectures (excluding Yamagata), Hokkaido, Okinawa, and Osaka. Many of these prefectures are ranked low in the Life index and Livelihood index, and they have a great number of issues that need to be addressed in areas including life, health, the economy, labor, and education. The prefectures that suffered heavy

Figure / Table 4: Overall index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Fukui	0.578
2nd	Toyama	0.568
3rd	Nagano	0.557
4th	Tokyo	0.548
5th	Ishikawa	0.542
6th	Shimane	0.542
7th	Yamanashi	0.529
8th	Gifu	0.529
9th	Shiga	0.527
10th	Aichi	0.520
11th	Mie	0.515
12th	Nara	0.514
13th	Oita	0.508
14th	Tottori	0.506
15th	Kagawa	0.506
16th	Saga	0.504
17th	Tokushima	0.504
18th	Yamagata	0.498
19th	Shizuoka	0.494
20th	Saitama	0.492
21st	Okayama	0.488
22nd	Yamaguchi	0.487
23rd	Kyoto	0.486
24th	Kanagawa	0.485

Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Chiba	0.482
26th	Niigata	0.482
27th	Hiroshima	0.479
28th	Kumamoto	0.474
29th	Miyagi	0.473
30th	Gunma	0.468
31st	Kochi	0.466
32nd	Hyogo	0.466
33rd	Ehime	0.463
34th	Ibaraki	0.460
35th	Kagoshima	0.455
36th	Nagasaki	0.452
37th	Iwate	0.451
38th	Akita	0.449
39th	Fukuoka	0.447
40th	Tochigi	0.441
41st	Fukushima	0.441
42nd	Wakayama	0.440
43rd	Osaka	0.425
44th	Hokkaido	0.414
45th	Miyagi	0.409
46th	Okinawa	0.405
47th	Aomori	0.394

Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

damage from the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011 are found at the bottom of the Overall index, suggesting that the restoration of their living and social environments remains a serious challenge. Additionally, Osaka and Okinawa are at the very bottom in terms of such indicators as regular employment rate for single-parent households, households receiving livelihood protection allowance, and the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy. Many issues can be found in areas such as the economy, labor and welfare, and these issues must be addressed on a priority basis.

The Overall index is a ranking of prefectures based on objective data, but there are cases where even if the Overall index is high, residents' subjective levels of self-fulfillment and social connectivity are low.

Conversely, there are also cases where despite a low Overall index for the prefecture, residents show high levels of subjective self-fulfillment and enjoy strong social connectivity. In Chapter 3, subjective evaluations derived from an online questionnaire are used to explore these discrepancies between objective indicators and how people actually feel.

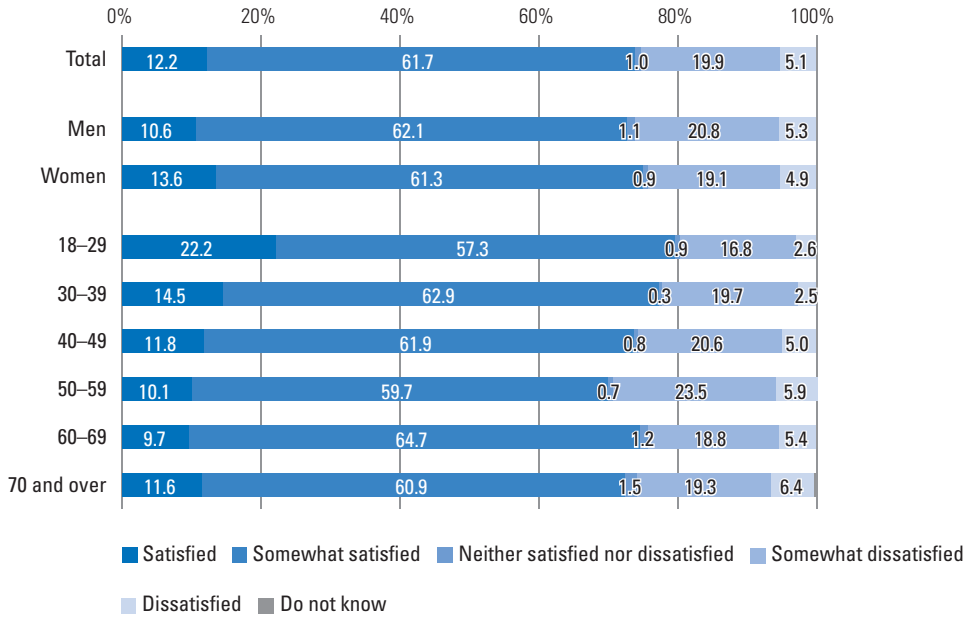
Chapter 3 Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations

As noted in Chapter 2, the prefectural data reveals a significant gap between the objective reality shown in the indicators and how residents actually feel. In order to examine this discrepancy, this Chapter presents the results of a questionnaire asking people their perceptions of their own lives, which are difficult to capture with the existing statistical data. Evaluations of self-fulfillment, anxiety, isolation, and social connectivity were collected according to respondents' age, gender, and prefecture (survey conducted online in August 2018, with 5,450 anonymous responses). Some of the questionnaire responses were analyzed quantitatively using the least squares method.

1. Self-fulfillment

In the *Public Opinion Survey on the Life of the People*, released by the Cabinet Office in August 2018, 73.9% of respondents answered that they were "satisfied" with their current lives, the highest ever rate. The breakdown of responses shows that when "can't say either way" is included, almost three out of four respondents regard their current situation positively, with 12.2% responding "satisfied" and 61.7% "somewhat satisfied." On the other hand, 19.9% said they were "somewhat dissatisfied" with their current lives, and 5.1% "dissatisfied," a total of almost one in

Figure 1: How satisfied are you with your current life?



Source: Cabinet Office, *Public Opinion Survey on the Life of the People* (Released August 2018)

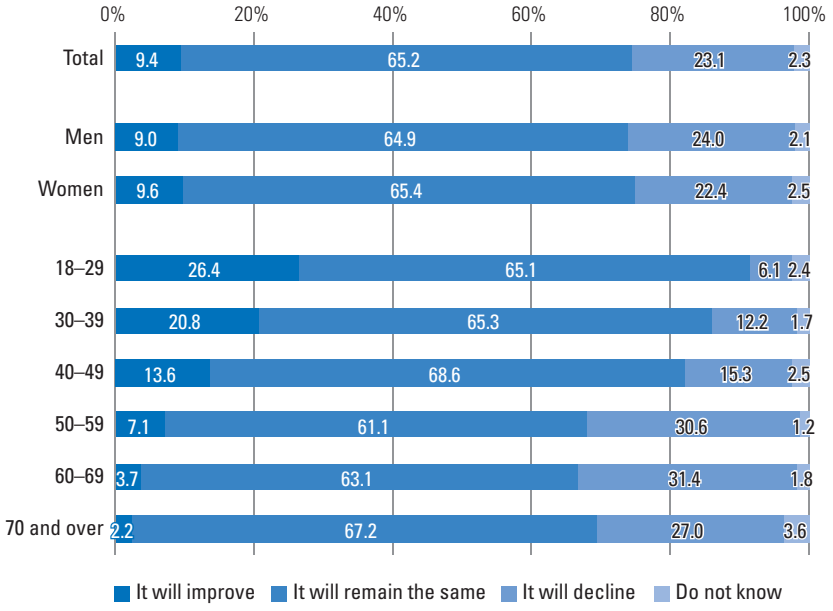
four people. The proportion of those dissatisfied increases successively in each higher age group, reaching a peak in the 50–59 age group (29.4%), before falling. Even among those aged 60 and over, however, almost one in four people has some sort of dissatisfaction (24.2% for 60–69s, 25.7% for those aged 70 and over) (**Figure 1**).

When asked about their future life prospects, 9.4% of respondents answered that things would improve, while more than twice as many (23.1%) said they would worsen. The proportion of people answering "worse" increases with age, exceeding 30 percent for the 50–69 age group. This suggests that relative to others, this generation suffers from a variety of anxieties about their lives (**Figure 2**).

While the Cabinet Office survey asked about peoples' daily lives, the survey conducted as a part of this project, which was administered at about the same time, asked people to evaluate their lives in ways that go beyond everyday conditions. Adding together those who answered they are satisfied (5.7%) or somewhat satisfied (37.2%) with their lives, and those who could not say either way (20.3%), 63.2% of respondents do not hold a negative view of their situation. This proportion is about 10% lower than in the Cabinet Office survey. The percentage of people who are not satisfied with their lives (26.7%) is almost identical to the combined total of "somewhat dissatisfied" and "dissatisfied" (25.0%) in the Cabinet Office survey, allowing us to say that one in four Japanese people are not satisfied with their lives (**Figure 3**).

In terms of gender, women (45.1%) are more satisfied than men (40.6%), and there is also a slightly lower proportion of women who said they are not satisfied (25.3% for women and 28.0% for men). Looking at the results by age, the proportion of respondents who are satisfied increases for both men and women in each higher age group,

Figure 2: How do you think the life of your household will change in the future?



Source: Cabinet Office, *Public Opinion Survey on the Life of the People* (Released August 2018)

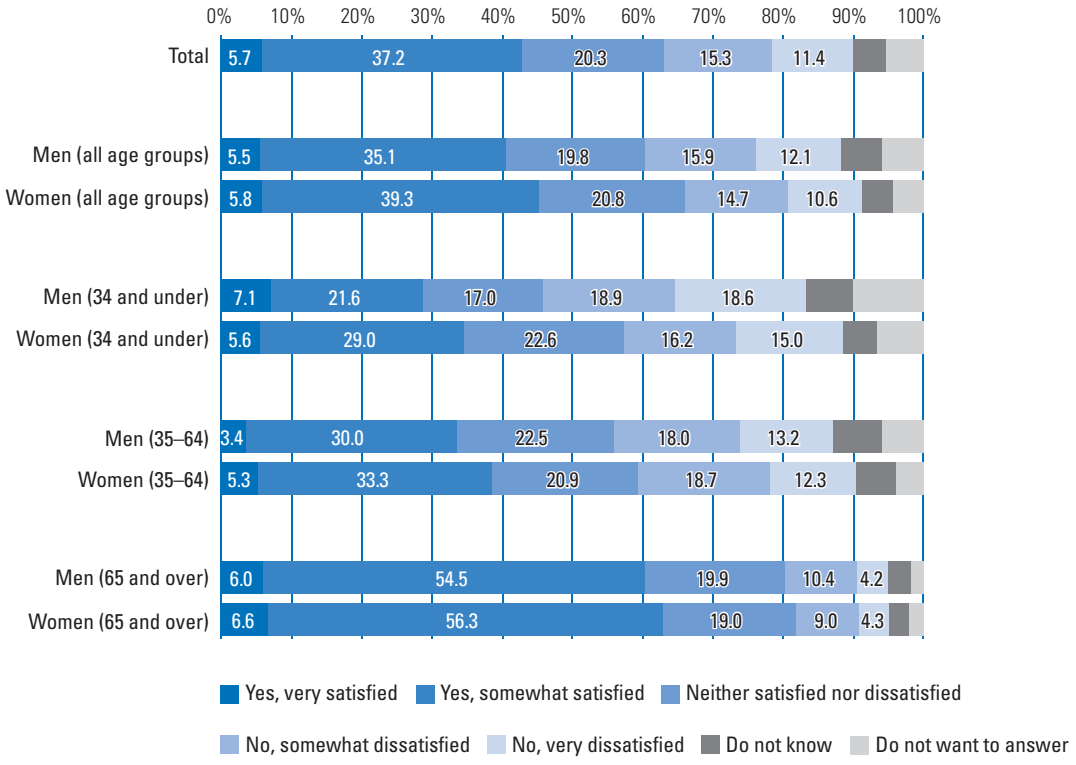
from 34 and under, to 35–64, to 65 and above. Conversely, the proportion of respondents who are dissatisfied shows a tendency to decrease with age. More than 6 out of 10 (61.6%) of people aged 65 and over are satisfied with their lives, an amount four times that of dissatisfied respondents (14.0%). This indicates that elderly people have fairly high levels of satisfaction.

It is difficult to find clear correlations in prefectural data, except that there is a statistically significant result among residents of Fukushima prefecture showing high levels of dissatisfaction with their lives. This suggests that the people of Fukushima have faced very difficult circumstances since the Great East Japan Earthquake and the nuclear accident.

There are also a number of prefectures with large disparities in satisfaction between men and women, including Ishikawa (the proportion of satisfied women is 29.6% higher than that of men), Kyoto (22.3% higher), Nagano (20.7% higher), Fukushima (19.9% higher), Fukui (16.7% higher), and Shimane (16.2% higher). It can also be seen that married people are more satisfied compared to those who are single. Meanwhile, those having many people to share their troubles with have high levels of satisfaction, while those having no one to do so have high levels of dissatisfaction.

In terms of their future lives, 21.0% of respondents think they will improve, almost double that amount (35.6%) think that they will not, and 30.2% answered that they are not sure either way. The results also show that people who are pessimistic about their futures have high levels of dissatisfaction with their lives (**Figure 4**).

Figure 3: Are you satisfied with your life?



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

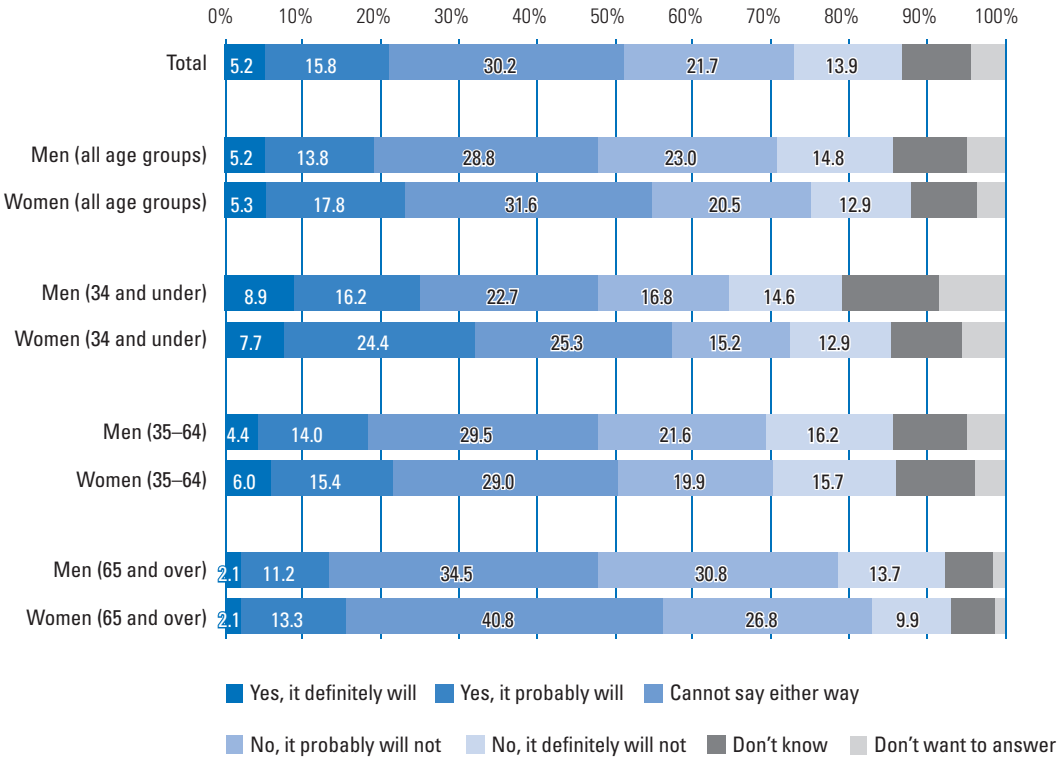
In terms of gender, women are more likely to think that life will improve than men (23.1% vs 19.0%), and less likely to think that it will not improve (33.4% vs 37.8%).

For both men and women, the higher the age group, the lower the percentage of respondents who think that life will improve. Similarly, the percentage who do not think it will improve tends higher with age. Among those aged 34 and under, the amount of people who believe life will improve in the future is almost the same as those who believe it will not (29.4% vs 28.7%). Among the 35–64 group, however, the proportion of people who think that life will not improve increases to almost double that of those who think it will (36.6% vs 20.1%). This trend is even more striking in those aged 65 and over (40.6% vs 14.4%), especially among men. This illustrates the difference between how young people, who have a long life ahead of them, and older people, who are currently living through their later years, view the future.

Among those aged 65 and over, the proportion of people who are dissatisfied with their lives is only a quarter that of those who are satisfied, implying high levels of satisfaction. However, the proportion of this group that believe their life will improve in the future is just 14.4%, with 40% believing that it will not. This is something to note as the aging of society continues to accelerate.

Looking at the data for each prefecture, Kagoshima had the highest rate of people who thought their life would improve, followed by Kyoto, Wakayama, Saga, Nara, Kumamoto, and Gifu. The lowest was Fukui, followed by Aomori, Tokushima, Toyama, and Ibaraki. In prefectures with high rates of people who think

Figure 4: Do you think your life will be better in the future?



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

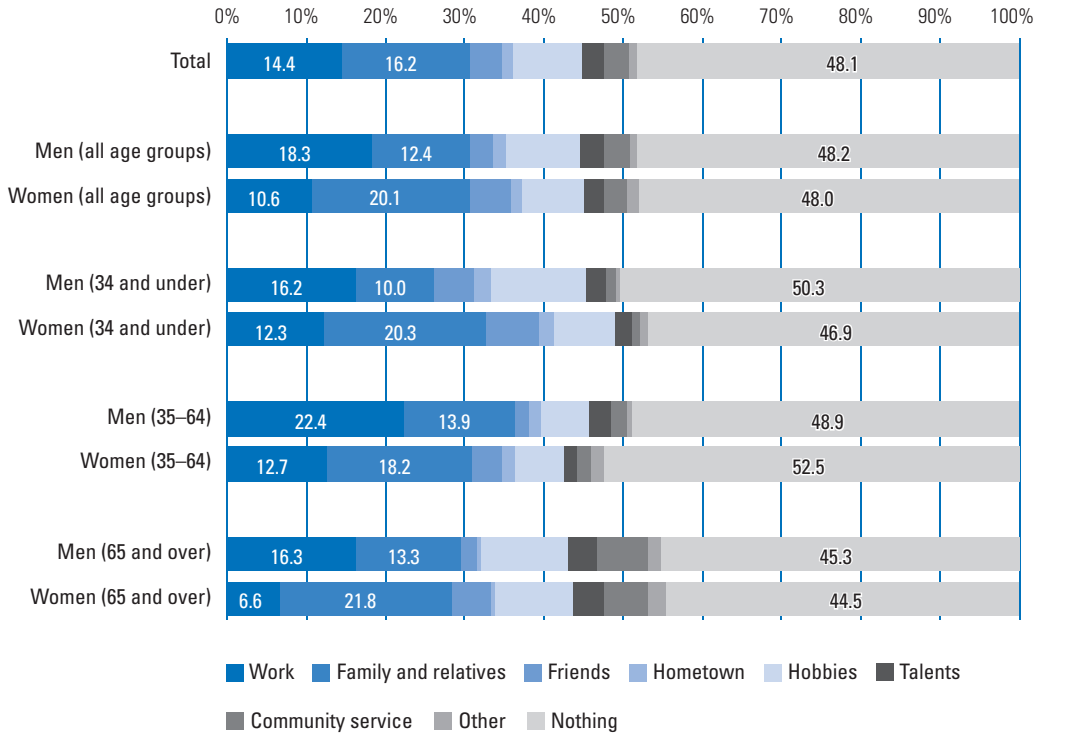
their lives will improve, the rate of people who think they will not improve is generally low. Similarly, in prefectures with low rates of people who think their lives will improve, the rate of people who think they will not improve is high.

To be proud of oneself, to have something to live for, to have hope for the future, to feel glad that one was born as a human being: this mindset forms the core of self-fulfillment. By ensuring people's dignity, human security aims to provide a sense that their own existences are meaningful. The answers given to the question "What are you proud of?" were "family and relatives" (16.2%), "work" (14.4%), "hobbies" (8.7%), "friends" (4.0%), "community service" (3.0%), "talents" (2.7%), and "hometown" (1.4%). It is notable that the most common answer is "nothing" (48.1%), making up about half of the responses. In other words, respondents are divided into those who feel pride in something (50.6%) and those who do not (48.1%).

The things common for men to be most proud of are "work" (18.3%), "hobbies" and "talents" (12.6%), and "family and relatives" (12.4%), while women answered "family and relatives" (20.1%), "work" (10.6%), and "hobbies" and "talents" (10.3%), showing a disparity between genders. Many people in the 65 and over age group are proud of their "community service" (**Figure 5**).

There is little difference between men (48.2%) and women (48.0%) in the proportion of those who answered that they have "nothing" to be proud of. However, looking at the responses by age group reveals a trend for the rate of those answering "nothing" to decrease with age. However, it is notable that the group with the

Figure 5: What are you most proud of?



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

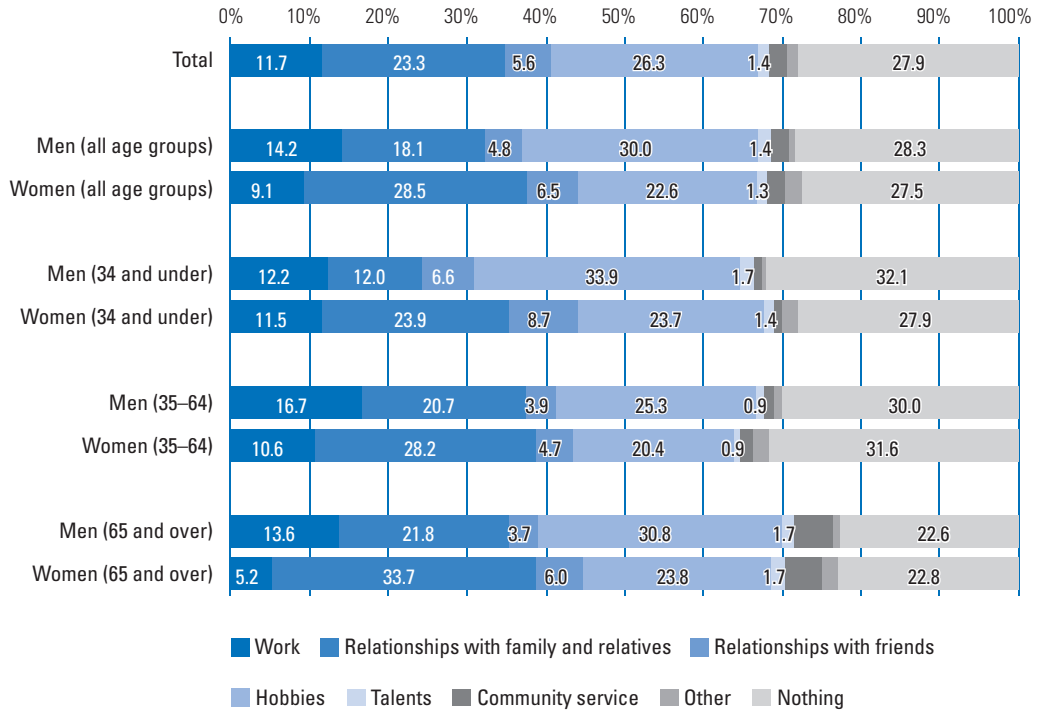
highest percentage of those answering "nothing" is women aged 35–64 (52.5%).

The results for each prefecture show that Fukui has the highest proportion of people with nothing to be proud of, followed by Shiga, Hyogo, Wakayama, and Shizuoka. The lowest rate of such responses is found in Miyazaki, followed by Kagoshima, Nagasaki, Tokyo, and Ishikawa. In terms of regional trends, these rates are lowest in Southern Kyushu.

The next question in the questionnaire asks "What gives you something to live for?," to which "nothing" (27.9%) is the most common answer, followed by "hobbies" (26.3%), "relationships with family and relatives" (23.3%), "work" (11.7%), "relationships with friends" (5.6%), "community service" (2.4%), and "talents" (1.4%). Among those who replied that they have something to live for, men cited "hobbies," "family and relatives," then "work," while for women it was "family and relatives," then "hobbies," showing a large gender difference. Both men and women show an increased tendency to answer "family and relatives" the higher the age group they are in. Men aged 34 or under are particularly likely to reply "hobbies" or "talents" (35.0%), followed by "nothing" (32.1%), "work" (12.2%), then "family and relatives" (12%). The proportion replying "work" is slightly higher in the 35–64 age group (16.7%), while for those aged 65 and over, the most common answers are "hobbies" or "talents" (35.5%), followed by "family and relatives" (21.8%) (**Figure 6**).

The percentage of respondents who answered that they have "nothing" gives them something to live for is slightly higher among men (28.3%) than women (27.5%). In terms of age groups,

Figure 6: What gives you something to live for?



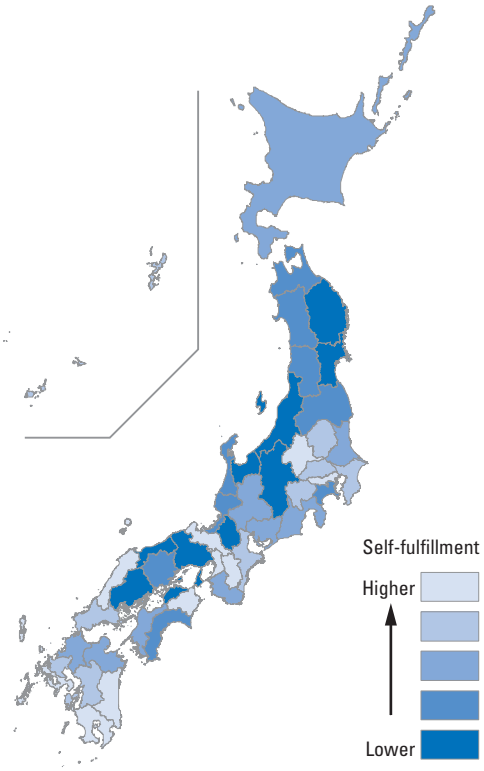
Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

over 30% answered "nothing" among those aged 34 and under (30.0%) and those aged 35–64 (30.8%), but this answer is relatively uncommon among those aged 65 and over (22.7%). The groups with the highest rate of those replying "nothing" are men under 34 (32.1%) and women between 35 and 64 (31.6%). Considering that over half of the men and women in these two age groups replied that they have nothing to be proud of, it may be that these are the age groups in which people have difficulty finding confidence and something to live for.

The results by prefecture show that Fukui has the highest proportion of those answering that "nothing" gives them something to live for, followed by Shiga, Hyogo, Kochi, and Ehime. The lowest rate of such responses is found in Miyazaki, followed by Kagoshima, Nagasaki, Akita, and Kumamoto.

The average rate of people who answered "I am not satisfied with my life," "I do not think my life will improve in the future," and "there is nothing that I am proud of" was calculated for each prefecture. **Figure / Table 7** shows these average values in order, starting with the lowest. The residents of higher-ranking prefectures can be considered to evaluate themselves more positively: i.e., to have greater self-fulfillment. Conversely, the residents of low-ranking prefectures can be considered to view the past, present, and future of their life negatively, showing weak self-fulfillment. This subjective measure of strong and weak self-fulfillment will also be considered in the following Chapter on prefecture profiles.

Figure / Table 7: Self-fulfillment index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Kagoshima	0.057
2nd	Miyazaki	0.211
3rd	Nagasaki	0.269
4th	Shimane	0.280
5th	Nara	0.300
6th	Kyoto	0.349
7th	Gunma	0.361
8th	Osaka	0.382
9th	Tokushima	0.390
10th	Tokyo	0.401
11th	Saitama	0.403
12th	Yamanashi	0.404
13th	Saga	0.413
14th	Okinawa	0.421
15th	Chiba	0.429
16th	Yamaguchi	0.435
17th	Kumamoto	0.455
18th	Mie	0.483
19th	Tochigi	0.515
20th	Hokkaido	0.526
21st	Shizuoka	0.527
22nd	Gifu	0.528
23rd	Ibaraki	0.528
24th	Fukuoka	0.548

Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Ehime	0.549
26th	Aichi	0.551
27th	Wakayama	0.560
28th	Oita	0.569
29th	Akita	0.572
30th	Ishikawa	0.586
31st	Fukushima	0.587
32nd	Yamagata	0.589
33rd	Fukui	0.614
34th	Kanagawa	0.624
35th	Kochi	0.644
36th	Aomori	0.646
37th	Okayama	0.652
38th	Toyama	0.656
39th	Niigata	0.656
40th	Miyagi	0.680
41st	Nagano	0.682
42nd	Hyogo	0.689
43rd	Hiroshima	0.691
44th	Iwate	0.691
45th	Shiga	0.692
46th	Kagawa	0.713
47th	Tottori	0.721

The prefectures are ordered according to the average rate of people who answered "I am not satisfied with my life," "I do not think my life will improve in the future," and "there is nothing that I am proud of," starting with the lowest. Higher-ranking prefectures can be considered to have higher levels of self-fulfillment among their residents.

Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

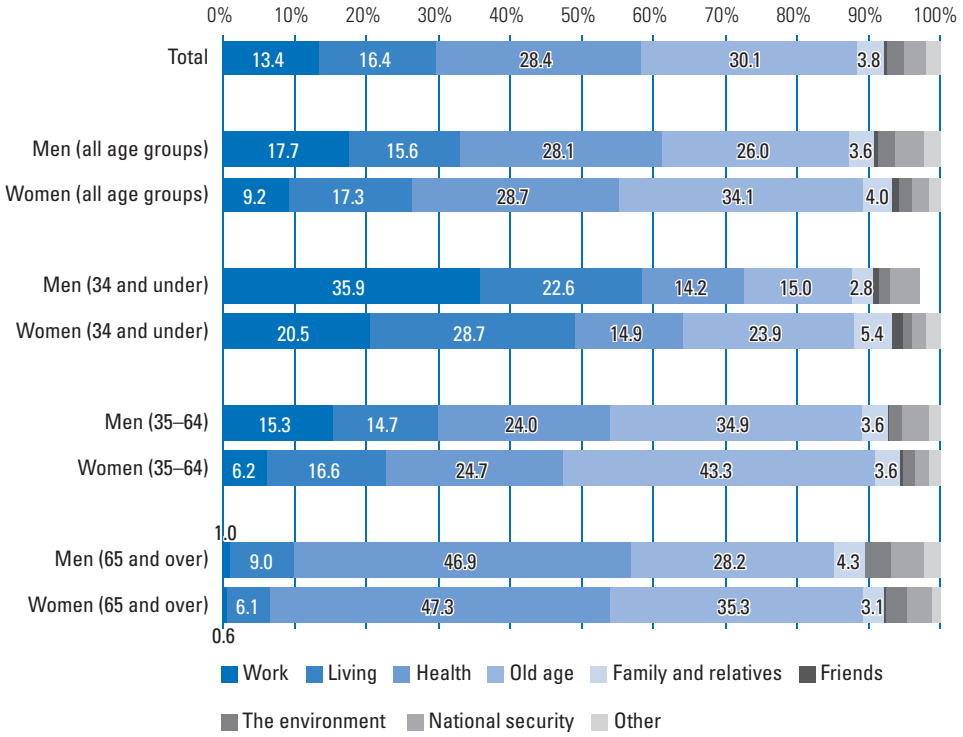
2. Anxiety

Based on Kinhide Mushakoji's view that "the basis of human security lies in the individual's right to respond to the anxieties they experience by seeking out safer living conditions and everyday security" ("An Open Letter on Human Security" 2002), the questionnaire asked respondents to choose the one thing in life that they are most worried about. The most common answers are "old age" (30.1%), "health" (28.4%), "living" (16.4%), and "work" (13.4%). In addition, some people also chose "family and relatives" (3.8%), "national security" (3.3%), "the environment" (2.1%), and "friends" (0.6%) (**Figure 8**).

The results of the question on whether people would welcome more foreigners in their neighborhoods will be explained in Part 2, Chapter 12 (Foreigners). However, a quantitative analysis of the results shows a trend for those who cited anxiety about "national security" to be less likely to welcome an increase in foreigners in their neighborhood. It was not possible to identify any correlation between anxieties about "work," "life," "health," etc. and people's stance toward the intake of foreigners. This could mean that people who are more concerned about national security than about future employment, etc., are more likely to be unwelcoming to foreigners.

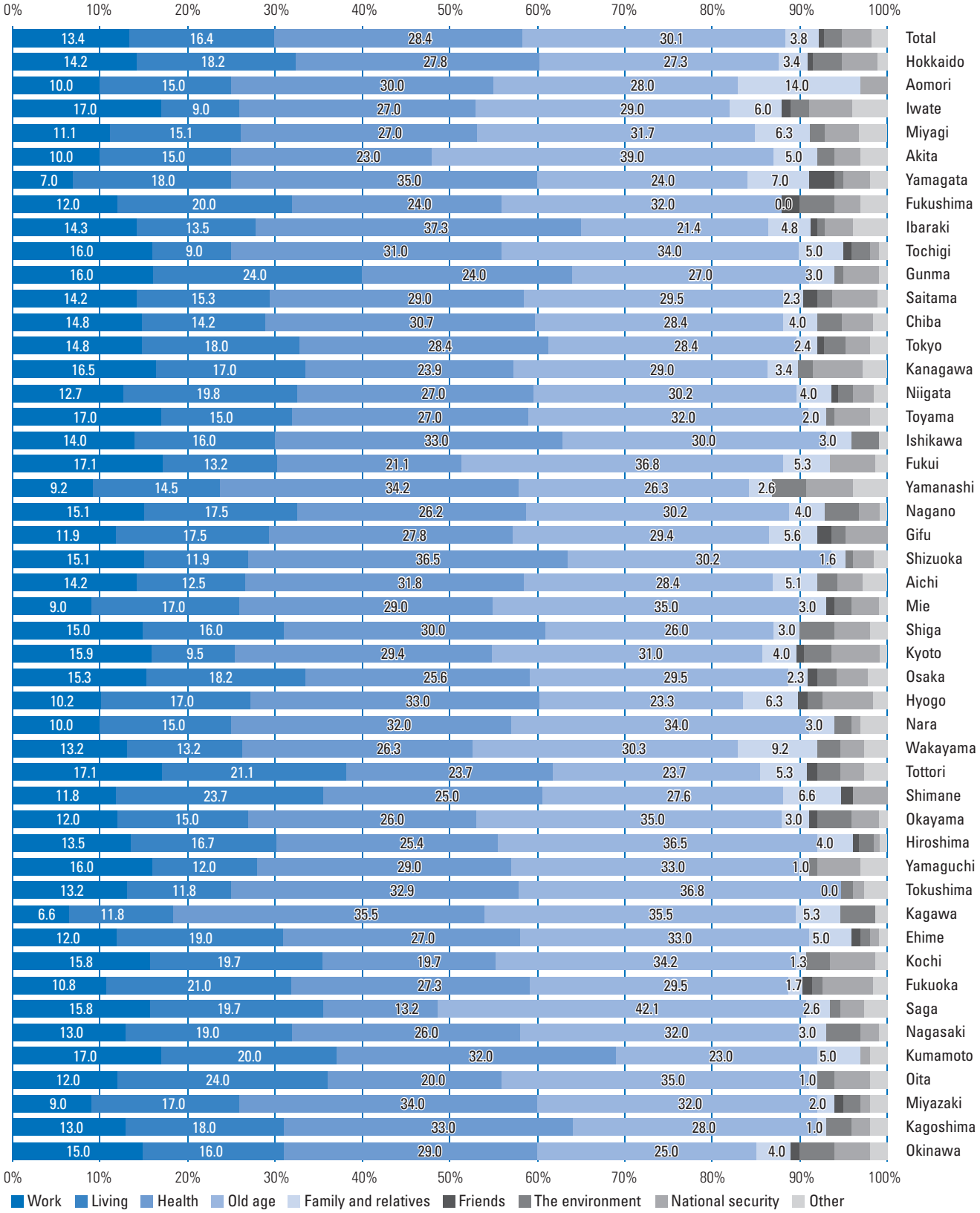
There are large differences between age groups in terms of what people are worried about. For those aged 34 and under, "work" (28.2%) and "living" (25.6%) are the major sources of anxiety. Within this group, men are more worried about "work" (35.9%), while women are more worried about "living" (28.7%). In the 35–64 age group, "old age" (39.4%) and "health" (24.3%) are the main concerns, while for those aged 65 and over,

Figure 8: What in life are you most worried about? (by gender and age group)



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

Figure 9: What in life are you most worried about? (by prefecture)



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

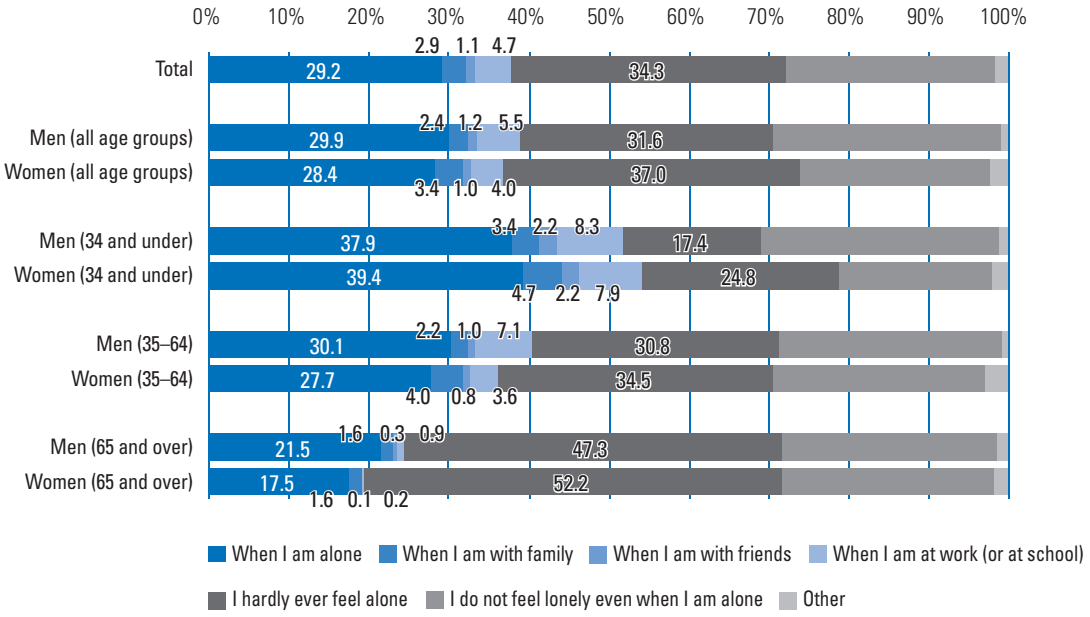
"health" (47.1%) is the biggest source of anxiety. In terms of gender, men are more worried than women about "work" (17.7%) and "national security" (4.1%), while women are more worried than men about "living" (17.3%).

Breaking down the results by prefecture shows anxiety factors largely in line with the characteristics of each age group, but in terms of typical anxieties, worries about "the environment" are more prevalent among people in Fukushima, Shiga, Okayama, Nagasaki, and Nagano than in other prefectures. In Kanagawa, Hyogo, and Fukuoka, people have more concerns about "national security" than in other prefectures. There are high levels of anxiety about "work" among people in Iwate, Toyama, Tottori, and Kumamoto, while concerns about "family" are more prevalent in Aomori and Wakayama (**Figure 9**).

3. Isolation and Social Connectivity

It comes as a surprise to find that, according to a recent Cabinet Office survey, 24.5% of single men (over 55 years old) answered that they had one conversation with family or friends per week, or that they barely had any conversations at all (this rate is 7.7% for single women). Although elderly men tend to be well off financially, they are more prone to isolation than elderly women (Cabinet Office, Survey on the Health of the Elderly, FY 2017). In this survey, when asked "When do you feel lonely?" the responses are divided into three categories: "I feel lonely" (37.9% in total), "I do not feel lonely" (34.3%), and "I do not feel lonely even though I am alone" (26.1%). Loneliness is highest among those aged 34 and under (52.9%), and in particular, young people show the highest levels of loneliness when they are alone (39.4% for women, 37.9% for men). The higher the age group, the smaller this number becomes, decreasing to 19.5% among those aged 65 and over, about half the rate found among young people. The number of responses

Figure 10: When do you feel lonely?



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

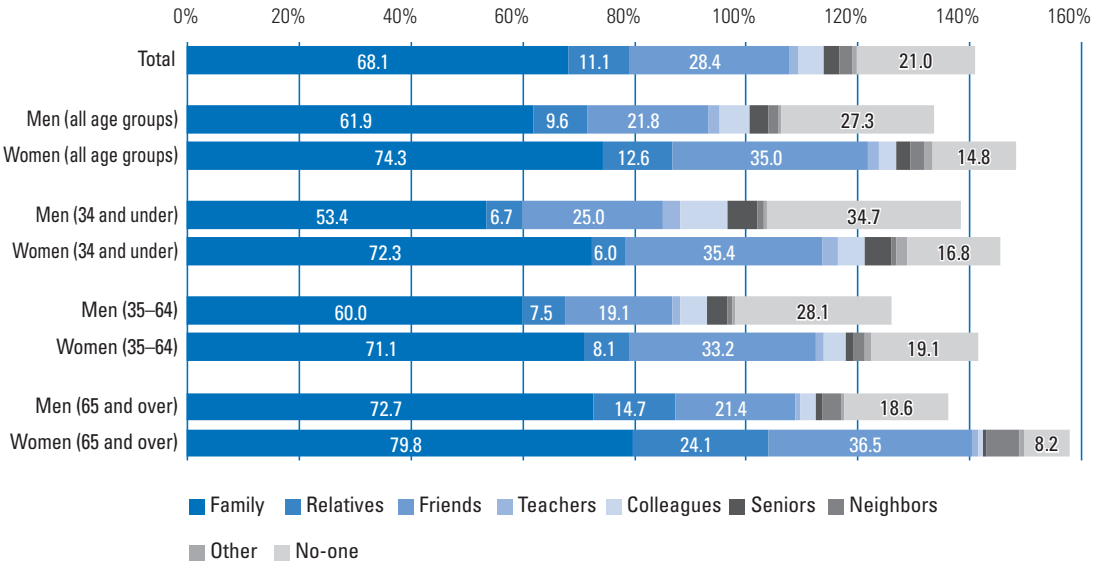
saying "I hardly ever feel alone" also increases with age, with about half of those aged 65 and over giving this answer (**Figure 10**).

By gender, the rate of men aged 65 and over who said they feel lonely is higher than that of women in the same age group (21.5% for men, 17.5% for women). More than half of women of this generation do not feel alone (52.2%), but this figure is slightly lower in men (47.3%), suggesting that elderly men are slightly more susceptible to feelings of loneliness. The rate of people answering "I do not feel lonely even when I am alone" is slightly higher among men than women. The lowest rate of "I do not feel lonely even when I am alone" responses is found in women aged 34 and under (19.2%), and this group also shows the highest rate of feeling lonely when alone (39.4%). This suggests that women in this age group have the strongest feelings of loneliness.

The results by prefecture show that the highest rate of feeling lonely when alone is in Ehime, followed by Fukui, Tochigi, Kochi, and Saga. The highest rate of respondents answering they do not feel alone, or do not feel lonely when alone, is found in Kanagawa, followed by Kagoshima, Niigata, Hyogo, Tokyo, and Chiba. These figures seem to be high in metropolitan areas.

Regarding the question "Do you have someone to share your troubles with?" (multiple answers), the most common response from all age groups is "family" (68.1%), followed by "friends" (28.4%) and "relatives" (11.1%). Few people cited "teachers," "colleagues," "seniors," or "neighbors". Of those who answered that there are people they could share their troubles with, there is a tendency to give more than one answer (35.8%), such as "family" and "friends," while "no-one" accounts for 21% of the total (**Figure 11**).

Figure 11: Do you have someone to share your troubles with? (multiple answers)



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

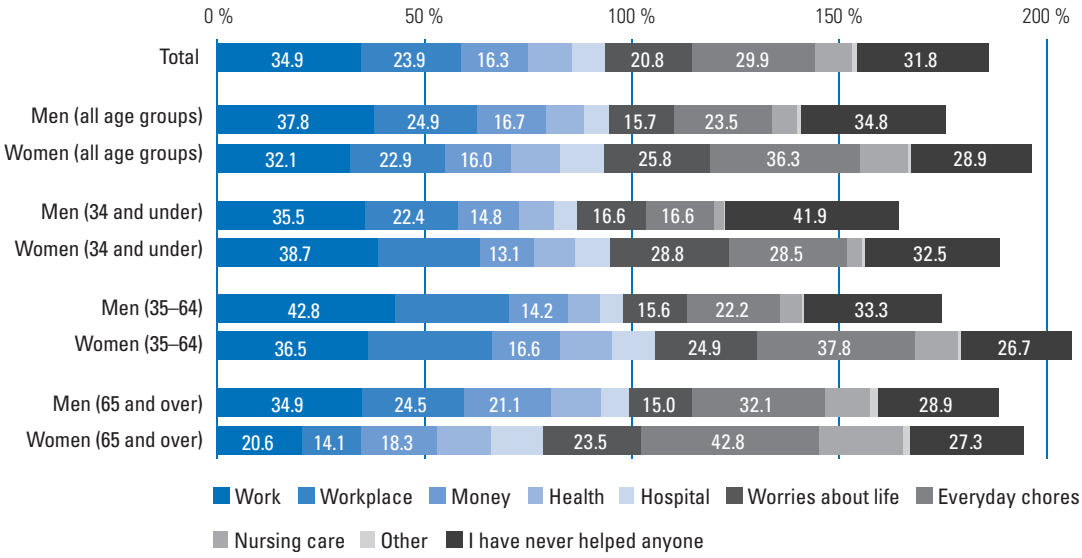
The percentage for each item indicates the proportion of people in each respondent population who gave that item as one of their responses. As the question allows multiple answers, the total of the response percentages exceeds 100%.

As regards gender, "family" is the most common response among both men and women (61.9% for men, 74.3% for women). Women in every age group open up to their family members about their concerns, while the next most popular confidants are "friends" (35.0%). The rate of those who said they had "no-one" to talk to was low (14.8%). Family aside, "no-one" (27.3%) is a more frequent answer among men than "friends" (21.8%), and the proportion of men with "no-one" to talk to is almost twice that of women. As such, men show a tendency not to talk to anyone about their troubles, or only with family if they do. In general, women have a wider range of people to share their concerns with than men do, with elderly women placing a high value on relationships with "relatives".

When broken down by age group, the results show that one in four (25.8%) young people aged 34 and under answered that they had "no one" to talk with. The rate of men in this group with "no-one" to discuss their problems with is high (34.7%), more than twice that of women of the same age (16.8%). However, the proportion of respondents giving this answer decreases with age, standing at 23.6% among people aged 35–64 and at 13.4% among those aged 65 and over. It seems that men are particularly likely to be isolated with nobody to talk to while they are young, but as they get older, they learn to open up to their families about their worries. Nevertheless, among those aged 65 and over, more than twice as many men (18.6%) as women in the same age group (8.2%) answered they had "no one" to talk to.

It is interesting to note that after "family" and "friends," 19.4% of those aged 65 and over cited "relatives," while very few of those under 65 did so. It appears that in higher age groups, people showed a trend toward a wider range of relationships.

Figure 12: In what situation have you helped someone in need?



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

The percentage for each item indicates the proportion of people in each respondent population who gave that item as one of their responses. As the question allows multiple answers, the total of the response percentages exceeds 100%.

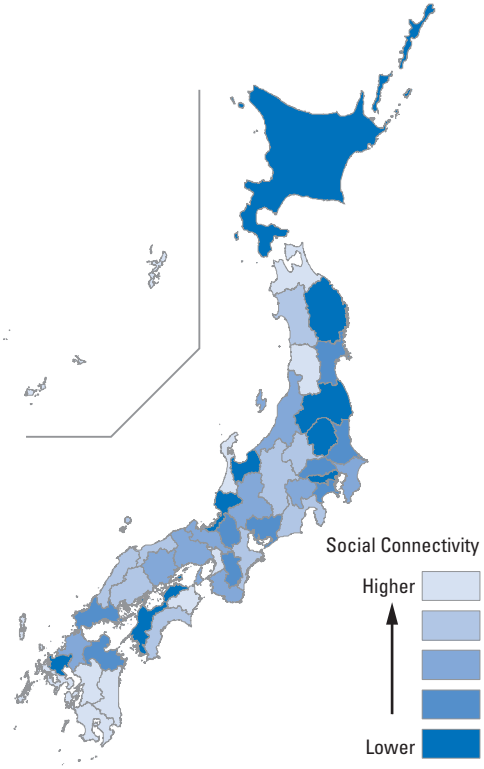
By prefecture, people in Tokyo (28.8%), Yamanashi (26.3%), Toyama (26.0%), Hokkaido (25.6%), and Iwate (25.0%) show the highest rates of having "no one" to talk with, while Tokushima and Kochi (14.5%), Yamagata (15.0%), and Ishikawa and Shiga (16.0%) have the lowest.

To the question "In what situation have you helped someone in need?" (multiple answers), the most common response is "work" and "workplace" (58.8% combined), followed by "everyday chores" (29.9%), "worries about life" (20.8%), "health and hospital" (18.6%), and "money" (16.3%). It is notable that the number of people responding "I have never helped anyone" (31.8%) is fairly high (**Figure 12**).

Looking at the responses by gender, the most common answer for men after "work" and "workplace" (62.7% combined) is "I have never helped anyone" (34.8%), while for women, "I have never helped anyone" (28.9%) is third after "everyday chores" and "life troubles" (62.1% combined) and "work" and "workplace" (55.0% combined).

The percentage of respondents who have never helped someone decreases in higher age groups. Younger men have less experience of helping people, but younger people are more likely to provide help with regard to "worries about life" (22.7% for those aged 34 and under, 19.3%

Figure / Table 13: Social connectivity index scores by prefecture



Ranking	Prefecture	Index
1st	Miyagi	0.227
2nd	Ishikawa	0.266
3rd	Osaka	0.273
4th	Kagoshima	0.311
5th	Yamagata	0.319
6th	Kumamoto	0.330
7th	Okinawa	0.358
8th	Tokushima	0.363
9th	Nagasaki	0.376
10th	Aomori	0.396
11th	Nagano	0.398
12th	Mie	0.410
13th	Tottori	0.419
14th	Hiroshima	0.433
15th	Gunma	0.434
16th	Kochi	0.444
17th	Shizuoka	0.446
18th	Shimane	0.456
19th	Akita	0.458
20th	Hyogo	0.458
21st	Yamanashi	0.459
22nd	Fukuoka	0.463
23rd	Chiba	0.464
24th	Okayama	0.468

Ranking	Prefecture	Index
25th	Kyoto	0.485
26th	Niigata	0.488
27th	Gifu	0.490
28th	Wakayama	0.493
29th	Shiga	0.505
30th	Kanagawa	0.512
31st	Ibaraki	0.547
32nd	Nara	0.551
33rd	Miyagi	0.553
34th	Aichi	0.570
35th	Oita	0.574
36th	Saitama	0.585
37th	Yamaguchi	0.613
38th	Hokkaido	0.642
39th	Iwate	0.649
40th	Saga	0.670
41st	Tochigi	0.674
42nd	Kagawa	0.679
43rd	Tokyo	0.691
44th	Ehime	0.699
45th	Fukushima	0.719
46th	Toyama	0.763
47th	Fukui	0.817

The prefectures are ordered by the average rate of people that answered, "I feel lonely," "I have no-one to talk to when I am having trouble," or "I have never helped anyone," starting with the lowest.
Higher-ranking prefectures can be considered to have higher levels of social connectivity among their residents.

Note: The index scores in the table have been rounded off. The rankings are based on the actual values before rounding, so prefectures may have different rankings even if the values shown in the table are the same.

for those aged 65 and over). The rate of people who answered "work" or "workplace" is highest among those aged 35–64 (68.4%). For both men and women, the proportion giving this answer was almost the same among younger people, but as they get older, women are less likely to be in the workplace, and thus have fewer opportunities to help others at work. In terms of "worries about life" and "everyday chores," there is a tendency for women across all generations to be more likely to offer a helping hand.

The results by prefecture show that people in Toyama have the highest rate of people who answered they had never helped anyone, followed by those in Kagawa, Iwate, Fukushima, and Tochigi. This rate was low in Miyazaki, Okinawa, Kumamoto, Yamanashi, and Ishikawa.

The average rate of people who answered "I feel lonely," "I have no-one to talk to when I am having trouble," and "I have never helped anyone" to the above questions was calculated for each prefecture. **Figure / Table 13** shows these average values in order, starting with the lowest. It is assumed that the higher a prefecture's ranking, the stronger the social connectivity among its residents. Conversely, the residents of low-ranking prefectures can be considered relatively isolated, or to feel very lonely. This subjective measure of strong and weak social connectivity will also be considered in the following Chapter on prefecture profiles.

In order to create a society in which the lives, livelihoods and dignity of all people are ensured, it is vital to ensure that people can build networks and social connectivity with one another. However, the challenges in doing so are substantial.

Map of Japan and 47 Prefectures

Hokkaido Region

1. Hokkaido

Tohoku Region

2. Aomori
3. Iwate
4. Miyagi
5. Akita
6. Yamagata
7. Fukushima

Kanto Region

8. Ibaraki
9. Tochigi
10. Gunma
11. Saitama
12. Chiba
13. Tokyo
14. Kanagawa

Chubu Region

15. Niigata
16. Toyama
17. Ishikawa
18. Fukui
19. Yamanashi
20. Nagano
21. Gifu
22. Shizuoka
23. Aichi

Kinki Region

24. Mie
25. Shiga
26. Kyoto
27. Osaka
28. Hyogo
29. Nara
30. Wakayama

Chugoku Region

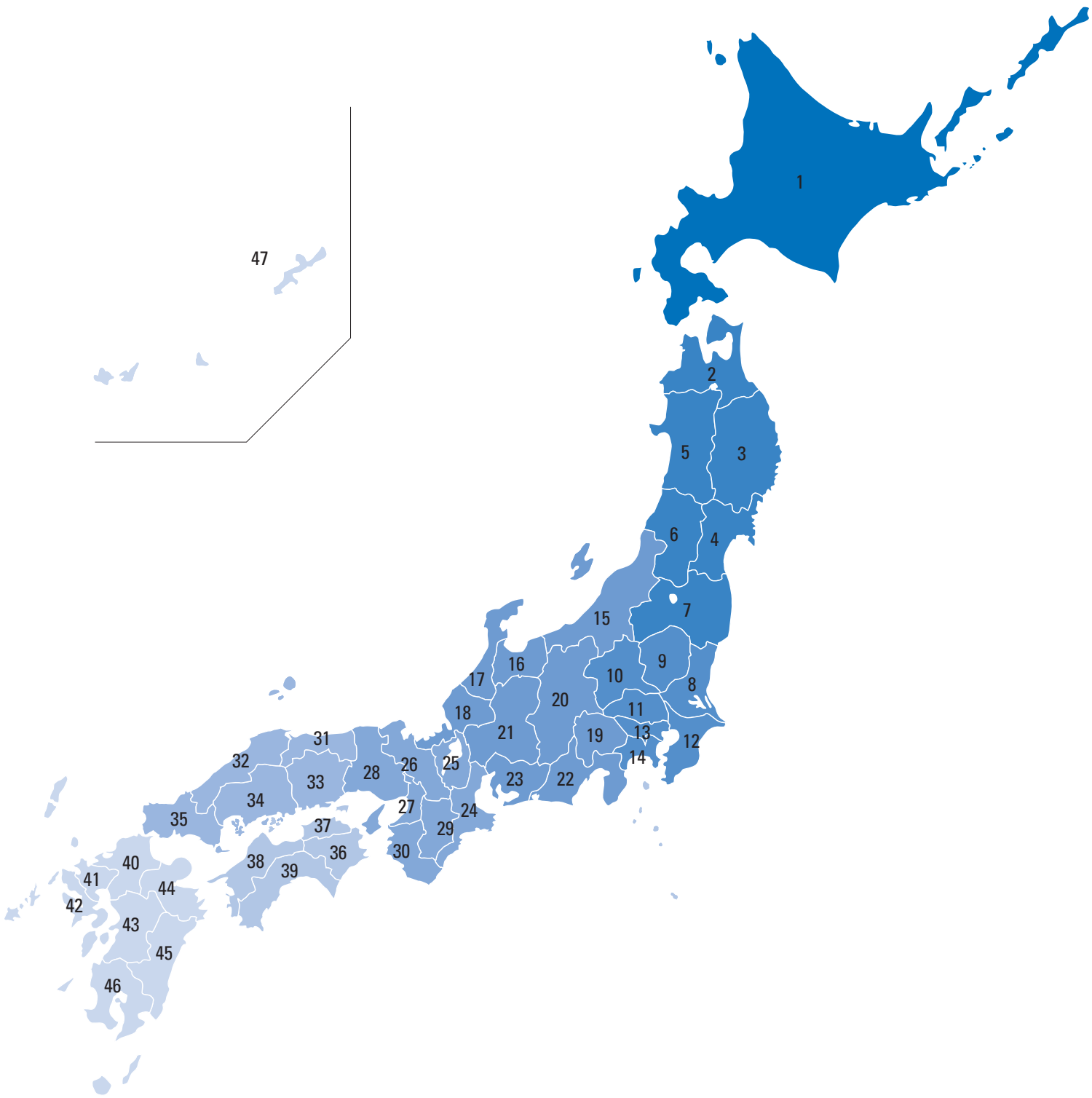
31. Tottori
32. Shimane
33. Okayama
34. Hiroshima
35. Yamaguchi

Shikoku Region

36. Tokushima
37. Kagawa
38. Ehime
39. Kochi

Kyushu/Okinawa Region

40. Fukuoka
41. Saga
42. Nagasaki
43. Kumamoto
44. Oita
45. Miyazaki
46. Kagoshima
47. Okinawa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Chapter 4

Prefecture Profiles

In order to highlight the main human security issues that each prefecture needs to address, a profile for each prefecture was put together, using charts to display the characteristics of the respective areas. These are based on five rankings, which include not only on the Life, Livelihood, and Dignity indices (see Chapter 2), but also subjective measures of self-fulfillment and social connectivity. The main focus should be placed on the shape of the pentagons in the charts, rather than on their total area. The results of the questionnaire (see Chapter 3) are used to compare prefectures based on "Self-fulfillment," a measure of residents' self-assessment, and "Social Connectivity," which represents the strength of the ties between residents and the extent of their feelings of isolation.

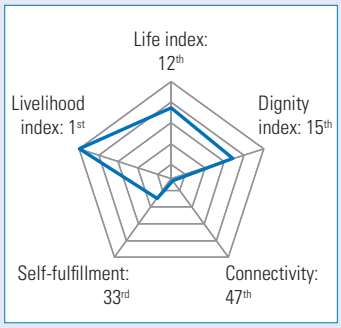
As well as those indicators that are among the best in the country, those that are among the worst are given as issues to address. These are not necessarily exhaustive, however. For the whole picture of each prefecture, please refer to the full list of indicators (Chapter 1-2). Ranking the prefectures is not the goal of this study. Rather, it aims to visualize the position of each prefecture in the country and to highlight the issues that each of them needs to tackle.

(Populations given are estimates as of October 1, 2018. Land areas are based on the Geospatial Information Authority's "Statistical reports on the Land Area by Prefectures and Municipalities in Japan," dated the same day.)

1st Fukui

Population: 773,000 (43rd) **Area:** 4,190 km² (34th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective social connectivity is the weakest in the country, and self-fulfillment is somewhat low, showing a discrepancy in the prefecture's livability according to objective statistical data and the subjective assessment of its residents. Average life expectancy is high (6th for men, 5th for women), but Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) is slightly lower (10th for men, 14th for women). There is a high number of deaths by suicide, but the unmarried rate and the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees are low. There is a high rate of single elderly households, as well as a high rate of tooth decay. Indicators relating to the economy and employment are excellent, such as disposable income per household, unemployment rate, female employment rate, rate of regular employment among single parents, rate of people with disabilities among employees, and rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance, but there is a substantial gender wage gap. Indicators for children and educational environment are also good, with high academic ability test scores, high athletic ability, low school truancy rate (rate of students who are habitually absent from school), and low numbers of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten. The rate of deaths due to traffic accidents is the highest in the country. There are many cultural properties and neighborhood associations, and the rate of participation in volunteer activities is high.



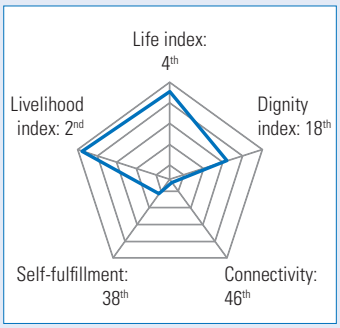
Highly rated: (1st) Female employment rate, low rate of children in single parent households, low number of child suicides, low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, high athletic ability of children and number of social education classes. (2nd) Low number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy.

Issues to address:
Strengthen social connectivity (47th), reduce the number of deaths due to traffic accidents (47th), reduce the rate of children with tooth decay (42nd).

2nd Toyama

Population: 1.05 million (37th) **Area:** 4,248 km² (33rd)

Overall evaluation: Extremely weak subjective levels of social connectivity, combined with low levels of self-fulfillment. A significant gap between objective livability and subjective elements, such as human dignity and the feeling of restriction that residents have. Compared to average life expectancy (27th for men, 8th for women), HALE is ranked high (8th for men, 4th for women). The percentages of single parent households and tooth decay are low, but there is a large number of deaths by suicide. Disposable income per household, female employment rate, and the rate of regular employment among single parents are extremely high, and the prefecture also boasts the lowest rates of non-regular employment and of households receiving livelihood protection allowance. The rates of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, school attendance support recipients, truancy, and households receiving child-rearing allowance are low, with few cases of bullying and high academic ability test scores. Residential floor spaces are large, and rates of sewage treatment and recycling are high. Levels of information disclosure are high, there are many cultural facilities, and the rate of participation in volunteer activities is high. There are few foreign residents.



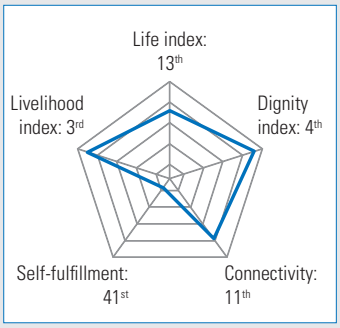
Highly rated:
(1st) Monthly disposable income per household, rate of regular employment among single parents, low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, low rate of school attendance support recipients, low rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance, total floor space per residence. (2nd) Female employment rate.

Issues to address: Strengthen social connectivity (46th), increase the number of foreign residents (41st).

3rd Nagano

Population: 2.063 million (16th) **Area:** 13,562 km² (4th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective sense of social connectivity is strong, but self-fulfillment levels are extremely low. Average life expectancy is the highest in the country (2nd for men, 1st for women), but there is a large disparity with HALE (20th for men, 27th for women). Health awareness, such as the percentage of people taking regular health checks, is high. Disposable income is relatively high, and income inequality between residents is low. While there is a high rate of elderly people with a job and low unemployment rate overall, there is low regular employment rate among single parents. The rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is low. The high school dropout rate and the rate of school attendance support recipients are also low, but child suicides and the average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities are somewhat high. The number of households receiving livelihood protection allowance is low, as is the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy, but there is a high number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker. There are many cultural facilities, and the sewage treatment rate is high. Men spend a relatively large amount of time on housework and childcare, there is high female representation in local assemblies, and many registered Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs). However, there are many human rights infringements.



Highly rated:
(1st) Average life expectancy (women), low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, number of cultural facilities. (2nd) Average life expectancy (men), low Gini coefficient, rate of elderly people with a job.

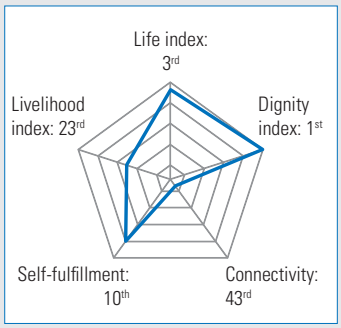
Issues to address: Reduce the number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker (42nd) and the number of human rights infringements. (42nd).

4th Tokyo

Population: 13.843 million (1st) **Area:** 2,190 km² (45th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is high, but social connectivity is extremely weak. The discrepancy between these two indicators is the largest of any prefecture. Financial capability index and residents' annual incomes are the highest in the country, but there is also large income inequality. Infrastructure and educational facilities are in place, but there are many issues among the indicators relating to human connections. Compared to average life expectancy (11th for men, 15th for women), HALE is low (24th for men, 39th for women).

Highly rated: (1st) Working age population, low number of deaths due to traffic accidents, a high rate of practicing sports, high annual income per person, financial capability index, low rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance, number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools, internet usage rate, sewage treatment rate, public facilities earthquake proofing rate, number of lawyers, rate of female representatives in local assemblies, number of people who made hometown tax payments, number of people who made donations to major international support organizations, number of foreign students, number of registered NPOs. (2nd) Population increase rate, waterworks earthquake proofing rate.



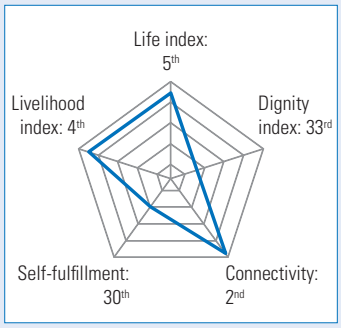
Issues to address: (47th) Total Fertility Rate (TFR), rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees, Gini coefficient, rate of people with disabilities among employees, number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly, number of commissioned welfare volunteers, total floor space per residence, number of child suicides, number of neighborhood associations. (46th) rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, number of junior high school students per teacher, number of cultural facilities, rate of participation in volunteer activities. (45th) Unmarried rate, number of elementary school children per teacher, number of facilities for the elderly, number of reported criminal offences.

5th Ishikawa

Population: 1.142 million (33rd) **Area:** 4,186 km² (35th)

Overall evaluation: The prefecture ranks somewhat low on the Dignity index. Although subjective social connectivity is strong, self-fulfillment is slightly weak, and expectations for the future are extremely low. Both average life expectancy (12th for men, 13th for women) and HALE (5th for men, 16th for women) are good. The number of doctors per capita is high, as is the rate of people taking regular health checks, and monthly disposable income per household. The percentage of children in single-parent households is low, as is the unmarried rate and the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance. Although the number of deaths by suicide is small, it is notable that the suicidal ideation rate is extremely high. The unemployment rate is low, while the rate of regular employment among single parents and the female employment rate are high. Both the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten and the rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance are low. Similarly, there are few cases of bullying and few consultations at child welfare centers. Education-related indicators are high all round: children's academic ability test scores are the highest in the country, their athletic ability is high, and there are many social education classes available.

Highly rated: (1st) Low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, high academic ability test score. (2nd) Number of social education classes, low number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker.

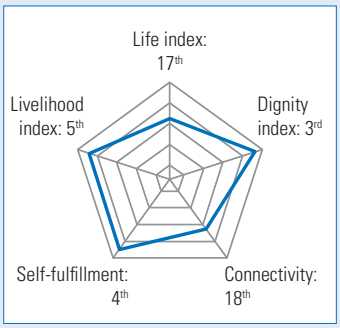


Issues to address: Increase the number of female representatives in local assemblies (45th) and improve the recycling rate (44th).

6th Shimane

Population: 680,000 (46th) **Area:** 6,708 km² (19th)

Overall evaluation: Although subjective social connectivity is around average, there are many residents with a positive outlook on life: levels of self-fulfillment are high, as are expectations of the future. In both average life expectancy (23rd for men, 3rd for women) and HALE (33rd for men, 5th for women) women rank near the top, but the ranking for men presents an issue to address. The TFR is high, and the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees is low. Both the working age population and the financial capability index are the lowest in the country, while income inequality is high. The unemployment rate is low, with high rate of employment among women and regular employment among single parents, as well as a high rate of elderly people with a job. While the number of students per teacher is small, children's academic ability test scores are low, and there are very few evening/part-time junior high and high schools. The number of commissioned welfare volunteers is high, and the number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker is low. Voter turnout in national elections is high, the number of neighborhood associations is the highest in the country, and there is also a high rate of participation in volunteer activities.



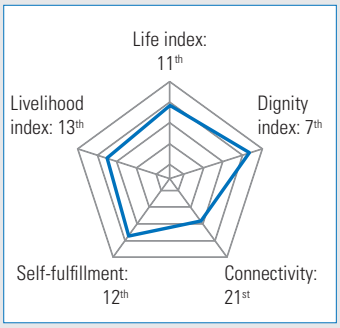
Highly rated: Low rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees, low unemployment rate, low number of elementary school students per teacher, high voter turnout in national elections, and number of neighborhood associations. (2nd) TFR, rate of regular employment among single parents, low number of junior high school students per teacher.

Issues to address: Expand the working age population and improve the financial capability index (both 47th), increase the number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools (46th).

7th Yamanashi

Population: 818,000 (42nd) **Area:** 4,465 km² (32nd)

Overall evaluation: Subjective social connectivity is about average. Relative to average life expectancy (20th for men, 18th for women), HALE (1st for men, 3rd for women) is very highly rated. The rate of population decrease is rather high. The rate of people taking regular health checks is high, but so is the rate of smoking among adults. While there is a high rate of elderly people with a job, there are many other employment issues to address: the rate of regular employment among single parents and the rate of people with disabilities among employees are very low, and there is also a high rate of non-regular employment overall. There are many children's nursing/fostering facilities and the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is low, as is the number of child suicides. However, the average number of days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities is high, and there are numerous cases of bullying. The number of social education classes is also low. Indicators relating to welfare and daily life are high: the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance, the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy, and greenhouse gas emissions per person are all low, while numbers of nursing care staff, commissioned welfare volunteers, and the number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare are high. There are few human rights infringements. Although a high proportion of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents, the number of foreign technical interns is very low.



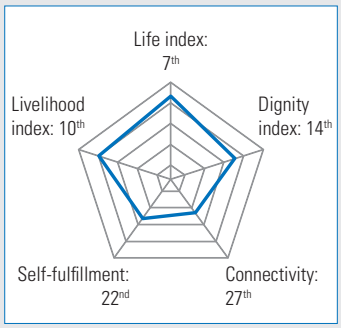
Highly rated: (1st) HALE (men), low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten. (2nd) Number of cultural facilities, number of registered NPOs.

Issues to address: Improve the rate of regular employment among single parents (45th), increase the number of facilities for the elderly (44th) and female representatives in local assemblies (42nd).

8th Gifu

Population: 1.999 million (17th) **Area:** 10,621 km² (7th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective levels of social connectivity and self-fulfillment are both around average. Compared to average life expectancy (14th for men, 34th for women), HALE is high (4th for men, 7th for women). The low rates of tooth decay and smoking, and the high number of walking steps represent high levels of health awareness. The unmarried rate is also low. On the other hand, there is a need to bolster the medical system, with extremely low numbers of hospitals, hospital beds and doctors per capita. In terms of children and education, the rate of school attendance support recipients and of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is low, and there is a large number of social education classes. However, the rate of children given foster care placements is low, and the truancy rate is high. The rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance and the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy are both low, but there is a large number of households assigned to each livelihood protection allowance caseworker. As regards living environment, the earthquake proofing rate is high for both public facilities and waterworks. However, there is a need to increase the number of lawyers, the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, and to reduce the number of human rights infringements.



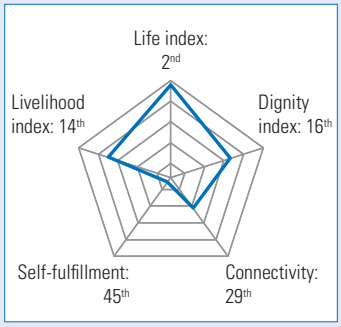
Highly rated: (2nd) Rate of participation in volunteer activities.

Issues to address:
Reduce the number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker (45th), improve the rate of children given foster care placements (43rd), and increase the number of general hospitals (40th) and hospital beds per capita(41st).

9th Shiga

Population: 1.412 million (26th) **Area:** 4,017 km² (38th)

Overall evaluation: The subjective sense of social connectivity is somewhat weak, and self-fulfillment levels are extremely low. Average life expectancy (1st for men, 4th for women) is high, but there is a large discrepancy with HALE (16th for men, 43rd for women). The proportion of children in single-parent households, the unmarried rate, and the level of medical expenses per person are all low, while the rate of population increase is high, and the working age population is large. Health awareness is also high, with a high rate of practicing sports, and a high number of walking steps. The standard of living is high: the prefecture's residents have high annual income per person and high levels of disposable income per household, with a low Gini coefficient and low unemployment rate. However, improvement is required in rates of employment among women and the elderly with a job, the level of non-regular employment, and the gender wage gap. There are large numbers of social education classes, but the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is high, and children's academic ability test scores are low. The rate of children given foster care placements is high, as is that for internet usage and sewage treatment. There are few foreign students, and a low proportion of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents.



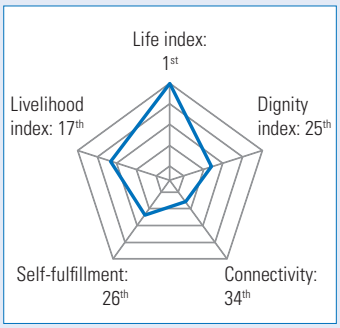
Highly rated: (1st) Average life expectancy (men), rate of participation in volunteer activities. (2nd) Low unmarried rate, rate of children given foster care placements.

Issues to address:
Improve self-fulfillment (45th), increase the number of facilities for the elderly (47th), general hospitals (46th) and hospital beds per capita (42nd), improve the rate of elderly people with a job and children's academic ability test scores (both 45th).

10th Aichi

Population: 7.539 million (4th) **Area:** 5,171 km² (27th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is about average, but social connectivity (34th) is slightly weak. Compared to average life expectancy (8th for men, 32nd for women), HALE (3rd for men, 1st for women) is among the top in the country. The population growth rate is high, and there is a large working age population. Medical expenses per person are low and the rate of practicing sports is high, but there are few general hospitals, hospital beds, and doctors per capita. Residents' annual income and the prefecture's financial capability index are high, but disposable income per household is average. The rate of people with disabilities among employees is low, as is the employment rate for women and the rate of elderly people with a job, and the rate of regular employment among single parents. Although there is a large number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools, the number of students per teacher in elementary and junior high schools is high. Although there are few deaths by suicide overall, the number of child suicides is high. There are many lawyers, as well as many female representatives in local assemblies, but there are also large numbers of reported criminal offenses and cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims.



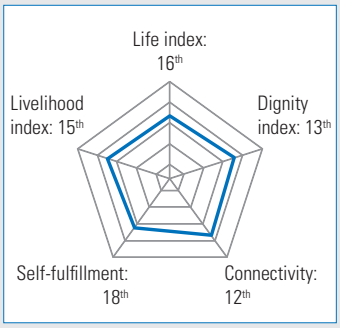
Highly rated: (1st) HALE (women), low number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker, number of foreign technical interns. (2nd) Annual income per person, financial capability index, low number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters, low number of deaths by suicide, low rate of children with tooth decay.

Issues to address: Increase the number of registered NPOs (47th) and improve the rate of people with disabilities among employees (46th). Reduce the number of child suicides (46th), improve children's athletic ability (45th), and school truancy rate (44th), and increase the number of general hospitals and hospital beds (both 45th).

11th Mie

Population: 1.70 million (22nd) **Area:** 5,774 km² (25th)

Overall evaluation: There is an overall balance between all indices, with none standing out in either direction. Relative to average life expectancy (19th for men, 27th for women), HALE for women is among the top in the country (31st for men, 2nd for women). The rate of unmarried people, and the rates of single elderly households, deaths by suicide, suicidal ideation, and smoking among adults are all low. Health awareness is high, with a high rate of people taking regular health checks. However, there is also a high number of deaths due to traffic accidents. Residents' annual income is high, but monthly disposable income per household is low. The Gini coefficient is small, showing low income inequality between residents. The unemployment rate is low, but there is a large gender wage gap. In terms of children and education, the number of consultations at child welfare centers is small, but the truancy rate is slightly high. In welfare, there is a high number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy. In terms of living environment, the recycling rate and rate of earthquake-proofed public facilities are high, but the earthquake proofing rate for waterworks is low. The prefecture has a high rate of female representatives in local assemblies, high turnout in national elections, and high levels of information disclosure, but there are few lawyers, and many human rights infringements.

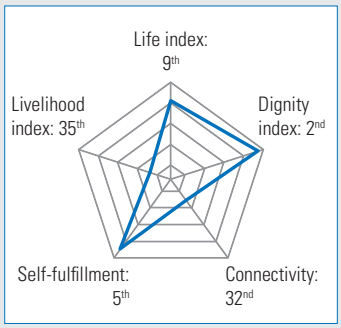


Highly rated: (2nd) HALE (women), recycling rate

Issues to address: Narrow the gender wage gap (45th), reduce the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees (43rd), and reduce the number of human rights infringements (43rd).

12th Nara

Population: 1.34 million (29th) **Area:** 3,691 km² (40th)



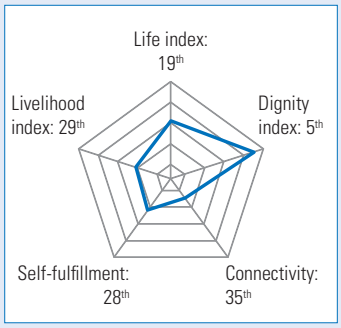
Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index is somewhat low, and subjective social connectivity is slightly weak. HALE (42nd for men and women) is low compared to average life expectancy (4th for men, 16th for women). Rates of unmarried people, deaths by suicide, suicidal ideation, and tooth decay are low. Health awareness is high, with a high number of average steps and a high rate of practicing sport. However, there is a need to increase the number of hospitals per capita. Disposable income per household is around average, and income inequality between residents is low. Despite a high rate of people with disabilities among employees, the rate of non-regular employment is also high, as is non-regular employment among single parents, while the rates of female employment and elderly people with a job are low. The high school dropout rate is high, and there are few social education classes. In terms of living environment, greenhouse gas emissions per person are low, and the rate of waterworks earthquake proofing is high, but both the earthquake proofing rate for public facilities and the recycling rate require improvement. There are many state-designated cultural properties, many people making donations to major international support organizations, and levels of information disclosure are also high. However, there are many cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims.

Highly rated:
(1st) State-designated cultural properties, low unmarried rate, low number of deaths by suicide, high rate of people with disabilities among employees, low greenhouse gas emissions per person. (2nd) Number of people who made donations to major international support organizations.

Issues to address: Improve female employment rate (47th), number of social education classes (45th), earthquake proofing rate for public facilities (44th), and the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers (41st).

13th Oita

Population: 1.143 million (34th) **Area:** 6,341 km² (22nd)



Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index and subjective self-fulfillment are around average, but social connectivity is slightly weak. For men, HALE (37th) is low relative to average life expectancy (9th). For women, both average life expectancy and HALE are high (both 12th). The working age population is small. Although the number of hospitals per capita is high, so are both medical expenses and the rate of tooth decay. The rate of people with disabilities among employees is high, but income inequality is large. The number of consultations at child welfare centers is the lowest in the country, and there are many children's nursing/fostering facilities. There is a good environment for children: children's athletic ability is high, as is the rate of children given foster care placements, while the number of child suicides is also small. On the other hand, there are few evening/part-time junior high and high schools. The number of reported criminal offenses is low, and there are many nursing care staff and facilities for the elderly. However, the number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker is high, and the rates of sewage treatment and barrier-free transportation facilities are very low. Turnout in national elections is good, as are levels of information disclosure, but there are many human rights infringements. There are also high numbers of foreign students.

Highly rated:
Low number of consultations at child welfare centers. (2nd) High numbers of nursing care staff, (3rd) facilities for the elderly, and inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers.

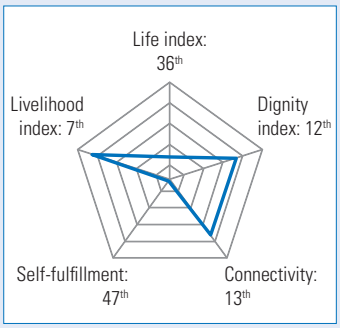
Issues to address: Reduce greenhouse gas emissions per person (47th), improve Gini coefficient (46th), rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (47th), and sewage treatment rate (45th). Increase the number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools (44th).

14th Tottori

Population: 560,000 (47th) **Area:** 3,507 km² (41st)

Overall evaluation: The Life index is low, and subjective self-fulfillment is the lowest in the country. Both average life expectancy (39th for men, 14th for women) and HALE (34th for men, 41st for women) are low. While the TFR is high, there is a high rate of single elderly households, and the average number of walking steps is very low. Residents' annual income and the prefecture's financial capability index are among the lowest in the country. On the other hand, the unemployment rate is low, and the female employment rate is high, with low income inequality and a small gender wage gap. The number of students per teacher in elementary and junior high schools is low, but there are few evening/part-time junior high and high schools, and the university enrollment rate is low. There are plenty of facilities for children and the elderly, with a large number of children's nursing/fostering facilities and few people on the waiting list for intensive care homes for the elderly. The recycling rate is high, while the amount of greenhouse gas emissions per person is low. The number of child suicides is very low, but there are many human rights infringements. Challenges are posed by the low levels of self-fulfillment and satisfaction with life.

Highly rated: (1st) Low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, low average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities, low number of child suicides. (2nd) Low gender wage gap.

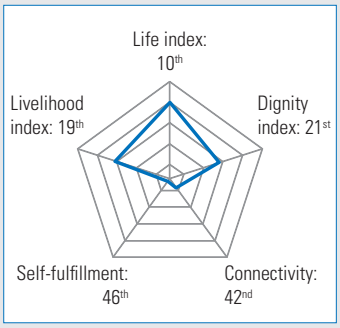


Issues to address:
Improve self-fulfillment (47th), annual income per person, university enrollment rate, average number of walking steps (all 46th), financial capability index (45th), and the rate of single elderly households (44th).

15th Kagawa

Population: 962,000 (39th) **Area:** 1,876 km² (47th)

Overall evaluation: Levels of subjective self-fulfillment are extremely low, and social connectivity is also extremely weak, with many residents who have a pessimistic outlook on the future. Both average life expectancy (20th for men, 19th for women) and HALE (13th for men, 26th for women) are around average. The rate of smoking among adults and the unmarried rate are extremely low, the TFR is high, and the suicidal ideation rate and number of deaths by suicide are also low. However, there is a high number of deaths due to traffic accidents. Disposable income per household is high, and the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy is low. The gender wage gap is small, and the rate of non-regular employment is low. The rate of people with disabilities among employees is also low. In terms of education, there are many consultations at child welfare centers, social education is strong, and the high school dropout rate is low. There are many state-designated cultural properties, and the community is very active, with large number of neighborhood associations. The number of bullying cases is the lowest in the country, there are few child suicides, and the average number of days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities is low. However, challenges are presented by the number of human rights infringements, turnout in national elections, levels of information disclosure, and the rate of female representatives in local assemblies. There are also few foreign residents.



Highly rated:
(1st) Low number of cases of bullying. (2nd) Low rate of smoking among adults.

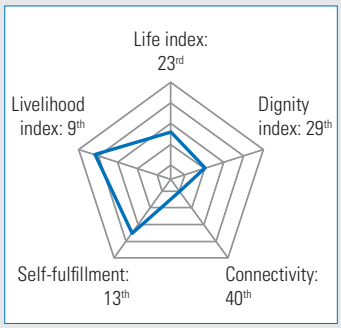
Issues to address: Improve self-fulfillment (46th) and raise expectations that the future will be better (47th). Reduce the number of human rights infringements (46th), deaths due to traffic accidents (43rd), and the number of consultations at child welfare centers (44th).

16th Saga

Population: 819,000 (41st) **Area:** 2,441 km² (42nd)

Overall evaluation: Life and Dignity indices are about average, while subjective social connectivity is weak. Both average life expectancy (26th for men, 22nd for women) and HALE (36th for men, 22nd for women) are around average. The number of hospitals and hospital beds per capita is substantial, and the TFR is high. Despite the fact that the rate of suicidal ideation is extremely high, the number of deaths by suicide is very low. Medical expenses per person are high, as is the rate of smoking among adults. The employment rate for women is high, as is the rate of people with disabilities among employees. Children's academic ability test scores are low. The number of bullying cases is very low, but children spend a high average number of days in temporary child protection facilities. The rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance is high, the university enrollment rate is low, and there are few evening/part-time junior high and high schools. There are many facilities for the elderly, and a large number of people staying in them. The rate of participation in volunteer activities is high, but the degree of information disclosure is low. There is a high proportion of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents, and levels of expectation toward the future are also very high.

Highly rated: (2nd) Low rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees, low number of cases of bullying, high expectations for the future.



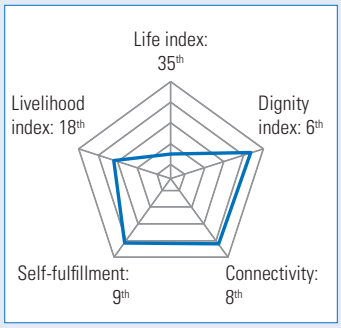
Issues to address: Reduce the suicidal ideation rate (47th), and the number of people staying at facilities for the elderly (45th), increase the number of hours men spend on housework and childcare (44th), children's academic ability test scores (42nd), and the university enrollment rate (42nd).

17th Tokushima

Population: 736,000 (44th) **Area:** 4,147 km² (36th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is high, and social connectivity is strong, but the Life index is slightly low. Although the number of doctors, hospitals, and hospital beds per capita are among the highest in the country, average life expectancy (33rd for men, 39th for women), HALE (45th for men, 44th for women) are low, and further challenges presented by the high rate of single elderly households and the high medical expenses per person. It has a high Gini coefficient, and the non-regular employment rate is the lowest in the country. The indicators for education are relatively good, with low numbers of elementary and junior high school students per teacher, a low high school dropout rate, and a low truancy rate. The number of children's nursing/fostering facilities is very high, and the number of people on the waiting list for intensive care homes for the elderly is very low. Men spend a relatively large amount of time on housework and childcare, there are many inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, and the number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims is low. Voter turnout in national elections is the lowest nationwide, and there are also many human rights infringements. There are a lot of neighborhood associations and cultural facilities.

Highly rated: (1st) Number of doctors in medical facilities, low non-regular employment rate, low high school dropout rate, low number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly. (2nd) Low school truancy rate, high number of children's nursing/fostering facilities, number of hours men spend on housework and childcare, number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, number of neighborhood associations.



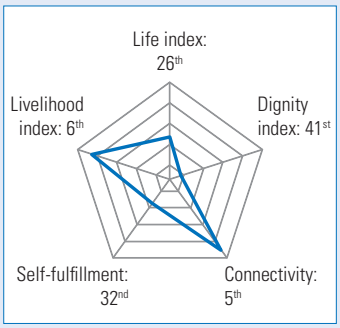
Issues to address: Improve the sewage treatment rate (47th) and waterworks earthquake proofing rate (42nd), increase voter turnout in national elections (47th) and the number of foreign residents (46th), and reduce the number of human rights infringements(45th).

18th Yamagata

Population: 1.09 million (35th) **Area:** 9,323 km² (9th)

Overall evaluation: The Dignity index is low. The subjective sense of social connectivity is strong, but self-fulfillment levels are somewhat low. Average life expectancy is about average for both men and women (29th), but the HALE for men is good (7th for men, 23rd for women). The rate of people taking regular health checks is high, and the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees and the prevalence of tooth decay are low. However, the rate of population decrease and the number of deaths by suicide are high, and the rate of practicing sport is extremely low. The rate of non-regular employment is low, but there is a great deal of income inequality among the prefecture's residents. While the rates of school attendance support recipients and truancy are low, as are the numbers of child suicides and consultations at child welfare centers, there are many cases of bullying, and the average number days children stay in temporary child protection facilities is high. The rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance is low, as is the number of households assigned to each caseworker. The number of reported criminal offenses is low, as are the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers and the number of lawyers. There are few foreign residents or foreign students.

Highly rated: (2nd) High rate of people taking regular health checks, low non-regular employment rate, high rate of voter turnout in national elections.

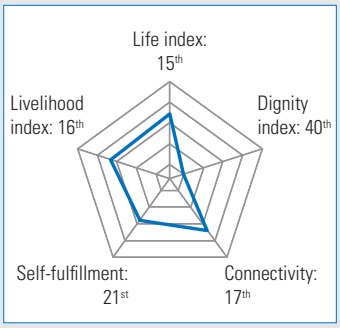


Issues to address: Reduce average days children stay in temporary protection facilities (47th), prevent and reduce the number of deaths by suicide (43rd) and cases of bullying among children (43rd), increase the number of foreign students (47th) and lawyers (45th).

19th Shizuoka

Population: 3.656 million (10th) **Area:** 7,777 km² (13th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment and social connectivity are around average, but the Dignity index is low. Compared to average life expectancy (17th for men, 24th for women), HALE is good (6th for men, 13th for women). Medical expenses per person and the rate of tooth decay are low, while the number of walking steps is high, and the rate of practicing sport is relatively high. There is a need to improve medical capacity, as the number of hospitals, hospital beds, and doctors per capita is very low. Residents' annual income and disposable income are relatively high, but there is a need for improvements in terms of employment, including the rate of people with disabilities among employees and the rate of regular employment among single parents. The rate of school attendance support recipients is low, and children's academic ability test scores are high. Also high are the rate of children given foster care placements , the number of social education classes, and the number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools. On the other hand, there is also a large number of elementary and junior high school students per teacher, there is a high number of child suicides and the school truancy rate is also high, and there are few children's nursing/fostering facilities. The number of human rights infringements is small, but the gender wage gap is the largest in the country, and there are few cultural facilities or neighborhood associations. The proportion of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents is low.



Highly rated: (2nd) Public facilities earthquake proofing rate, low rate of school attendance support recipients.

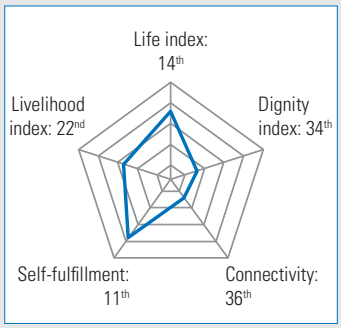
Issues to address: Reduce the gender wage gap (47th), and increase the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (44th), number of general hospitals (41st) and cultural facilities (43rd).

20th Saitama

Population: 7.322 million (5th) **Area:** 3,798 km² (39th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is high, but social connectivity is weak, and the Dignity index is slightly low. Relative to average life expectancy (22nd for men, 39th for women), HALE for men is among the top in the country (2nd for men, 29th for women). Medical expenses per person are the lowest in the country, and the rate of practicing sports is high. The rate of population increase is also high. The number of doctors per capita is the lowest in the country, and there are also few hospital beds. Disposable income is high, but the female employment rate is low. Despite the fact that there are many elementary school children per teacher, children's athletic ability is extremely high. There is a high rate of female representatives in local assemblies, and the number of human rights infringements is the lowest nationwide. However, the average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities is high, as is the number of child suicides, while information disclosure is the worst of any prefecture.

Highly rated: (1st) Low number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters, low medical expenses per person, low numbers of human rights infringements. (2nd) HALE (men), high rate of practicing sports and internet usage rate.



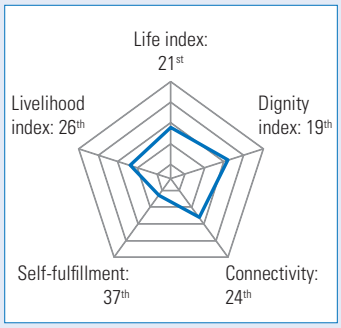
Issues to address: Increase the number of doctors (47th) and beds in medical facilities(46th), improve the degree of information disclosure (47th), reduce the number of elementary school children per teacher, the average days children stay in temporary child protection facilities (both 46th), and the number of child suicides (45th).

21st Okayama

Population: 1.90 million (20th) **Area:** 7,114 km² (17th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective social connectivity is around average, but self-fulfillment levels are low, as are people's expectations for the future. Compared to average life expectancy (1st for women, 13th for men), HALE is low (21st for women, 37th for men). The rate of single elderly households is low, as is the unmarried rate. There is a relatively high rate of people who have suicidal ideations, but the number of actual deaths by suicide is low. In terms of health, while there are plenty of doctors per capita, the rate of people taking regular health checks is low, and the number of deaths due to traffic accidents and the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees are both high. The Gini coefficient is relatively small, the non-regular employment rate is low, and there is a high rate of people with disabilities among employees. In terms of education, the number of cases of bullying is low, as is the truancy rate. Although the recycling rate is extremely high, there is a need to improve the rate of earthquake proofing for public facilities and waterworks, as well as the number of nursing care staff. Greenhouse gas emissions per person are high. There is a large number of lawyers, turnout in national elections is low, and there are many neighborhood associations.

Highly rated: (2nd) Average life expectancy (women), low number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities.



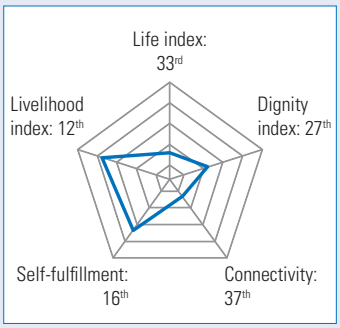
Issues to address: Improve expectations that the future will be better (46th) and the rate of people taking regular health checks (43rd). Reduce the number of deaths due to traffic accidents (44th),and cut greenhouse gas emissions per person (45th).

22nd Yamaguchi

Population: 1.368 million (27th) **Area:** 6,112 km² (23rd)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is fairly high, but social connectivity is weak. Compared to average life expectancy (30th for men, 31st for women), HALE is fairly good (18th for men, 16th for women). The rate of people taking regular health checks is the lowest in the country, the working age population is small, there are many deaths due to traffic accidents, and medical expenses per person are high. The rate of people with disabilities among employees is high, as is residents' annual income, disposable income per household, the rate of elderly people with a job, and regular employment among single parents. The school truancy rate is low, but challenges are presented by the university enrollment rate, the rate of school attendance support recipients, children's athletic ability, and the number of social education classes. There are many commissioned welfare volunteers, and there is a low number of households assigned per livelihood protection allowance caseworker. The rates of barrier free transportation facilities and earthquake proofing rate of public facilities are low, and greenhouse gas emissions per person are high. The suicidal ideation rate is low, and there are many neighborhood associations, but the degree of information disclosure poses a problem.

Highly rated: (1st) Recycling rate. (2nd) Rate of people with disabilities among employees. (3rd) Low number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims.

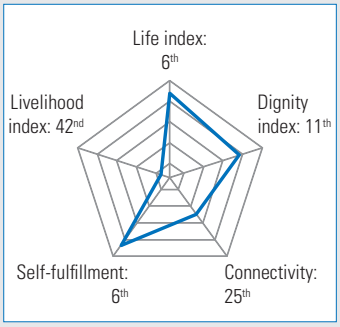


Issues to address:
Improve the rate of people taking regular health checks (47th), and reduce the number of deaths due to traffic accidents (45th). Increase the working age population (44th), the university enrollment rate, and number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers (both 45th). Improve the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (44th) and cut greenhouse gas emissions per person (46th).

23rd Kyoto

Population: 2.592 million (13th) **Area:** 4,612 km² (31st)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is high, but social connectivity is around average. The Livelihood index is extremely low. Compared to average life expectancy (3rd for men, 9th for women), HALE is low (28th for men, 45th for women). Levels of health awareness are high, with the highest average number of walking steps in the whole country, a high number of doctors per capita, and a high rate of practicing sports. The rates of smoking among adults, tooth decay and households late in payment of national health insurance fees are also low. Monthly disposable income per household is low compared to the annual income per person. The non-regular employment rate is high, and the rate of regular employment among single parents is the lowest nationwide. There are many cases of bullying and many consultations at child welfare centers. The rate of households in receipt of livelihood protection allowance is high, as is the number of households assigned per caseworker, while there are few facilities for the elderly. The rate of female representatives in local assemblies is high, and there are many lawyers, but there is also a large number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims. Despite a large number of state-designated cultural properties and NPOs, there are few neighborhood associations. There is a high number of foreign students and foreign residents, but the proportion of people that would welcome an increase in foreign residents is low.

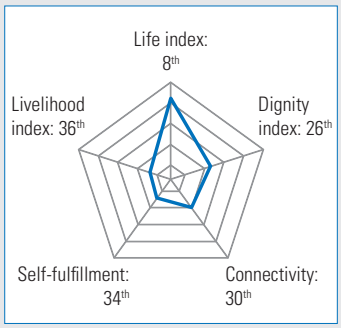


Highly rated:
(1st) Average number of walking steps, university enrollment rate. (2nd) Number of doctors in medical facilities, number of foreign students, number of state-designated cultural properties.

Issues to address: Improve the rate of regular employment among single parents (47th) and reduce the non-regular employment rate (46th). Reduce the number of cases of bullying (47th) and the number of consultations at child welfare centers (46th). Increase the rate of children given foster care placement (45th) and the number of nursing care staff (47th) and facilities for the elderly (46th). Reduce the number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworkers(47th).

24th Kanagawa

Population: 9.18 million (2nd) **Area:** 2,416 km² (43rd)



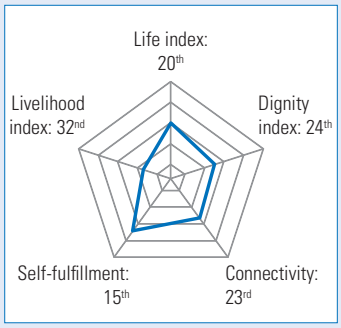
Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index is low, and both subjective self-fulfillment and social connectivity are slightly low. Average life expectancy (5th for men, 17th for women) is relatively high, but HALE (16th for men, 31st for women) is somewhat low. Although the working age population is large and population increase rate is high, it also has a high unmarried rate and low TFR. Medical expenses per person are very low, while the rate of practicing sports is high, as is the average number of walking steps. The numbers of hospitals and hospital beds per capita are among the lowest in the country, as is the rate of people taking regular health checks. The rate of female employment, the rate of people with disabilities among employees, and the rate of elderly people with a job are extremely low. Although the university enrollment rate is high, so is the high school dropout rate and the number of child suicides. There is also a large number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims.

Highly rated: (1st) Low suicidal ideation rate, number of nursing care staff, waterworks earthquake proofing rate. (2nd) Working age population, low number of deaths due to traffic accidents, average number of walking steps, low rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance, high rate of female representatives in local assemblies, number of people who made hometown tax payments.

Issues to address: Increase the number of general hospitals and hospital beds per capita (both 47th), the rate of people taking regular health checks (45th), the number of commissioned welfare volunteers, and the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (both 46th). Reduce the number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly (46th), and the number of elementary and junior high school students per teacher (47th). Improve the female employment rate (44th) and children's athletic ability (47th), and increase the number of cultural facilities (47th) and neighborhood associations (45th).

25th Chiba

Population: 6.269 million (6th) **Area:** 5,158 km² (28th)



Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is somewhat high, and social connectivity is about average. HALE (13th for men, 18th for women) is slightly better than average life expectancy (16th for men, 30th for women). The rate of single elderly households is high, as is the rate of children in single-parent households. The TFR is low. The rate of practicing sports is high, and medical expenses per person are extremely low. The number of doctors, hospitals, and hospital beds per capita are among the lowest in the country. The prefecture's financial capability index is high, and annual income per person is about average. The employment rate for women, the rate of people of disabilities among employees and the rate of the elderly people with a job are all low. There are few children's nursing/fostering facilities, the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is high, there are many elementary and junior high school students per teacher, and the rate of school attendance support recipients is low. The numbers of commissioned welfare volunteers and persons staying at facilities for the elderly are low. There is a high number of reported criminal offenses, but few human rights infringements. There are many foreign technical interns, foreign students, and foreign residents. Conversely, there are low numbers of state-designated cultural properties, cultural facilities, and neighborhood associations.

Highly rated: (2nd) Low medical expenses per person, low number of human rights infringements.

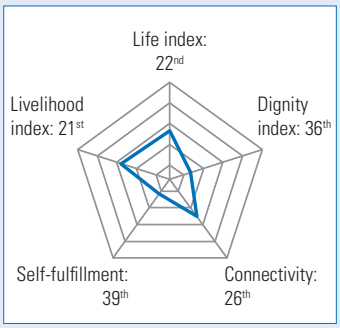
Issues to address: Improve the rate of single elderly households and the rate of people with disabilities among employees (both 45th). Increase the number of general hospitals (44th), doctors in medical facilities, and commissioned welfare volunteers (both 45th). Reduce the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten (41st).

26th Niigata

Population: 2.245 million (15th) **Area:** 12,584 km² (5th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment and the Dignity index are low. Both average life expectancy (24th for men, 11th for women) and HALE (10th for men, 11th for women) are good. The rate of single elderly households is the lowest in the country, as is that of tooth decay. There is a low rate of children in single-parent households, and the rate of people taking regular health checks is high. The number of deaths by suicide is high, as is the unmarried rate. There are few doctors per capita, and practicing sports is low. Both the Gini coefficient and rate of non-regular employment are low, with little income inequality between the prefecture's residents. The rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is extremely low, and both the rate of children given foster care placements and children's athletic ability are high. However, there are few children's nursing/fostering facilities, as well as high number of bullying and child suicides. The rate of internet usage is low. Both the number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims and the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers are low, as is the rate of participation in volunteer activities.

Highly rated: (1st) Low rate of single elderly households, low rates of children with tooth decay, rate of children given foster care placements. (2nd) Low number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims.

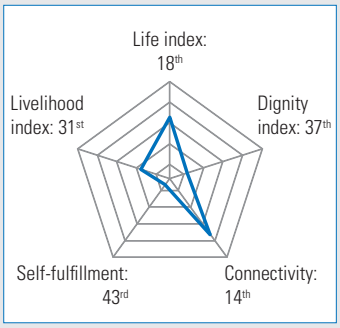


Issues to address: Reduce the number of deaths by suicide (45th), and increase the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (45th) and doctors per capita (44th). Improve the unmarried rate (44th), increase the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, and boost the rate of practicing sport (both 43rd).

27th Hiroshima

Population: 2.82 million (12th) **Area:** 8,479 km² (11th)

Overall evaluation: Subjective self-fulfillment is extremely low, and both satisfaction with life and expectations for the future are low. However, social connectivity is relatively strong. HALE is a problem (27th for men, 47th for women) relative to average life expectancy (9th for men, 10th for women). The rate of population increase is high, but the rate of people taking regular health checks is low. There is a low incidence of tooth decay, and the average number of walking steps is high. Residents' annual income is high, and the Gini coefficient is low. Conversely, there are many consultations for the independence support system for the needy, while the number of facilities for the elderly and the number of people staying at them is low. The earthquake proofing rate for public facilities is the lowest in the country, and greenhouse gas emissions per person are high. Although there are large numbers of elementary and junior high school students per teacher, and the rate of school attendance support recipients is high, children's academic ability test scores are also good. Children's athletic ability and university enrollment rates are high, and there are substantial numbers of evening/part-time junior high and high schools, as well as social education classes. There are very few cases of bullying, and the average number of days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities is also low. Men spend a substantial amount of time on housework and childcare, and there are also many lawyers. However, voter turnout in national elections is low.



Highly rated: (3rd) Low rates of children with tooth decay, low number of cases of bullying, number of foreign technical interns.

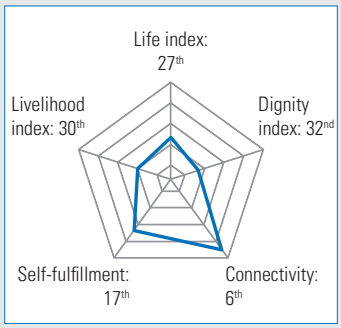
Issues to address: Improve earthquake proofing for public facilities (47th), HALE (women) (47th), the rate of people taking regular health checks (46th), and voter turnout in national elections (45th). Reduce greenhouse gas emissions per person (44th).

28th Kumamoto

Population: 1.756 million (24th) **Area:** 7,409 km² (15th)

Overall evaluation: The subjective sense of social connectivity is strong, and self-fulfillment is quite high. HALE (32nd for men, 38th for women) is low compared to average life expectancy (7th for men, 6th for women). There are high numbers of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters, and recovery from the 2016 earthquake and the 2019-20 flooding presents a major challenge. There are many hospitals, hospital beds, and doctors per capita, and medical expenses per person are high. The rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees is high, as is the rate of smoking among adults. The TFR is high, and the rate of single elderly households is low. Although the number of facilities for the elderly is large, the low number of nursing care staff is a problem. The female employment rate is high, but the number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare is the joint lowest in the country. Residents' income is low, and the unemployment rate is also high. In terms of infrastructure, the waterworks earthquake proofing rate is low. The average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities is high, and the rate of children given foster care placements is low. Participation in volunteer activities is high.

Highly rated:
(1st) Number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers.



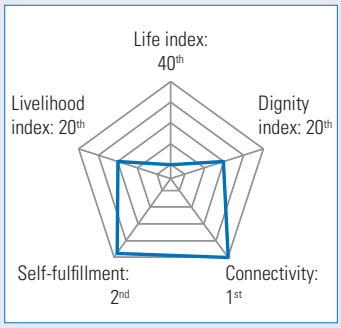
Issues to address:
Increase the hours men spend on housework and childcare (44th), and reduce the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees (46th). Improve the rate of children given foster care placements (44th), and increase the number of people who made donations to major international support organizations (47th).

29th Miyazaki

Population: 1.08 million (36th) **Area:** 7,735 km² (14th)

Overall evaluation: The Life index is extremely low, whereas subjective social connectivity is the highest in the country. Self-fulfillment is also high, suggesting that there are many residents with a positive outlook on life. Both average life expectancy (32nd for men, 22nd for women) and HALE (23rd for men, 25th for women) are around average. The TFR is high, but the working age population is small, with high levels of population outflow from the prefecture. The number of children in single-parent households is high, and the average number of walking steps is low. The number of facilities for the elderly is the highest of any prefecture, there is a large number of hospitals per capita, high numbers of nursing care staff, and the rate of single elderly households is low. Residents' annual income and disposable income per household are low, but the female employment rate is high. The number of cases of bullying is extremely high, and the rate of children given foster care placements is low. The rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance is very high, and the number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools is low. Voter turnout in national elections is low. There is a high proportion of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents.

Highly rated:
(1st) Number of facilities for the elderly, number of hours men spend on housework and childcare. (2nd) Low rate of single elderly households, increase the number of foreign residents.

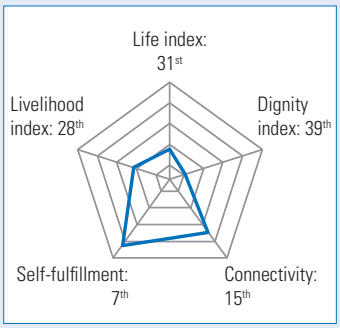


Issues to address:
Expand the number of social education classes (46th). Reduce the rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance (46th), the number of cases of bullying (46th), the suicidal ideation rate (45th), and the number of deaths by suicide (44th). Improve the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (46th).

30th Gunma

Population: 1.949 million (19th) **Area:** 6,362 km² (21st)

Overall evaluation: The Dignity index is low. Subjective self-fulfillment is extremely high, and social connectivity is also relatively strong. HALE (22nd for men, 15th for women) is good relative to average life expectancy (27th for men, 33rd for women). The proportion of single elderly households is low, as are medical expenses per person. However, the rates of smoking among adults and suicidal ideation are high, and there is also a large number of deaths by suicide. Annual income per person and the financial capability index of the prefecture are both high, and unemployment rate is low. However, disposable income per household is low, and there is a great deal of income inequality with large gender wage gap. The rate of non-regular employment is high, and the rate of people with disabilities among employees is low. Although the rate of school attendance support recipients is high, and the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is low, there are high numbers of consultations at child welfare centers. The rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance is low, as is the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy, while the number of nursing care staff and facilities for the elderly is high. The recycling rate and sewage treatment rate are low. The rate of female representatives in local assemblies and the degree of information disclosure are low. Although there are many NPOs, the number of neighborhood associations is low. There are many foreign students and foreign residents.



Highly rated:
(3rd) Number of nursing care staff

Issues to address: Increase the rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents (46th), improve the number of consultations at child welfare centers (43rd), and reduce the rate of smoking among adults (43rd).

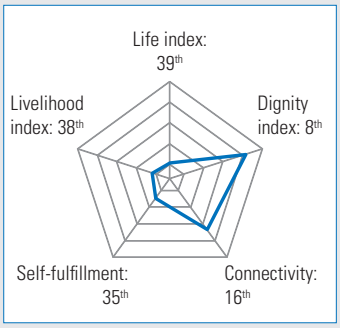
31st Kochi

Population: 706,000 (45th) **Area:** 7,104 km² (18th)

Overall evaluation: The Dignity index is high. Subjective self-fulfillment is low, but social connectivity is reasonably strong. Men's HALE (43rd for men, 18th for women) is very low compared to average life expectancy (37th for men, 26th for women). Challenges are posed by the high rate of population decrease and the extremely low working age population. There are plenty of hospitals, hospital beds, and doctors per capita. However, medical expenses per person are the highest in the country, so there is a need to bring these under control. Income inequality is high, as is the unemployment rate, but there are also high rates of female employment and elderly people with a job. The school truancy rate, high school dropout rate, and rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance are all high, as is the number of consultations at child welfare centers.

Highly rated: (1st) Number of general hospitals and hospital beds per capita, rate of elderly people with a job, low number of junior high school students per teacher, number of commissioned welfare volunteers, number of children's nursing/fostering facilities. (2nd) Low number of elementary school students per teacher.

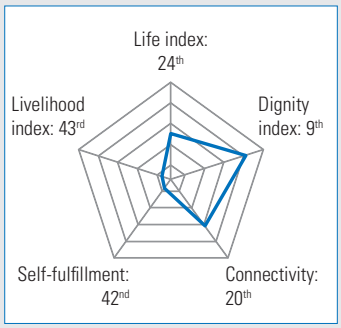
Issues to address:
Increase the average number of walking steps, reduce medical expenses per person (both 47th). Increase the working age population, improve the financial capability index, and reduce the number of children in single parent households (all 46th). Reduce the school truancy rate (46th), high school dropout rate (45th), and the number of human rights infringements (47th). Reduce the rate of school attendance support recipients (47th), the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy (46th), and the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance (45th).



32nd Hyogo

Population: 5.483 million (7th) **Area:** 8,401 km² (12th)

Overall evaluation: The Dignity index is high, but the Livelihood index and subjective self-fulfillment are extremely low. Social connectivity is about average. Average life expectancy (18th for men, 25th for women) is at middle level, but women's HALE (21st for men, 40th for women) is very low. The number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters is high, reflecting the extent of the damage caused by the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in 1995. The unmarried rate is low, and the rate of practicing sport is high, but the TFR is low, and the rate of single elderly households is high. Residents' annual income is about average, but monthly disposable income per household is extremely low. The rates of regular employment among single parents and female employment are low as is the rate of elderly people with a job. The university enrollment rate is high, and there are large numbers of evening/part-time junior high and high schools, but there is a need to improve the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, children's athletic ability, and the number of child suicides. The rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance is high, and the numbers of caseworkers, facilities for the elderly, and nursing care staff are all small. The sewage treatment rate and the waterworks earthquake proofing rate are high. The numbers of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, reported criminal offenses, and cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims are all high. The prefecture is ranked highly in terms of its international outlook, including its high number of foreign residents.



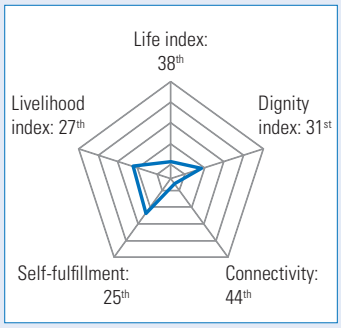
Highly rated: (1st) Degree of information disclosure. (2nd) Sewage treatment rate

Issues to address: Strengthen disaster prevention and recovery efforts, improve the female employment rate, monthly disposable income per person, and the number of reported criminal offenses (all 46th).

33rd Ehime

Population: 1.352 million (28th) **Area:** 5,676 km² (26th)

Overall evaluation: The Life index is low. Subjective self-fulfillment is around average, but social connectivity is extremely weak. Men's HALE (46th) and average life expectancy (40th) are low, posing a major challenge relative to that for women (32nd and 34th, respectively). The working age population is small. Rates of smoking among adults and suicidal ideation are low, and there are many hospitals per capita. However, there are also many deaths due to traffic accidents, while the rate of people taking regular health checks is low. Although disposable income per household is low, so is income inequality, and the rate of elderly people with a job is high. Children's academic ability test scores are high, but their athletic ability is poor. There are large numbers of children's nursing facilities and commissioned welfare volunteers, and few consultations at child welfare centers. The sewage treatment rate and the rate of earthquake proofing for public facilities and waterworks is low. Problems are also posed by the low rate of female representatives in local assemblies and the rate of children given foster care placements. The number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims and the average number days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities are low, while the numbers of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, cultural facilities, and neighborhood associations are high, with many residents satisfied with their lives.



Highly rated: (2nd) Low suicidal ideation rate. (3rd) Low average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities.

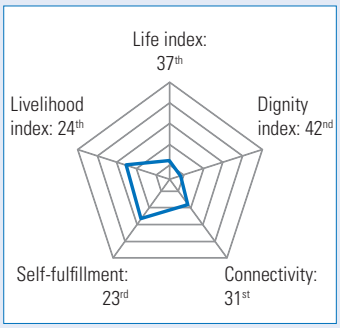
Issues to address: Reduce the number of deaths due to traffic accidents (45th), and improve men's HALE (46th). Increase the number of hours men spend on housework and childcare, and rectify the gender wage gap (both 44th).

34th Ibaraki

Population: 2.883 million (11th) **Area:** 6,097 km² (24th)

Overall evaluation: The Dignity index is particularly low. Subjective self-fulfillment is around average, but social connectivity is slightly weak. Average life expectancy (34th for men, 45th for women) is low, but HALE (9th for men, 8th for women) is good for both men and women. Medical expenses per person are low, but the numbers of doctors per capita is small. The high number of deaths due to traffic accidents and high rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees also present problems. Disposable income per household and the financial capability index are high, but the female employment rate and the rate of regular employment among single parents are low. Children's athletic ability is high, but so is the high school dropout rate. There is a high number of reported criminal offenses, while the number of commissioned welfare volunteers and facilities for the elderly is low. Greenhouse gas emissions per person are high. There are few human rights infringements, but the gender wage gap is large, and problems are also posed by the number of bullying cases, the number of lawyers, and the rate of children given foster care placements. There is a high number of foreign students and foreign technical interns, but the proportion of people that would welcome an increase in foreign residents is low.

Highly rated: (2nd) Athletic ability of children, low number of consultations at child welfare centers, number of foreign technical interns. (3rd) Low number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy.



Issues to address:

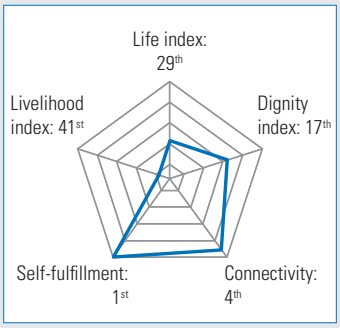
Improve average life expectancy for women (45th), the number of doctors in medical facilities (46th), and reduce the rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees (45th). Rectify the gender wage gap (46th), cut greenhouse gas emissions per person (42nd), and increase the number of registered NPOs (46th).

35th Kagoshima

Population: 1.613 million (24th) **Area:** 9,186 km² (10th)

Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index is extremely low, but subjective self-fulfillment is the highest in the country and social connectivity is also strong, with many residents who have a positive outlook on life. HALE (15th for men, 9th for women) is good relative to average life expectancy (43rd for men, 36th for women). The rate of single elderly households is low, but there are many children in single-parent households. The suicidal ideation rate is extremely high. There are many hospitals and hospital beds per capita, and the rate of smoking among adults is low, but medical expenses per person and rates of tooth decay are high. Residents' annual income is low. There are few evening/part-time junior high and high schools, the rates of school attendance support recipients and high school dropouts are high, and the university enrollment rate is low. The number of elementary and junior high school students per teacher is low, but so are children's academic ability test scores. Although greenhouse gas emissions per person are low, there are challenges in terms of infrastructure such as rates of internet usage and barrier-free transportation facilities. The rate of female representatives in local assemblies is low.

Highly rated: (1st) Satisfaction with life. (2nd) Number of general hospitals, number of hospital beds per capita.



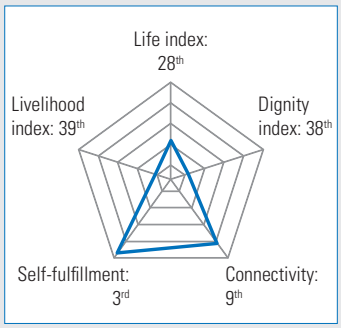
Issues to address:

Reduce medical expenses per person (45th), the rates of suicidal ideation and children with tooth decay (both 46th). Increase the number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools (47th), improve the high school dropout rate (45th), children's academic ability test scores, and the university enrollment rate (both 44th). Improve internet usage rate (47th), the waterworks earthquake proofing rate (46th), the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (45th), and the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers (47th).

36th Nagasaki

Population: 1.339 million (29th) **Area:** 4,131 km² (37th)

Overall evaluation: The Livelihood and Dignity indices are low, but subjective self-fulfillment is extremely high, and social connectivity is also strong, with many residents who have a positive outlook on life. Both average life expectancy (31st for men, 28th for women) and HALE (30th for men, 28th for women) are slightly low. The number of hospitals, hospital beds, and doctors per capita is high, as is the TFR. However, medical expenses per person and rates of tooth decay are also high. The rate of population decrease is high, while the residents' annual income, monthly disposable income and the prefecture's financial capability index are all low. However, the rate of people with disabilities among employees and the rate of regular employment among single parents are both high. The earthquake proofing rate for public facilities is extremely low, and there are also low rates of internet usage, sewage treatment, and recycling. The number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare is low. There are many consultations for the independence support system for the needy, a high rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance, and few social education classes. Children's academic ability test scores are low, as is the university enrollment rate. There are plenty of children's nursing/fostering facilities, but the number of consultations at child welfare centers is high.



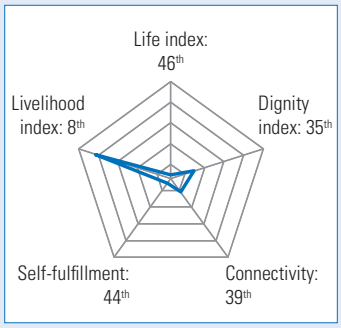
Highly rated: (1st) High rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents. (3rd) Low number of reported criminal offenses.

Issues to address: Reduce medical expenses per person (46th), improve the public facilities earthquake proofing rate (46th), and increase the number of social education classes (46th). Also improve annual income per person (45th) and the rate of female representatives in local assemblies (44th).

37th Iwate

Population: 1.241 million (32nd) **Area:** 15,275 km² (2nd)

Overall evaluation: The Life index and subjective self-fulfillment are extremely low, and social connectivity is also weak. Average life expectancy (45th for men, 42nd for women) is among the lowest in the country, but HALE (28th for men, 34th for women) is around average. The rate of smoking among adults is high, participation in sport is low, and the number of doctors per capita and average number of walking steps are very low. As such, many of the issues the prefecture faces relate to public health, although the rate of people taking regular health checks is high. The unmarried rate is high. The Gini coefficient is small, and the rate of elderly people with a job is high, but there are low numbers of nursing care staff. The truancy rate, the high school dropout rate, and the university enrollment rate are low. There are many cases of bullying, but the number of consultations at child welfare centers is low. Internet usage is low. Men spend a relatively large amount of time on housework and childcare, and the number of reported criminal offenses is low. There are few lawyers and few inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, but many human rights infringements.



Highly rated: (1st) Low Gini coefficient. (2nd) Low number of reported criminal offenses.

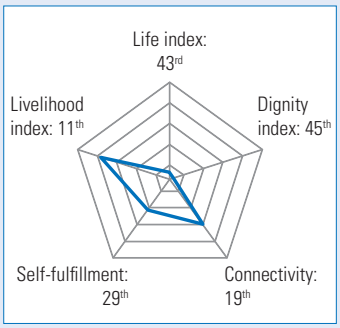
Issues to address: The biggest challenge is to move forward with reconstruction after the Great East Japan Earthquake. Improvements should be made to the unmarried rate, the number of deaths by suicide (both 46th), the rate of smoking among adults, the rate of practicing sports (both 45th), the university enrollment rate (43rd), the number of nursing care staff (46th), and the internet usage rate (46th). Also increase the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, the number of lawyers (both 46th), the number of foreign residents (47th), the number of foreign students, and the number of people who made hometown tax payments (both 45th).

38th Akita

Population: 981,000 (38th) **Area:** 11,638 km² (6th)

Overall evaluation: The Life and Dignity indices are extremely low. Subjective self-fulfillment is slightly low, but social connectivity is not that weak. Average life expectancy (46th for men, 44th for women) is among the lowest, and for men, HALE is the worst in the country (47th for men, 33rd for women). There are a large number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters, and the rate of population decrease, the unmarried rate, and the number of deaths by suicide are extremely high. The working age population is small, with high levels of population outflow from the prefecture. Residents' annual income, monthly disposable income, and the prefecture's financial capability index are low. While the school truancy rate and the high school dropout rate are extremely low, the university enrollment rate is poor. Children's athletic ability is high. The average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities is high, the rate of children given foster care placements is low, and there are also few lawyers. The gender wage gap is small, and there are few cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims. The number of foreign technical interns is the lowest nationwide. There are many cultural facilities and neighborhood associations.

Highly rated: (1st) Low school truancy rate, low number of reported criminal offenses. (2nd) Low rate of suicidal ideation, children's academic ability test scores, number of commissioned welfare volunteers.

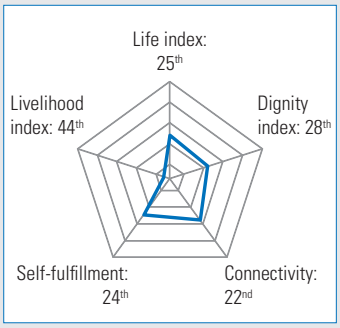


Issues to address:
Improve men's average life expectancy (46th) and HALE (47th). Reduce population decrease rate and the number of deaths by suicide (both 47th). Reduce the average days children stay in temporary child protection facilities (45th) and the rate of children given foster care placements (47th). Increase the number of lawyers and the number of people who made hometown tax payments (both 47th). Improve the water works earthquake proofing rate (47th), the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (42nd), and the internet usage rate (45th).

39th Fukuoka

Population: 5.111 million (9th) **Area:** 4,987 km² (29th)

Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index is extremely low. Subjective self-fulfillment and social connectivity are both about average. Average life expectancy (25th for men, 21st for women) is around average, but men's HALE is low (41st for men, 30th for women). The number of doctors per capita is high, and the rate of population increase is high. Rates of female employment and elderly people with a job are low, and the unemployment rate is extremely high. The number of elementary and junior high school students per teacher is high, as is the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten. The rates of school attendance support recipients, households receiving child-rearing allowance, and households receiving livelihood protection allowance are all high. There are many consultations for the independence support system for the needy, as well as at child welfare centers. There are, however, few children's nursing/fostering facilities or commissioned welfare volunteers. The number of households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker is low. Total floor space per residence is small, and greenhouse gas emissions per person are high. There are many lawyers, and few human rights infringements. The number of bullying cases is also low, but there are high numbers of child suicides and cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims. The number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare is low, and there are few state-designated cultural properties.



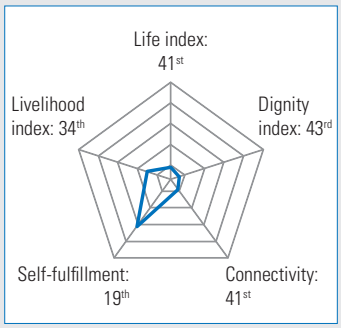
Highly rated: (3rd) Number of foreign students.

Issues to address: Reduce the unemployment rate (44th), the rate of school attendance support recipients (45th), the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance (43rd), and the number of consultations at child welfare centers (42nd). Increase the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (43rd) and the hours men spend on housework and childcare (44th).

40th Tochigi

Population: 1.953 million (18th) **Area:** 6,408 km² (20th)

Overall evaluation: The Life and Dignity indices are extremely low, and subjective social connectivity is very weak. Average life expectancy (42nd for men, 46th for women) is among the lowest, but HALE (19th for men, 6th for women) is good. The rate of single elderly households is the highest in the country. Problems are posed by the low numbers of hospitals and hospital beds per capita, as well as the high rates of smoking among adults and traffic accident deaths. Medical expenses per person are low, while the working age population and the rate of practicing sports is high. Levels of suicidal ideation are low, but the number of actual deaths by suicide is fairly high. The prefecture's financial capability index is high, as is annual income per person, but the female employment rate is low. In terms of education, the rate of school attendance support recipients is low, but the school truancy rate is high. The number of facilities for the elderly, the number of people staying at them, and the number of nursing care staff are all extremely low. The number of human rights infringements is low, but the high average number of days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities poses a problem. There are few cultural facilities, neighborhood associations, or NPOs. There are large numbers of foreign students and residents, and the proportion of people that would welcome an increase in foreign residents is high.



Highly rated:
(1st) Low number of people staying at facilities for the elderly.

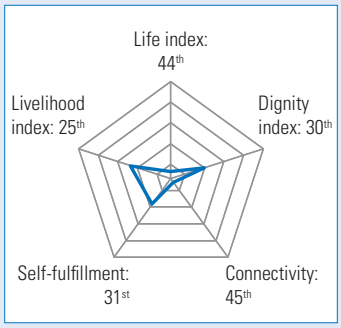
Issues to address:
Improve the rate of single elderly households(47th), women's average life expectancy (46th), and reduce the school truancy rate (40th).

41st Fukushima

Population: 1.865 million (20th) **Area:** 13,784 km² (3rd)

Overall evaluation: The Life index is extremely low. Subjective self-fulfillment is slightly low, and social connectivity is extremely weak. Average life expectancy (41st for men, 43rd for women) is low, but HALE (37th for men, 24th for women) is around average. There are a large number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters, while the rate of population decrease and the number of deaths by suicide are high. Rates of smoking among adults, tooth decay, and households late in payment of national health insurance fees are high. The number of doctors per capita and the rate of practicing sports is low. Disposable incomes are high, and there are low rates of non-regular employment, but the rate of people with disabilities among employees. The high school dropout rate is low, and there are few cases of bullying. The rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten is high. There are low numbers of human rights infringements, and the proportion of those would welcome an increase in foreign residents is high.

Highly rated: (1st) Low high school dropout rate. (2nd) Monthly disposable income per household, rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents.

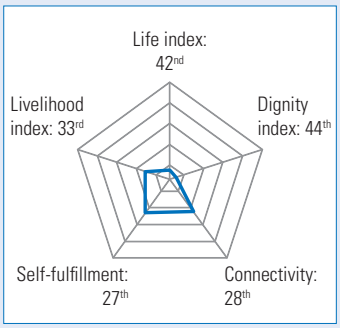


Issues to address: As a result of the Great East Japan Earthquake and the nuclear accident in 2011, many people in the affected prefectures are still forced to live in unstable and inconvenient conditions. As such, the biggest challenges are post-earthquake reconstruction and cleaning up the nuclear accident. Other issues to tackle include improving social connectivity (45th), measures for preventing population decrease (46th), and cutting rates of children with tooth decay (43rd) and smoking among adults(44th). Also required are improvements to the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten (44th), the rate of female representatives in local assemblies (41st), the recycling rate (43rd), the public facilities earthquake proofing rate (42nd), and the number of nursing care staff (45th).

42nd Wakayama

Population: 934,000 (40th) **Area:** 4,725 km² (30th)

Overall evaluation: The Life and Dignity indices are low. Subjective self-fulfillment and social connectivity are both about average. Both average life expectancy (44th for men, 41st for women) and HALE (44th for men, 37th for women) are low. The unmarried rate is low, but the rate of population decrease is high, and demographic aging is underway, with a small working age population. The suicidal ideation rate is low, and there are many doctors per capita, but there is a need to make improvements in health: the average number of walking steps, and the rate of practicing sports are low, and the rate of tooth decay is high. Income inequality is relatively high. The unemployment rate is low, and the rate of people with disabilities among employees and the rate of elderly people with a job are high. However, regular employment among single parents is low, as is the prefecture's financial capability index. There are many nursing facilities for children, and many social education classes, but the high rates of households receiving child-rearing allowance, bullying, and high school dropouts are problems to be addressed. Rates of recycling, sewage treatment, and waterworks earthquake proofing are extremely low. There are many cultural properties, but the rate of participation in volunteer activities is low, and the number of foreign technical interns is extremely low.



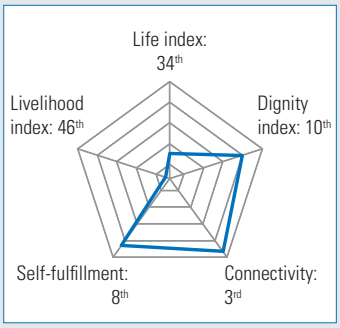
Highly rated: (2nd) Low unemployment rate.

Issues to address: Improve the recycling rate and sewage treatment rate (both 46th), the waterworks earthquake proofing rate (45th), and cut the greenhouse gas emissions per person (43rd). Increase the number of average walking steps (45th) and the rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents (47th).

43rd Osaka

Population: 8.824 million (3rd) **Area:** 1,905 km² (46th)

Overall evaluation: The Life index is extremely low, but the Dignity index is high. Subjective self-fulfillment and social connectivity are very high, with many people who have a positive outlook on life. Both average life expectancy (38th for men, 38th for women) and HALE (40th for men, 34th for women) are low. The number of deaths due to traffic accidents is low, and the average number of walking steps is high, but the TFR and rate of people taking regular health checks is low. The financial capability index is high, but challenges are posed by the high unemployment rate, the low rate of employment among single parents, and the low rate of people with disabilities among employees. Rates of school attendance support recipients, high school dropouts, and school truancy rate are all high. Problems in terms of children and education include low athletic ability and the low rate of children given foster care placements . The recycling rate is low, and there are many reported criminal offenses. The rate of female representatives in local assemblies is high, as is the degree of information disclosure, but there is also a large number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims, and the rate of participation in volunteer activities is low.



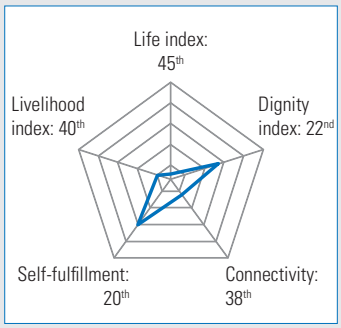
Highly rated: (2nd) Number of lawyers. (4th) Rate of female representatives in local assemblies.

Issues to address: Reduce the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance, the number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy (both 47th), the number of households assigned per livelihood protection allowance caseworker, the rate of school attendance support recipients (both 46th), and the number of consultations at child welfare centers (45th). Increase the rate of regular employment among single parents, the female employment rate, and children's academic ability test scores (all 45th). Increase the rate of children given foster care placements (46th), reduce the number of reported criminal offenses (47th), and increase the rate of participation in volunteer activities (47th).

44th Hokkaido

Population: 5.285 million (8th) **Area:** 78,420 km² (1st)

Overall evaluation: The Life and Livelihood indices are extremely low, and subjective social connectivity is weak, but self-fulfillment is above average. Women's HALE is a problem (25th for men, 46th for women) relative to average life expectancy (34th for men, 37th for women). The number of hospitals and hospital beds per capita is high, but the TFR and rate of people taking regular health checks is extremely low. The number of children in single-parent households is the highest in the country, and the rate of single elderly households is also very high. Rates of both smoking among adults and tooth decay are very high. The unemployment rate, non-regular employment rate, and rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance are all extremely high. There is a large number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools, and the number of students per teacher is small. Children's academic ability test scores and athletic ability are poor, the rate of school attendance support recipients is high, and the university enrollment rate is low. Rates of recycling and sewage treatment are high, but the rate of earthquake proofing rate for public facilities is low. The rate of children given foster care placements is high, as are the number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers, the number of lawyers, and the number of people making donations to major international support organizations.



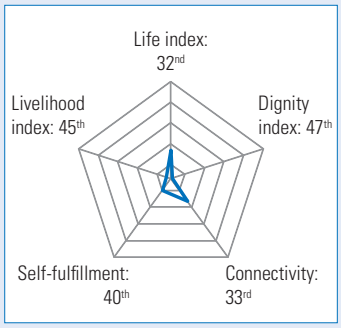
Highly rated: (2nd) Number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools.

Issues to address: Improve women's HALE (46th), the TFR, the rate of children with tooth decay (both 45th), and the rate of people taking regular health checks (44th). Reduce the rate of smoking among adults (47th), as well as the number of children in single parent households (47th), the rate of single elderly households, and the rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance (both 46th). Improve athletic ability of children, the public facilities earthquake proofing rate (both 45th), and the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (41st).

45th Miyagi

Population: 2.313 million (14th) **Area:** 7,282 km² (16th)

Overall evaluation: The Livelihood and Dignity indices are extremely low, and subjective self-fulfillment is poor. Both average life expectancy (15th for men, 20th for women) and HALE (12th for men, 36th for women) are around average. The rate of people taking regular health checks is the highest in the country, but the TFR is low, and the rate of suicidal ideation is high. The number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters is the highest in the country, making clear the extent of the damage caused by the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011. The working age population is high, but disposable income per household is extremely low, as are the employment rate among women, the rate of people with disabilities among employees, and the rate of elderly people with a job. The school truancy rate and the high school dropout rate are high, there are many cases of bullying, and children's academic ability test scores are low. The number of consultations at child welfare centers and the average number of days that children stay in temporary child protection facilities are both extremely high, and although the rate of children given foster care placements is high, the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities is the smallest in the country. The number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy is very high. The rates of earthquake proofing for both public facilities and waterworks are high.



Highly rated: (1st) Rate of people taking regular health checks.

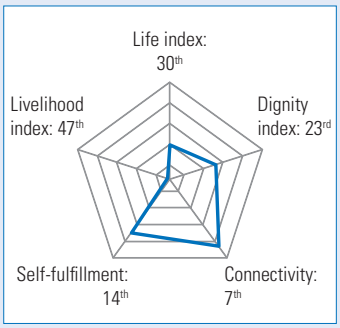
Issues to address: The damage caused by the Great East Japan Earthquake has forced many people in the affected prefectures to live in unstable and inconvenient conditions, so post-disaster reconstruction poses a major challenge. Other issues to tackle include improving monthly disposable income per household (47th), rate of the elderly with a job (46th) and female employment rate (42nd), reducing school truancy rate (47th), the number of consultations at child welfare centers (47th), the number of cases of bullying (45th), and the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten (42nd). Also required are improvements in the average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities (44th) and the number of children's nursing/fostering facilities(47th).

46th Okinawa

Population: 1.448 million (23rd) **Area:** 2,281 km² (44th)

Overall evaluation: The Livelihood index is the lowest in the country, but subjective social connectivity is high, as is self-fulfillment, suggesting that there are many residents with a positive outlook on life. There is a large discrepancy between men and women in both average life expectancy (36th for men, 7th for women) and HALE (25th for men, 10th for women). It is young and vibrant, with an extremely high TFR and working age population. It also has the highest unmarried rate and high numbers of children in single-parent households. Annual income per person is the lowest in the country, while the unemployment rate and non-regular employment rate are the highest, and the rate of elderly people with a job is also low. There are many issues to resolve in terms of education: the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, the rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance, the high school dropout rate, and the truancy rate are all exceptionally high, while children's academic ability test scores are low, and the university enrollment rate is the lowest in the country. There is an urgent need to eliminate the disparity between Okinawa and the mainland. This will involve taking advantage of Okinawa's unique strengths while tackling the U.S. military base issue on a country-wide basis.

Highly rated: (1st) Population increase rate, TFR, low gender wage gap, rate of increase in foreign residents. (2nd) Number of facilities for the elderly.



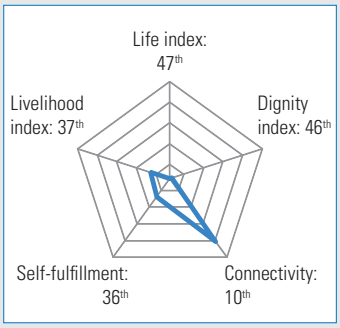
Issues to address:
Reduce the unmarried rate and rate of children with tooth decay, and improve annual income per person, the unemployment rate, the non-regular employment rate, the rate of elderly people with a job, the rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten, the rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance, the high school dropout rate, children's academic ability test scores, the university enrollment rate and the number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims (all 47th).

47th Aomori

Population: 1.263 million (31st) **Area:** 9,646 km² (8th)

Overall evaluation: The Life and Dignity indices are extremely low. Although subjective social connectivity is exceedingly strong, self-fulfillment is low. Average life expectancy (47th for men, 47th for women) is the lowest nationwide, but HALE (35th for men, 20th for women) is about average. Rates of population decrease, unmarried residents, single elderly households, and households late in payment of national health insurance fees are all extremely high, with many deaths by suicide. There are also a high number of problems relating to public health; extremely high rates of smoking among adults and tooth decay, few doctors per capita, and extremely low levels of practicing sports. There is also a need to stimulate the economy: residents' annual income and monthly disposable income are both extremely low, while the Gini coefficient, unemployment rate, and rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance are extremely high. The number of students per teacher is low. The sewage treatment rate is low. It enjoys a high level of information disclosure, and few reported criminal offenses. The rate of female representatives in local assemblies is the lowest in the country.

Highly rated: (1st) Low rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten.



Issues to address:
Improve average life expectancy and the rate of practicing sport (both 47th). Reduce the population decrease rate (45th), the rate of smoking among adults (46th), the rate of children with tooth decay (44th). Improve monthly disposable income per household, the rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance (both 45th), the unemployment rate (44th), the recycling rate (46th), the rate of barrier-free transportation facilities (43rd) the rate of female representatives in local assemblies (47th). Increase the number of people who made hometown tax payments (46th) and the number of foreign students (45th).

CHALLENGES FACING THOSE WHO ARE VULNERABLE TO BE LEFT BEHIND

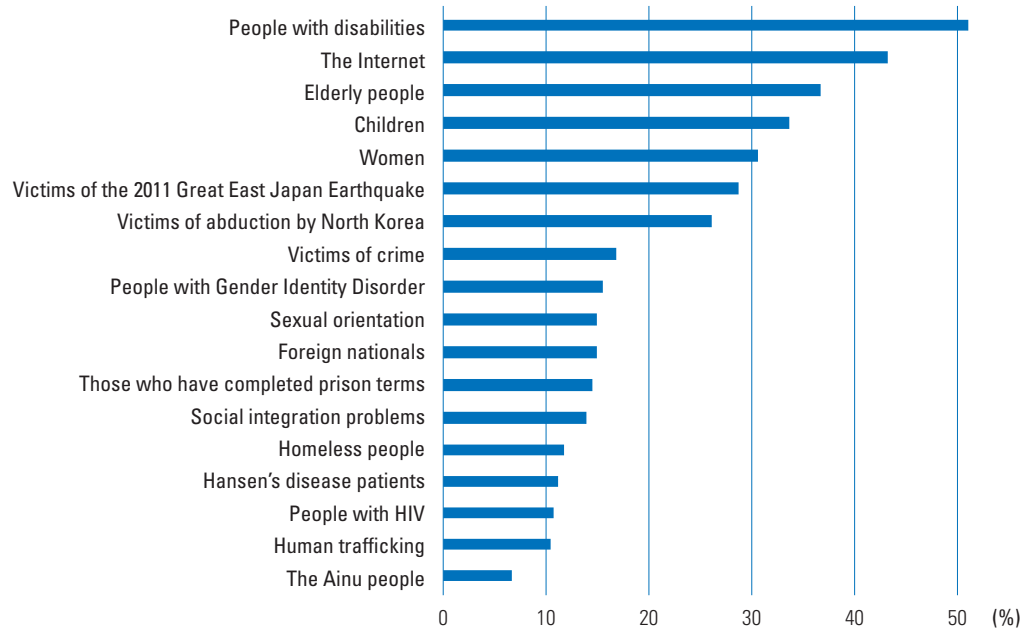
The people often left behind

In order to ascertain who in Japan is left behind and who is vulnerable to being so, the results of a Cabinet Office survey* covering the human rights issues of concern to people in Japan (released December 2017) serve as a helpful reference. The issue raised by the most respondents was the rights of people with disabilities, increasing to 51.1% from the 39.4% in the previous survey (2012). Rather than an attitude of "we have to help them because we feel sorry for them," this can be seen as an increased level of awareness regarding the human rights of people with disabilities. Following this, the other main areas of concern included human rights violations on internet media, elderly people, children, women, discrimination against the victims of the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake, victims of abduction by North Korea, LGBT people, foreign nationals, social integration problems (referring to the problems concerning those people in historically discriminated communities), and Hansen's disease patients.

Out of the above issues, the project team focused on the following groups considered at high risk of being left behind: children, women, youth, elderly people, people with disabilities, LGBT people, disaster victims, and foreign nationals. In this part, the team has analyzed the realities and challenges facing each of these groups, presenting relevant laws, regulations, and pioneering efforts by private organizations, and has drawn up recommendations accordingly. Efforts have been made to address cases where there has been insufficient information presented so far, and in which people are not necessarily aware of the seriousness of the situation.

* Cabinet Office, *Survey on Human Rights Protection,* conducted September–October 2017

Figure : Human rights issues of concern in Japan (multiple responses)



Source: Cabinet Office, *Survey on Human Rights Protection,* released December 2017

Chapter 5

Children

The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

Reduce at least by half the proportion of children living in poverty (target 1.2). End all forms of malnutrition, including achieving the targets on stunted growth in children under 5 years of age by 2025, (2.2). End preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age (3.2). Reduce by one third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment, and promote mental health and well-being (3.4). Ensure that all children complete free and quality primary and secondary education (4.1). Ensure that all children have access to quality early childhood care and pre-primary education (4.2). Ensure equal access to education and vocational training for children in vulnerable situations (4.5). Build child-friendly education facilities and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive, and effective learning environments (4.a). End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls (5.1). Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls (5.2). Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labor, and by 2025, end child labor in all its forms (8.7). Provide access to safe, affordable, accessible and sustainable transport systems for children (11.2). Provide access to easily usable green and public spaces (11.7). End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children (16.2). Provide legal identity for all, including birth registration (16.9).

5-1. Child Poverty

The Current Situation

1. The Relative Poverty Rate for Children

The fact that children are in the process of developing and growing places them in a vulnerable position, and they are affected by a variety of factors beyond their control. It is incumbent on us to ensure that every child is protected, and no child is left behind. In the SDGs, the reduction of child poverty is also a common challenge for developed countries, and in recent years, the existence of children living in poverty in Japan has become a frequent topic of discussion. Childhood poverty not only causes a range of disadvantages for children but can also have lifelong effects through its impact on health, nutrition, learning outcomes and academic progression.

For a long time during and after Japan's period of rapid economic growth, child poverty (as well as other poverty issues) has gone unnoticed, and the government did not publish poverty rates. In the 2000s, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) pointed out Japan's rising child poverty rate in *OECD Economic Surveys: Japan* (2006). Reports such as this led to the issue gradually attracting attention, producing a spate of publications and

reports in 2008 (Aya Abe, a professor at Tokyo Metropolitan University, calls 2008 the "first year of child poverty"). In 2009, the government published the relative poverty rate for the first time. In 2011, it released figures going back to 1985, revealing that the relative poverty rate for children (child poverty rate) has risen almost continuously since that year. Accordingly, child poverty is finally on the policy agenda.

In 2013, the **Act on the Promotion of Measures to Counter Child Poverty** was enacted, aiming to "ensure that a child's future does not depend on the environment in which they were born and raised." In December of the same year, a report by United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) stated that the relative poverty rate for children in Japan was 14.9%, the 10th highest among 31 developed countries. This was received with great surprise (UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, Aya Abe, Junko Takezawa; *Report Card 11: Child Well-Being in Rich Countries: Comparing Japan*). In 2014, the Cabinet decided on the **General Principles of Policy on Poverty among Children**, and efforts were set underway in earnest.

Figure 1 lists 41 developed countries in ascending order by the size of their "relative income gap," which indicates how far the household income of children at the 10th percentile of the income scale is from that of children at the median. Japan's gap is the eighth largest. In addition, Japan's child poverty rate is the 15th highest (UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, *Report Card 13: Fairness for Children*, 2016). It shows that Japan faces challenges both in the "breadth" of poverty; i.e., how many children live in poverty, and also in the "depth" of poverty; i.e., to what extent children in poverty are left

Figure 1 : Child relative income gap and child poverty rate

Rank	Country	Relative income gap	Child poverty rate (50% of the median)
1st	Norway	37.00	4.5
2nd	Iceland	37.76	6.4
3rd	Finland	38.34	3.7
4th	Denmark	39.54	4.8
5th	Czech Republic	39.62	6.3
6th	Switzerland	39.64	7
7th	United Kingdom	39.94	9.3
8th	Netherlands	40.64	5.7
9th	Luxembourg	41.21	13
10th	Ireland	41.49	6.9
11th	Austria	41.87	9.6
12th	Germany	43.11	7.2
13th	France	43.95	9
14th	Australia	44.75	9.3
15th	Republic of Korea	45.74	8
16th	Sweden	46.23	9.1
17th	New Zealand	46.52	11
18th	Cyprus	47.19	9.1
19th	Slovenia	47.29	8.3
20th	Malta	48.21	14.5
21st	Hungary	48.34	15
22nd	Belgium	48.41	10.1
23rd	Poland	51.76	14.5
24th	Canada	53.19	16.9
25th	Slovakia	54.21	13.7
26th	Croatia	54.59	14.8
27th	Lithuania	54.81	17.8
28th	Estonia	55.55	12.4
29th	Turkey	57.07	22.8
30th	United States	58.85	20
31st	Chile	59.03	26.3
32nd	Latvia	59.66	16.3
33rd	Portugal	60.17	17.4
34th	Japan	60.21	15.8
35th	Italy	60.64	17.7
36th	Spain	62.62	20.2
37th	Israel	64.58	27.5
38th	Greece	64.69	22.3
39th	Mexico	65.00	24.6
40th	Bulgaria	67.01	23.1
41st	Romania	67.08	24.3

Source: UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, *Report Card 13: Fairness for Children* (2016)

behind compared to children from the average household.

The relative poverty rate for children declined for the first time in 12 years from 16.3% in 2012 to 13.9% in 2015 (**Figure 2**). The rate further declined to 13.5% in 2018. This is mainly seen as a result of the economic recovery, which has improved the income of working households.

However, the poverty rate among single-parent families is over half, at 50.8% in 2015 (48.1% in 2018), which represents a serious challenge. Among OECD countries, the poverty rate for single-parent families in Japan is particularly high. Even though the employment rate for single-parent households in Japan is higher than in other developed countries, the extremely high rate of poverty among single-parent households highlights the problem of the "working poor," who are unable to alleviate their poverty even if they have jobs. As **Table 1** shows, this is particularly serious in single-mother households. Children in single-parent households, and single-mother households in particular, are likely to be in the most adverse circumstances. As such, targeted measures are needed to help them.

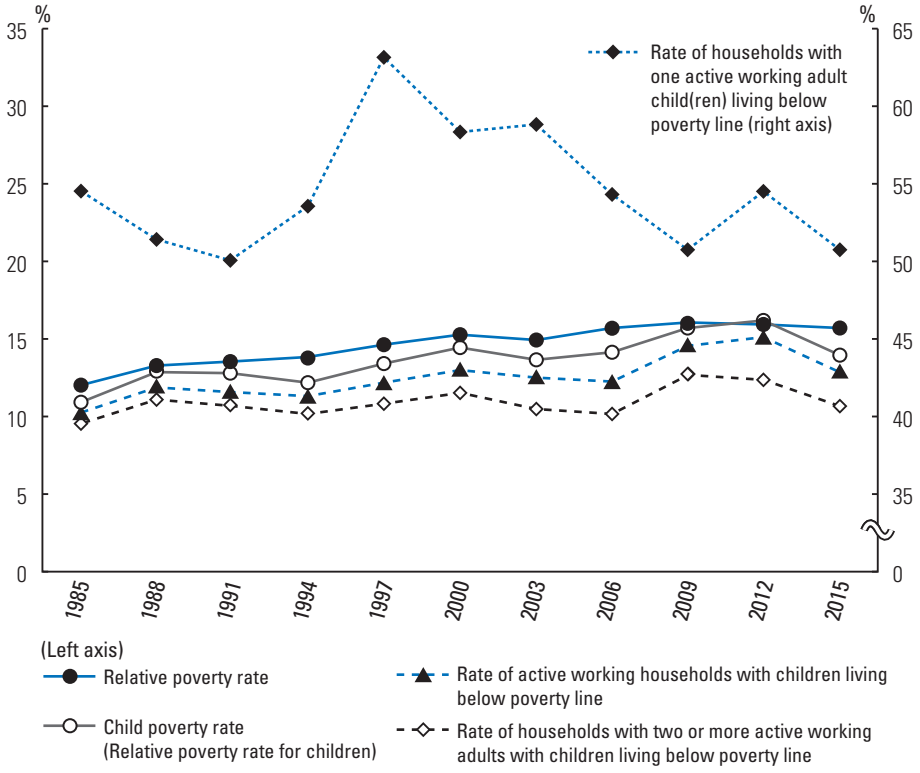
Table 1 : Average annual income of single-parent households, etc.

	Single-mother households	Single-father households
Number of households (estimated value)	1.232 million	187,000
Employment rate	81.8%	85.4%
Of which regular employees	44.2%	68.2%
Average annual income (mother or father)	2.43 million yen	4.20 million yen

Source: MHLW, *Results of the FY 2016 Nationwide Survey on Single Parent Households*

The number of children in single-parent households varies widely by region, being low in the Hokuriku region but high in such prefectures as

Figure 2 : Yearly trends in the poverty rate

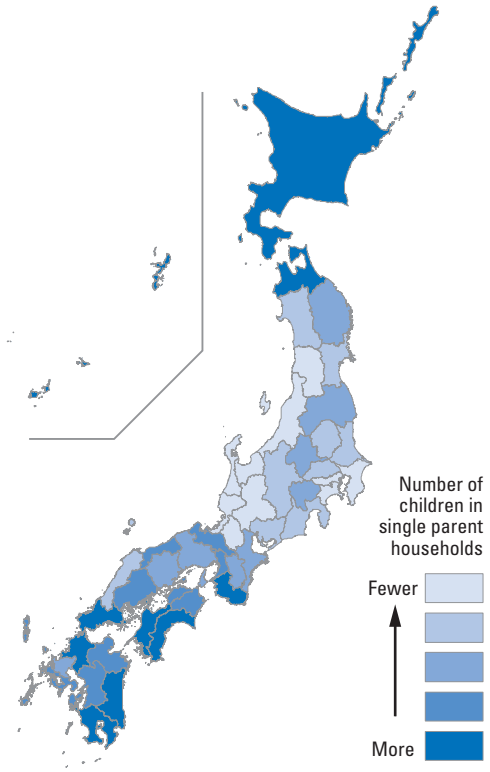


Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW), *2016 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions*

Note: Relative poverty rate is the percentage of households living below poverty line, or on an income of less than 50% of the median equivalent disposable income (OECD definition). The child poverty rate shows the rate of children in households living below the poverty line.

Hokkaido, Kochi, Miyazaki, Kagoshima, Okinawa, Wakayama, and Yamaguchi (**Indicator A7, Figure 3**). Due to small sample sizes at the prefectural level, the MHLW's Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions does not provide estimates of the child poverty rate by prefecture. At present, only such prefectures as Okinawa, Hiroshima, Kochi, and Nagano estimate their own child poverty rates using tax information (resident tax data) and other data.

Figure 3 : Number of children in single-parent households



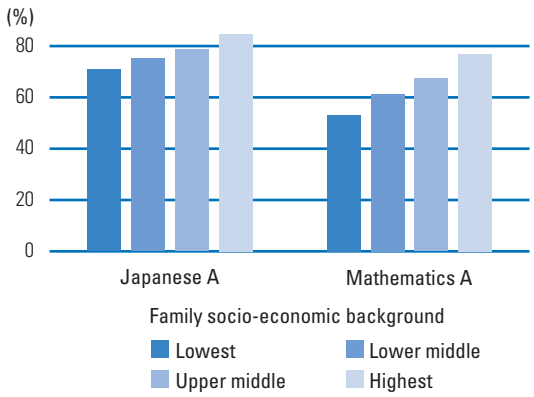
Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), *Population Census* (2015)

2. Multi-dimensional Poverty

As noted by SDGs target 1.2 in calling for "reducing poverty in all its dimensions," child poverty means more than just a lack of income. In order to understand the reality of those children left behind, it is important to comprehend their situations from multiple perspectives, including aspects other than income.

In terms of education, it is clear that a family's economic situation relates to children's academic attainment and whether or not they go on to further education. For example, a study by Ochanomizu University (2018) using FY 2017 National Assessment of Academic Ability by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), showed that the higher the family's socio-economic background (indexed by family income, father's educational background, and mother's educational background), the higher the academic achievement (average rate of correct answers) tended to be in each subject for both sixth-year elementary school and third-year junior high school students (**Figure 4**). Rather than just the completion of primary and secondary education, the SDGs aim at the achievement of "learning outcomes." The results of this study, however, demonstrate the challenges involved in achieving this goal.

Figure 4 : Average rate of correct answers for third-year junior high school students



Source: Study by Ochanomizu University using FY 2017 National Assessment of Academic Ability by MEXT

There are also challenges regarding fair educational opportunities. The university enrollment rate is low in such prefectures as Okinawa, Tottori, Yamaguchi, Kagoshima, Iwate, Saga, Nagasaki, Yamagata, Akita, and Hokkaido, with a striking disparity between metropolitan and

rural areas (**Indicator D6**, Figure 5). Enrollment rates for higher/tertiary education also vary widely according to household demographics (Table 2).

Table 2 : Rates of enrollment in higher/tertiary education

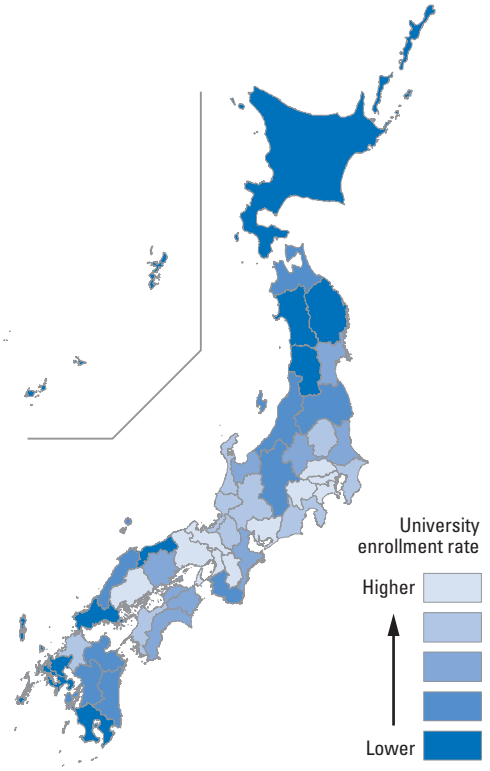
All households	73.3%
Single-parent households (reference)	41.7%
Households receiving livelihood assistance	33.1%
Children in nursing/foster facilities	24.0%

Source: Cabinet Office, Fourth Expert Committee on Child Poverty Measures, *Document 1* (August 2017)

For those who have lost the opportunity to receive education due to poverty or personal circumstances, including foreign children, evening junior high schools and part-time high schools provide valuable opportunities to learn. However, there are limited numbers of these schools in such prefectures as Kagoshima, Shimane, Oita, Tottori, Yamagata, Miyazaki, Saga, Tokushima, Ishikawa, Toyama, and Akita, so it is hoped the number available can be expanded (**Indicator D11**, Figure 6).

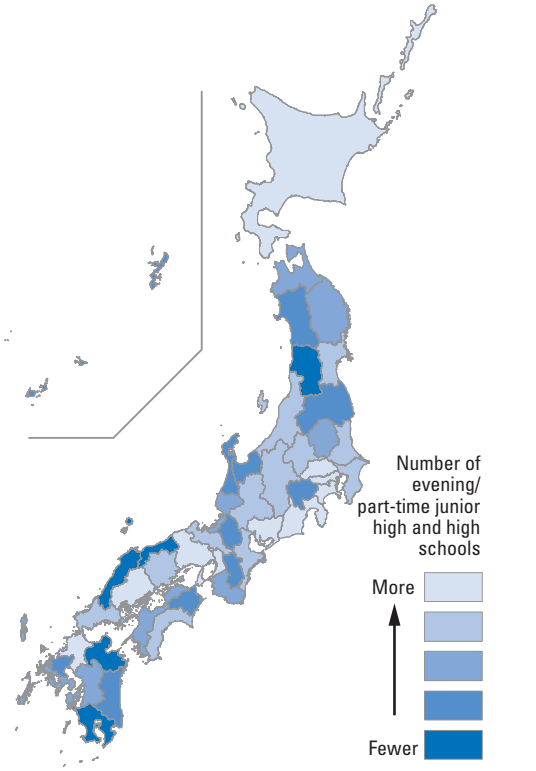
There are also findings that show a relationship between the economic status of a household and children's health. For example, it has been revealed that children in low-income households have about 1.3 times the risk of stunted growth, in which they develop during infancy without gaining weight, compared to children in high-income households (Yuko Kachi et. al., "Parental Socioeconomic Status and Weight Faltering in Infants in Japan" (2018), a survey led by a Kitasato University team using data from the MHLW's "Longitudinal Survey of Newborns in the 21st Century," which tracks children born in 2001 and 2010). Research also shows that the percentage of children with allergies and tooth decay is more than 10 times higher in households

Figure 5 : University enrollment rate (tertiary education not included)



Source: MEXT, School Basic Survey (2018)

Figure 6 : Number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools

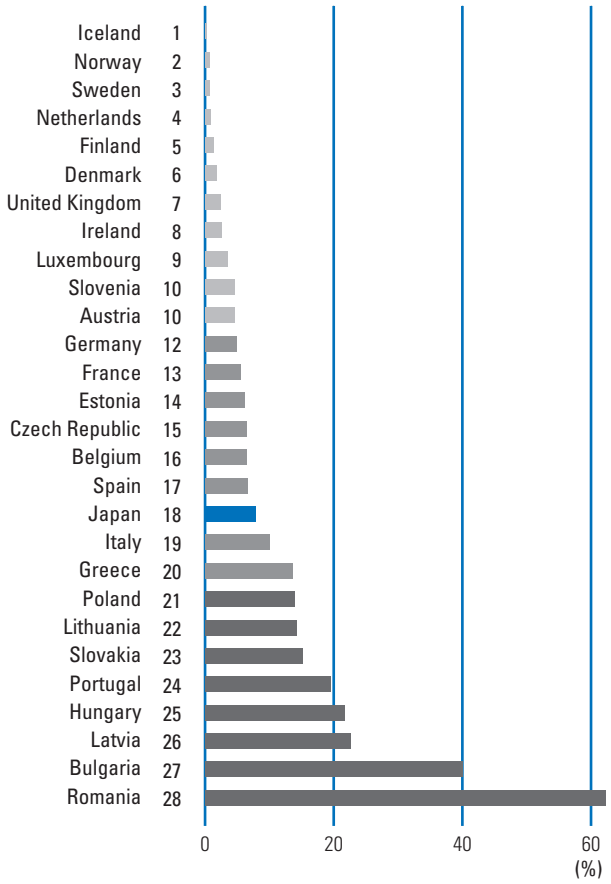


Source: MEXT, *Survey on Evening Junior High Schools, Survey on Part-time High Schools* (2017)

receiving livelihood protection than in regular households (Naoki Kondo et. al., University of Tokyo Research Team, *Study on the Effectiveness of Social Prescribing such as Attendant Support for the Socially Vulnerable and Support for Children from Families in Need*, 2019). It is extremely important to point out that there are ongoing health and nutritional disparities in today's Japan. The **Guiding Principles for Implementation of the SDGs,** compiled by the government in 2016, listed combating lifestyle-related diseases and promoting longevity as some of the health challenges facing Japan. However, they did not include issues relating to children's health and nutrition. These issues should be included as a matter of course if a society where no one is left behind is to be realized.

When the **General Principles of Policy on Poverty among Children** were drawn up, 25 indicators were established to verify the implementation and effectiveness of the relevant measures. Indicators relating to education were included, but these were not sufficiently multifaceted. Researchers pointed out that there were no indicators other than economic status and education, and that many of the indicators used specific groups such as livelihood protection-receiving households and single-parent families as the basis of calculation, thus failing to capture the full picture of children living in poverty (*Child Poverty Indicators — Suggestions from Researchers*, 2015). In 2017, based on deliberations by an expert panel, the Cabinet Office announced the systematization of the indicators and the addition of eight new indicators to the current ones (such as the percentage of school

Figure 7 : Children's material deprivation rates



Source: UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, Aya Abe, Junko Takezawa; *Report Card 11: Child Well Being in Rich Countries: Comparing Japan* (2013).

students missing breakfast, the percentage of children with academic challenges, and the high school dropout rate for all households). This aimed to "eliminate the factors that contribute to the cycle of poverty, based on a multifaceted understanding of children's education and the environment where they grow up, as well as their economic situations." It is important to understand child poverty from multiple perspectives, not just by using existing data, but also by considering the collection of additional data if necessary.

EU countries and international organizations, such as UNICEF, use a multifaceted poverty indicator to provide a comprehensive picture of the living standards of children living in poverty. Also known as the "material deprivation indicator," this illustrates the lack of things and opportunities that most people would expect a child to normally have. According to an international comparison of material deprivation rates made possible through cooperation between UNICEF and Japanese researchers, the deprivation rate among Japanese children was 11th highest out of 28 countries (**Figure 7**). Specifically, this was measured by the proportion of children (aged 1–12 years old) who lacked two or more of the following eight things: (1) books appropriate for the child's age and knowledge level (not including schoolbooks), (2) outdoor leisure equipment, (3) indoor games, (4) money to participate in school trips and events, (5) a quiet place with enough room and light to do homework, (6) an internet connection, (7) some new clothes, and (8) the opportunity to celebrate special occasions such as birthdays, etc.

In Japan, there are examples of a material deprivation indicator being used for municipal-level surveys. For example, a survey conducted by the Tokyo Metropolitan Government and Tokyo Metropolitan University analyzed children with "severe difficulties leading a daily life" based on three factors: low income, lack of children's activities and possessions (a deprivation indicator using 15-items and a survey administered to children), strained household finances (a deprivation indicator and a survey administered to caregivers) (2016, *Tokyo Children's Living Conditions Survey*). When those to whom one of the three factors applied were classified as the "peripheral group," and those to whom two or more of the three applied as the "deprived group," it was revealed that a total of 21.6% (peripheral group 14.5%, deprived group 7.1%) of second-year junior high school students were facing these "severe difficulties leading a daily life." For each group, the study analyzes items such as children's learning, life, health, and self-affirmation, as well as how each of them relates to the circumstances of their household and caregivers. This demonstrates the worth of the combined use of income-based poverty indicators and multifaceted poverty indicators.

The introduction of a "material deprivation indicator" was also considered by the Cabinet Office's expert panel when reviewing the indicators in the **General Principles of Policy on Poverty among Children** (2017), but as it would require a considerable amount of time to prepare, it was identified as an issue for future consideration. Material deprivation indicators, which let us know how many children lack the things and opportunities they should have and where they are located, are useful not only from a human security perspective, but also for the SDGs' target of eliminating "poverty in all its dimensions" from developed countries like Japan. As such, it is extremely important to make use of the results of previous studies and to consider the introduction of such an indicator.

3. The Cycle of Poverty and its Social Costs

As we have already seen, through restricted educational opportunities and adverse effects on health, poverty during childhood can have irreparable effects even in adulthood.

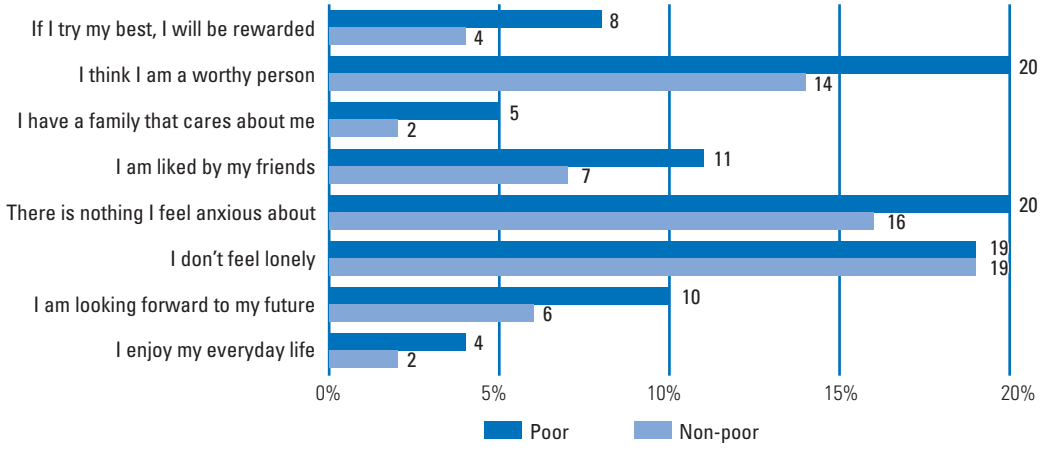
When considering the impact of child poverty

on the future, it is also important to focus on factors relating to individual initiative, such as motivation and hope. A survey shows that the proportion of children who answered "I disagree" to the statement "I am looking forward to my future" was higher among those in poverty (**Figure 8**). According to a Cabinet Office survey, there is a large discrepancy between relatively poor and non-poor groups regarding answers to the question "How far do you think realistically you will continue your education?" (**Table 3**).

Unlike Western countries, Japan does not have data that tracks the same children over long periods of time. However, by asking people about their childhood situations, some surveys have shown that poverty in childhood leads to difficulties in adult life (Aya Abe, "Analysis of the Impact of Childhood Poverty on Adult Living Difficulties," 2011). Japan has large wage disparities based on type of employment and educational background, which means that differences in education resulting from childhood poverty lead to differences in future income. The monthly wage for men who graduated from university or graduate school is about 403,000 yen, compared to 288,000 yen for those who only graduated high school (MHLW, *Basic Survey on Wage Structure 2015*). The impact of poverty on the next generation (the cycle of poverty) is evident in data such as that on the relationship between the educational backgrounds of parents and children, as well as on the relationship between parents' educational backgrounds and the relative poverty rate for children.

Child poverty has an impact not only on the next generation, but also on society as a whole. When a child is left in poverty and is unable to demonstrate the full potential that they were born with, this is a loss to society. It is estimated, comparing a scenario in which an 18-year-old

Figure 8 : Percentage of 5th grade elementary school students who answered "I disagree" to each statement



Source: Aya Abe et al., *Overview of the Results of The Osaka Children's Survey* (2014)

Table 3 : "How far do you realistically think you will go in school?"

	Junior high school	High school	To vocational school/ technical college/ junior college	University/ graduate school
Relatively poor	3.2%	47.3%	19.6%	27.7%
Not relatively poor	1.6%	22.1%	16.2%	58.8%

Source: Cabinet Office, *Report on the Survey of Parents' and Children's Attitudes toward Life* (2012)

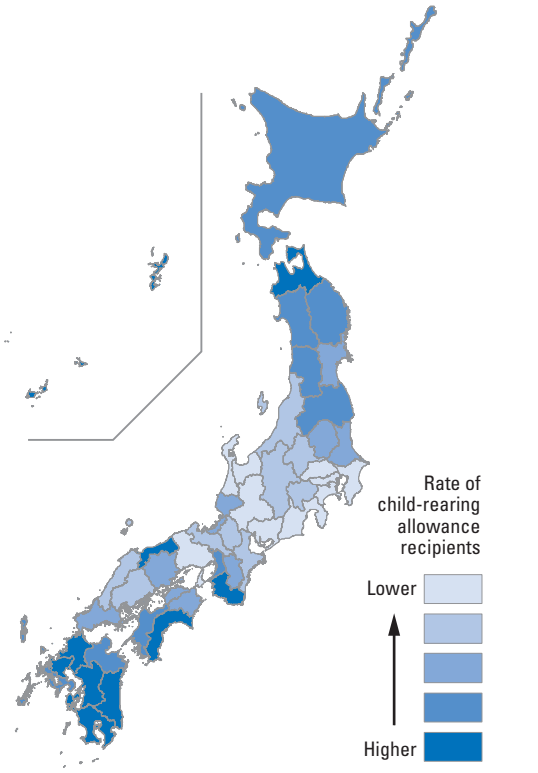
high school dropout is given two years of vocational training with one in which they are not, that the social cost of poverty (the sum of the livelihood protection payments that young person would receive and the taxes and social insurance contributions they would pay if they were to work) is close to 100 million yen (Aya Abe, *Child Poverty II*, Iwanami Shoten, 2014). Moreover, estimates have been released showing the impact of ignoring child poverty on Japanese economy: the total lifetime income earned between the ages of 19-64 by children currently aged 15 years old will decrease by about 2.9 trillion yen, while the net tax and social security burden will increase by 1.1 trillion yen (Nippon Foundation, *Estimates of the Social Losses of Child Poverty*, 2015).

4. The Measures to Combat Child Poverty

In order to correct the disparities arising from incomes earned through labor, the government redistributes income through the tax system and social security system. A typical social security benefit for families with children is the child-rearing allowance for single-parent households, which is intended to "promote stability and independence in the lives of families in which a child who does not share household income and expenses with one of their mother or father is being raised." For households consisting of a mother and one child, the full amount (42,330 yen per month) is paid for an annual income of less than 1.3 million yen, with a full additional amount for a second child of 10,000 yen, and if the income limit is exceeded, a partial payment is made based on income (as of November 2018).

The proportion of households receiving the **child-rearing allowance for single-parent households** is highest in Okinawa, followed by Miyazaki, Aomori, Saga, Kumamoto, Wakayama, Fukuoka, Kochi, Tottori, and Kagoshima (**Indicator E1**, Figure 9).

Figure 9 : **Rate of households in receipt of child-rearing allowance**



Source: MHLW, *FY 2014 Social Welfare Service Report*

The **child benefit**, meanwhile, was initially conceived as a system that covered the third and subsequent children of low-income households. However, the scope of the system was later broadened, and at present it is a benefit with a relatively high-income limit that covers many families, aimed at "stabilizing the lives of families, etc. and ensuring the sound development of children." As such, it is difficult to characterize as an anti-child poverty measure. Specifically, for an income under the limit of 9.6 million yen (for a married couple and two children), the monthly payment is 15,000 yen for children under the age of 3, and 10,000 yen for children aged 3 to elementary school age (15,000 yen for the third and subsequent children), and 10,000 yen for junior high school students. A special benefit of 5,000 yen per month is payable if the income limit is exceeded. The largest safety net against poverty is the livelihood protection allowance. With the strict requirements to be met on receiving it, only 15-30% of households

that fall below the minimum cost of living do so. As a result, children in households receiving the livelihood protection allowance make up only about 1.2% of all children, and it is not a system that reaches all children in poverty.

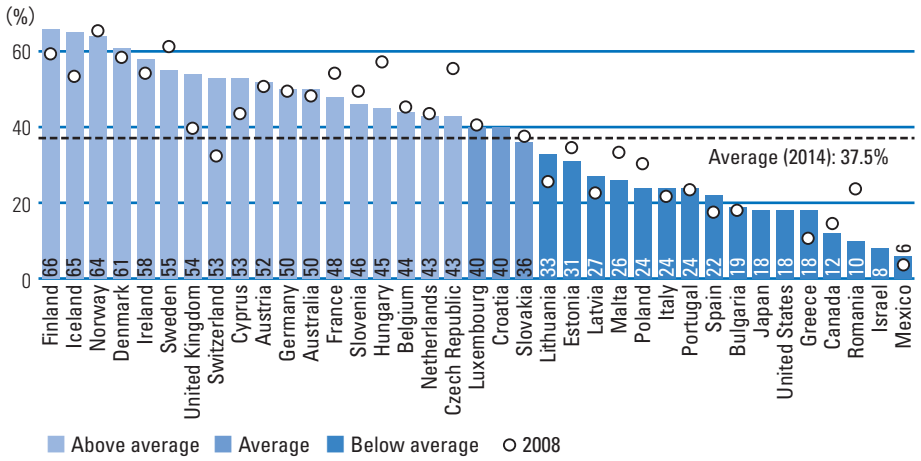
So, to what extent has the redistribution of income through these and other benefits contributed to alleviating child poverty? The effect of income redistribution (social transfers) can be seen by looking at how far child poverty rates are reduced after social transfers. As shown in **Figure 10**, the effect of social transfers in reducing the child poverty rate in Japan is 18%, which is quite small among developed countries (2014 data). This is far lower than Finland, the country with the largest effect (66%), and also below the average (37.5%). The effectiveness of social transfers depends on the level of poverty prior to the transfers, but it also depends on factors such as the scale of the transfers and how their targets are determined. This international comparison shows that social transfers do not make a sufficient contribution to alleviating child poverty in Japan.

5. Educational Opportunities

Efforts have been made to eliminate the "waiting lists" of children who are unable to find places at nurseries and similar facilities. Various measures have been introduced since 2001, when the government launched "Operation Zero" for children on waiting lists, and the number of children on waiting lists decreased for the first time in four years in 2018. However, in such large metropolitan areas as Tokyo, Chiba, Fukuoka, Hyogo, and Kanagawa, as well as many prefectures such as Okinawa, Miyagi, and Fukushima, the problem has yet to be resolved (**Indicator D1**, **Figure 11**).

According to UNICEF's 2018 report, *Report Card 15: An Unfair Start*, the percentage of children attending kindergartens and nurseries a year before the start of compulsory education in Japan was 91.1%. At 34th place out of 41 countries, it is low on the international scale. In Japan, the issue of children on waiting lists seems to be discussed exclusively from the perspective of adults, as an obstacle to women returning to the workplace. Just as the SDGs target 4.2 calls for "access to

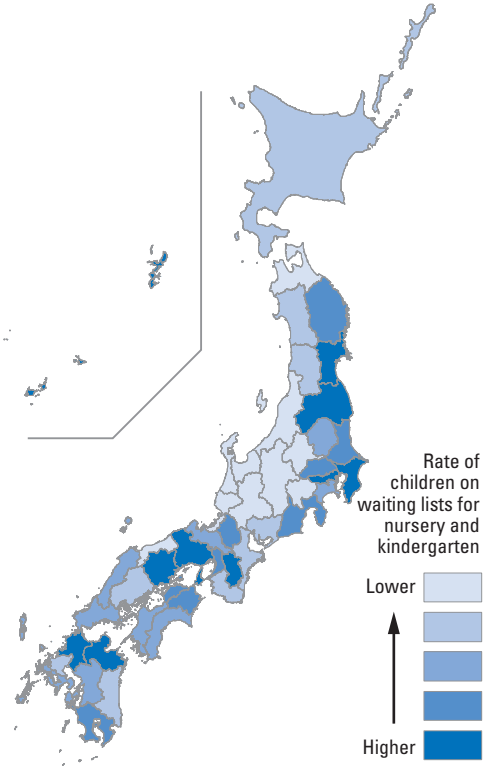
Figure 10 : Percentage reduction in the rate of child poverty due to social transfers, 2014 and 2008



Note: The graph shows the proportional difference between child poverty rates before and after social transfers. The relative child poverty rate represents the proportion of each nation's children living in a household where disposable income is less than 60% of the national median.
Source: UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, *Report Card 14: Building the Future: Children and the Sustainable Development Goals in Rich Countries* (2017)

quality early childhood care and pre-primary education," kindergartens and nurseries are places where children spend a critical period in their development, providing them with care and pre-school education. When aiming to eliminate waiting lists for children, there should be an emphasis on the quality of childcare, and the need to focus on the growth and development of children should not be forgotten.

Figure 11 : Rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten



Source: MHLW, *Summary of Conditions Related to Nurseries for Children Aged 0-3* (2017)

From the fall of 2019, early childhood education and childcare were made free of charge, with nursery and kindergarten fees free in principle for all households with children aged 3-5 years old, while nursery fees for children aged 0-2 years old were also made free in principle for low-income families. Although non-accredited daycare facilities were also be made free of charge, it is vital to ensure that doing so does not lead to a decline in the quality of childcare, taking into account the fact that childcare accidents have occurred in such facilities, which have low standards that must be met in order to set them up. In terms of how this relates to measures to counter child poverty the proportion of children from single-parent families who go to preschool (nursery and kindergarten) is one of the measures being monitored as an indicator for combating child poverty. However, given that making these facilities free of charge applies to all households with children aged 3-5, it does not serve as a focused measure against child poverty.

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

Act on the Promotion of Support for the Development of Children and Young People (2009):

Puts in place a framework for the comprehensive implementation of measures to support the development of children and young people (the national government formulates the general guidelines for implementation, and prefectures and municipalities are obliged to make efforts to draw up plans for children), and sets up a network to support children and young people who have difficulties living in society.

Act on the Promotion of Measures to Counter Child Poverty (2013, revised 2019):

Aims to create a society in which a child's future is not determined by the environment in which they are born and raised.

General Principles of Policy on Poverty among Children (2014)

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Support aimed at poor households and children who eat alone, such as setting up children's cafeterias, providing learning assistance, and creating safe spaces, is underway across the country. In particular, the number of children's cafeterias has reached 2,286 nationwide, a sevenfold increase over the past three years (as of March 2018). Among these is the unique food home-delivery service for children in Tokyo's Bunkyo Ward. This project is funded by the ward government using revenues from hometown tax payments, and with the cooperation of the accredited NPO Florence and private companies, it is able to deliver meals to children at home, allowing for individualized service. Having started in October 2017 serving 150 households, this increased to 600 in the following year.

Recommendations

1. Although most prefectures do not provide estimates of their respective child poverty rates, it is recommended that the data be prepared and made public in order to monitor the current situation and the effectiveness of measures to counter child poverty.
2. Issues relating to children's health should be included in the **Guiding Principles for SDG Implementation**.
3. In the **General Principles of Policy on Poverty among Children**, it is clearly stated that "indicators related to child poverty will be established and efforts will be made to improve them". It is extremely important, not only from a human security perspective, but also for the SDGs' target of eliminating "poverty in all its dimensions" from developed countries like Japan, to develop indicators that capture multiple aspects of child poverty. This includes the possibility of introducing a material deprivation indicator.

5-2. The Types of Violence Against Children

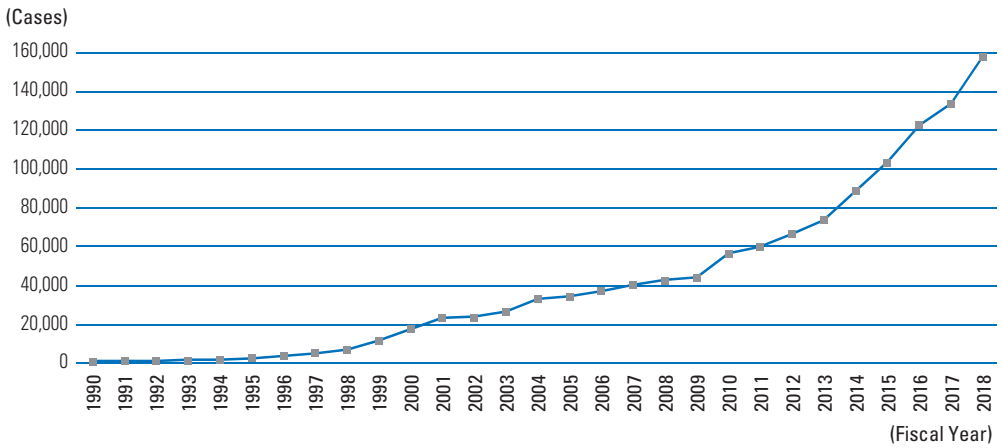
The Current Situation

1. Child Abuse

Target 16.2 of the SDGs calls for "ending abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children." Among these, it is the abuse that occurs in children's daily lives that represents the most widespread violence against them. The number of consultations at child welfare centers, which is released every year by the MHLW, has been increasing steadily, from 1,101 cases in FY1990 to 159,850 cases in FY2018 (preliminary figures), the highest figure ever (Figure 12). Enacted in 2000, the **Act on the Prevention of Child Abuse** makes it obligatory to report child abuse and defines it as referring to the following: physical abuse, sexual abuse, neglect, and psychological abuse. A 2004 amendment to the law includes domestic violence in front of children (a parent using violence against their spouse in the presence of a child) as a type of psychological abuse. The increase in the number of consultations is also a sign of a growing public awareness of abuse (the breakdown for FY2018 was as follows: psychological abuse 55.3%, physical abuse 25.2%, neglect 18.4%, sexual abuse 1.1%).

Although the **Child Welfare Act** and the **Act on the Prevention of Child Abuse** have been amended a number of times to strengthen measures against child abuse, serious cases continue to arise. In response to the death of a five-year-old girl due to abuse in Meguro Ward, Tokyo in March 2018, a ministerial meeting in July of the same year compiled a set of comprehensive emergency countermeasures. These included thorough information sharing between child welfare centers, strengthening information sharing between child welfare centers and the police, taking appropriate measures in cases where the safety of children cannot be confirmed, urgent identification of children who have not received infant health checks, and improving the expertise available at child welfare centers. Furthermore, following the death of a fourth-year elementary school student from abuse in Noda City, Chiba Prefecture in January 2019, the decision was made in February of the same year to urgently identify all abuse cases, further strengthen comprehensive emergency countermeasures, and implement them thoroughly.

Figure 12 : **Changes in the number of child abuse consultations over time**



Source: MHLW, *Number of Child Abuse Consultations at Child Welfare Centers in FY 2018 (preliminary figures)*, (August 2019)

It has long been pointed out there are too few child welfare centers and staff to keep up with the rapidly increasing number of consultations, and that the system requires reinforcing. Amendments to the **Child Welfare Law** in 2016 and 2019, the MHLW's "**Child Welfare Center Enhancement Plan**" (2016), and its "**Comprehensive Plan for Strengthening Child Abuse Prevention Systems**" (the "New Plan") have set out plans to expand the number of local governments that have child welfare centers, substantially increase the number of child welfare officers, and improving the expertise available at the centers through the appointment of child psychologists, public health nurses, and lawyers.

From 2003 onward, cases of abuse leading to death and other severe cases have been examined in detail by a special committee established by the MHLW in the Children's Division of the Social Security Council. According to the survey, in FY 2017, 52 children died as a result of abuse (not including 13 deaths due to forced joint suicide), with seven severe cases involving life-threatening injuries.

According to the studies so far (covering a total of 779 deaths since 2003, excluding deaths by forced joint suicide. The following percentages below are for the years for which data are available and may have different denominators), most cases leading to death involved children of 3 years of age or below (77.2%), with those under 1 making up almost half (47.9%). The most common abuser was the child's biological mother (55.1%), followed by the biological father (16.4%), and the partner of the biological mother (4.9%). It has also been shown that there are family circumstances which present a higher risk of abuse (17.8% of cases that lead to death involved a mother that became pregnant in her teens), as does being out of reach of social support, (the mother did not receive an antenatal health check in 26.1% of cases, and had little contact with the local community in 39.1% of cases). The use of this important data for preventing further incidents should be strongly recommended.

The same study showed that the most common causes of death due to abuse were dereliction of care leading to death (15.1%), followed by "intent to discipline" (11.5 %). The 2019 amendment of the **Act on the Prevention of Child Abuse** to prohibit corporal punishment when disciplining children is an important development that is expected to lead to a reduction in serious abuse and corporal punishment on the grounds of discipline.

These investigations are based on what the MHLW has ascertained through its surveys of prefectures, but there is a possibility that deaths judged to be a result of disease may include those from abuse. Consequently, it is suggested that a Child Death Review (CDR) system should be introduced to analyze the cause of death of all deceased children.

2. Sexual Violence

Sexual exploitation and sexual violence cause damage to a child's dignity and have significant mental and physical impacts. Target 5.2 of the SDGs calls for the eradication of all forms of violence against all women and girls (in general, sexual violence includes also that against men). In Japan, initiatives are underway based on measures including the **Act on Punishment of Activities Relating to Child Prostitution and Child Pornography and the Protection of Children** and the **Basic Plan for Measures against Sexual Exploitation of Children** (the **Plan for Prevention of Sexual Exploitation of Children**) (decided at the April 2017 Ministerial Meeting Concerning Measures Against Crime). As yet, however, there is no end of sexual violence in sight.

In FY 2017, 1,216 children were victims in child pornography cases, with 615 in the first half of FY 2018. Of these 615, 38.0% were high school students, 34.5% were junior high school students, and 22.4% were elementary school students. 39.0% of the incidents involved so-called "selfie-taking," while non-consensual

photography accounted for 61.3% of cases involving young children of elementary school age and below. In FY 2017, there were 1,823 victims of child prostitution and similar abuse. Despite a reduction from 2,707 in 2008 to 1,745 in 2015, there has since been a slight increase (National Police Agency, *Juvenile delinquency, Child Abuse and Sexual Assault of Children in 2017* (2018)).

The rapidly spreading Internet has also become a place where children are sexually victimized. Although the number of child victims of crimes originating from online matchmaking services has decreased dramatically since the revision of the **Online Matchmaking Service Regulation Act** in 2008 (from 724 in 2008 to 29 in 2017), the number of falling victim to crimes via social media has risen during that time. In 2017, 1,813 children were involved in cases of child pornography and child prostitution via social media (**Figure 13**).

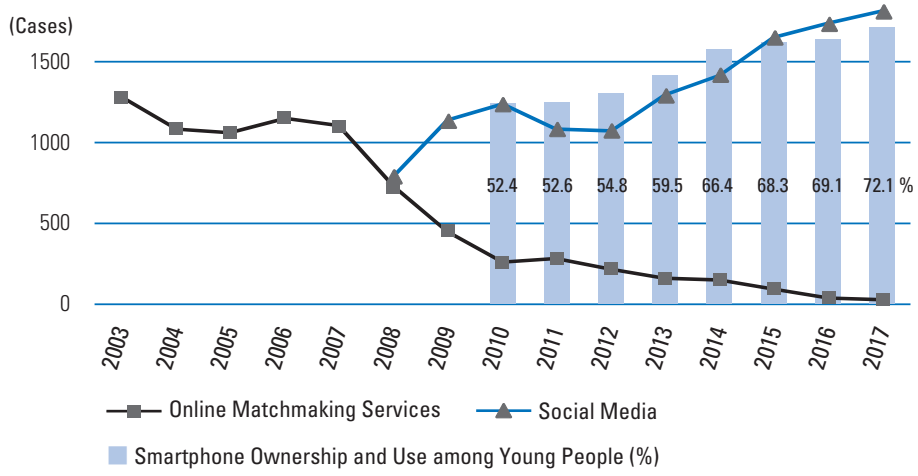
Furthermore, in recent years, high school students have been falling victim to child prostitution. This is a result of the so-called "JK business," in which sex with high school girls (Joshi-Kosei) is sold as a commodity. Although mainly a problem in metropolitan areas, it is now spreading to rural areas as well. Target 8.7 of the SDGs calls for the elimination of child labor. This perspective too requires an understanding of the actual situation of the problem and the development of countermeasures.

3. Violence in Schools

School, like the home, is the place where children are supposed to feel most at ease. However, schools themselves are not unaffected by violence. Corporal punishment by teachers in schools is clearly prohibited under Article 11 of the **School Education Act**, which states that "Principals and teachers may take disciplinary action against children, pupils, or students. However, they may not inflict corporal punishment.[*1]" However, a total of 773 cases (in 699 elementary schools, junior high schools and high schools) of corporal punishment were reported in the 2017 academic year. The most common occasions in which corporal punishment occurred were during classes, club activities, and after school (**Figure 14**). The most common methods were hitting and striking with bare hands, kicking and stamping, and throwing, shoving, and pushing over (**Figure 15**). In 2012, a high school boy committed suicide as a result of corporal punishment during club activities. This

[*1] MEXT gives examples of "disciplinary actions" that are not accompanied by physical pain, such as warnings, censure, detention, teaching in a separate room, standing, homework, cleaning, assigning school duties, and issuing written guidance.

Figure 13 : Changes over time in the number of child victims of crimes via social media

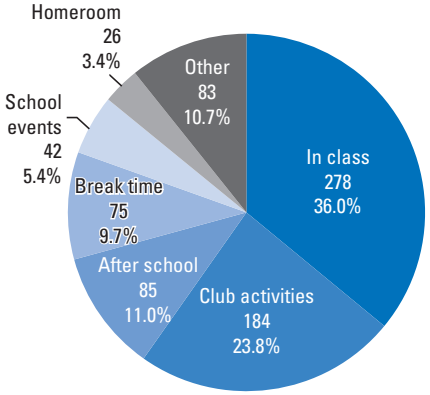


Source: National Police Agency, *Child Victims of Crimes originating from Social Media in 2017 and Associated Countermeasures*, 2018

led the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) to enforce the prohibition of corporal punishment, to investigate the situation, and to establish guidelines for the supervision of athletic club activities. Nevertheless, 184 cases of corporal punishment during club activities were reported in FY2017.

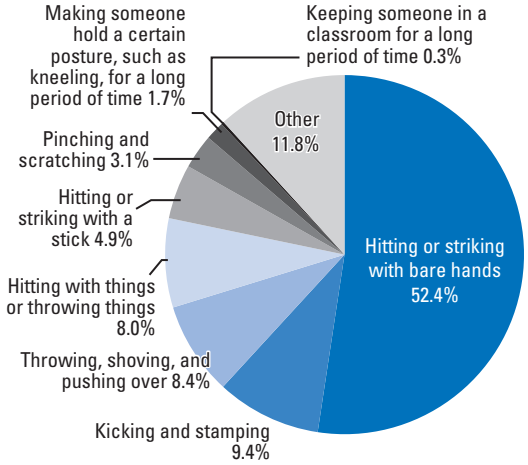
There is also the issue of bullying as a form of child-to-child violence that occurs in schools and spreads beyond them to the internet. The 2011 suicide of a junior high school student in Otsu City, Shiga Prefecture as a result of bullying sparked a growing debate, leading to the **Act for the Promotion of Measures to Prevent**

Figure 14 : Circumstances of corporal punishment (by situation)



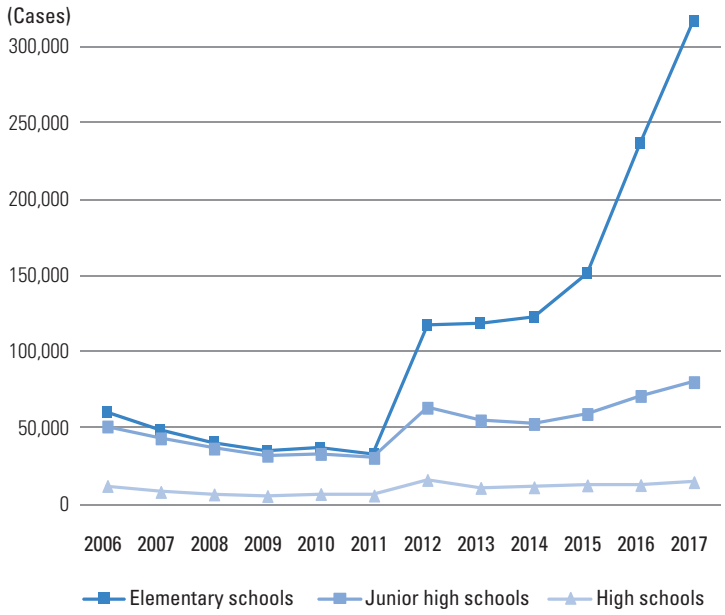
Source: MEXT, *Understanding the Actual Situation regarding Corporal Punishment (FY 2017)*

Figure 15 : Methods of corporal punishment



Source: MEXT, *Understanding the Actual Situation regarding Corporal Punishment (FY 2017)*

Figure 16 : Number of recognized bullying cases



Source: MEXT, *FY 2017 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy, etc.* (Oct. 2018)

Bullying in 2013. The Act defines bullying (including cyber bullying) as "an act inflicted on a child by another child (or other children) having a certain degree of relationship with the bullied victim (for example, both attending the same school), which causes the victim either physical or psychological pain." It also asks each school to develop a basic policy for the prevention of bullying.

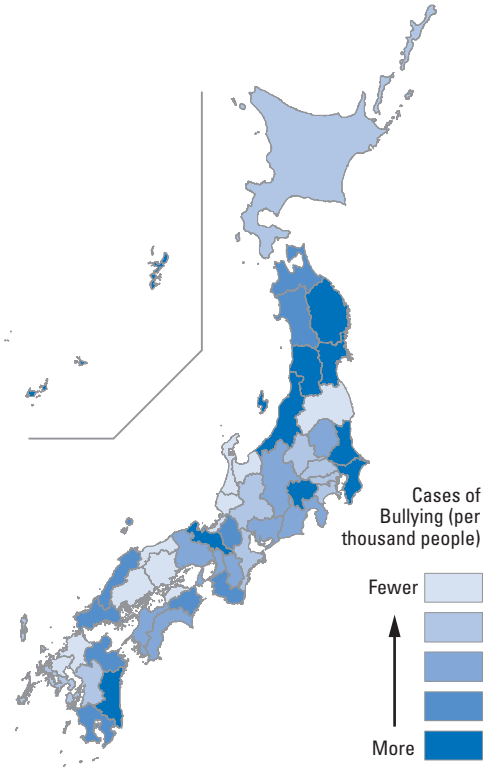
In the 2017 academic year, there were 414,378 recognized cases of bullying in Japan (including elementary schools, junior high schools, high schools, and special needs schools). This is a significant increase from 323,143 of the previous year, and is the highest figure recorded since 2006, when the survey adopted its current method (**Figure 16**). However, these figures represent only the number of cases that were recognized by schools, and because this figure tends to increase as awareness grows and investigations are intensified, a change in the number of recognized cases does not directly indicate a change in the number of bullying cases. High rates of bullying can be seen in the prefectures of Kyoto, Miyazaki, Miyagi, Okinawa, Yamagata, Chiba, Iwate, Niigata, Yamanashi, and Ibaraki (**Indicator G1**, **Figure 17**). Although there are large differences between prefectures, it should be noted that here too, the data does not necessarily reflect the actual situation in each prefecture as it is.

The most common forms of bullying in each of elementary, junior high and high schools were "ridicule, teasing, abusive or threatening language, and saying unpleasant things" (collectively making up over 60% of recognized cases). The second most common form in elementary and junior high schools was "bumping, hitting or kicking while pretending to be playful," whereas in high schools, this was "net bullying," involving slander, abuse or harassment using computers or mobile phones.

The **Act for the Promotion of Measures to Prevent Bullying** mandates prompt investigation of bullying cases, especially for "serious incidents" where there is "suspicion that serious damage to a child's life, mind, body or property has been caused" or "suspicion that a child has been forced to be absent from school for a considerable period of time." The changes in the number of these cases over time since FY 2014 are shown in **Table 4**. However, given that in 2017 MEXT drew up "Guidelines for the Investigation of Serious Bullying Incidents" in recognition of the lack of proper investigation up to that point, the actual number of cases should be considered higher than the reported number of cases.

In order to understand the current situation regarding bullying, it is also essential to conduct surveys of children. Valuable suggestions can be drawn from the "Follow-up Survey on Bullying" conducted by the National Institute for Educational Policy Research since 1998. For example, **Figure 18** shows that, although there may be

Figure 17 : Number of bullying cases by prefecture



Source: MEXT, *FY 2016 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy, etc.*

short-term increases or decreases in bullying, there is no substantial change in the long-term trends of bullying in junior high schools (the same is true for boys and girls in elementary school). Because this is a follow-up survey that tracks the same children over time, it has produced the important finding that any child, not just particular individuals, may become either a victim or a perpetrator.

As the problems faced by children, including bullying, become ever more diverse, it is increasingly difficult for teachers and staff to support them on their own. Consequently, MEXT is trying to support children in a multifaceted manner by placing school counselors (SCs), with expertise in psychology, and school social workers (SSWs), with expertise in social welfare and liaising with relevant organizations, into schools. However, the percentage of elementary schools and junior high schools with SCs is 37.6% and 82.4%, respectively. In addition, SCs have been placed in 1,534 other locations, including boards of education (as of FY 2012). Meanwhile, only 1,008 (as of FY 2013) SSWs have been assigned nationwide.

As well as those absent from school for illness or economic reasons, there are also those who stay away from school for other reasons and circumstances, including bullying. Groups and organizations known as "free schools" or "free spaces" play a useful role in accommodating such children. Unlike regular schools, there is no fixed curriculum or timetable, and children are often left to their own devices in deciding how to spend their days. Unless the principal of the regular school that the student is enrolled in determines that the free school is "inappropriate," a student going to free school will be treated as attending school. This has been the case for elementary and junior high school students since 1992, and for high school students since 2009. However, there are many cases in which these private sector groups and organizations are run on a volunteer or quasi-volunteer basis, and they face a great number of challenges. Nor is it the case that they are there to "catch" all the over 170,000 children identified as habitually absent from school in Japan. Rather, they are just one available option.

4. Eradication of all Forms of Violence

In order to achieve target 16.2 of the SDGs, it is essential to take a perspective of "ending all forms of violence," i.e., that any violence that injures children's dignity is unacceptable. At the Solutions Summit held in Stockholm in February 2018, Japan announced that it would be a "pathfinding country" for the Global

Table 4 : Number of serious incidents as defined in Article 2, Paragraph 1 of the Act for the Promotion of Measures to Prevent Bullying

		FY 2014	FY 2015	FY 2016	FY 2017
Life/Mind/Body	Elementary schools	25	40	42	46
	Junior high schools	42	61	83	104
	High schools	25	25	35	40
	Total	92	130	161	191
Long-term Absence	Elementary schools	100	86	92	116
	Junior high schools	253	104	128	143
	High schools	32	27	59	71
	Total	385	219	281	332

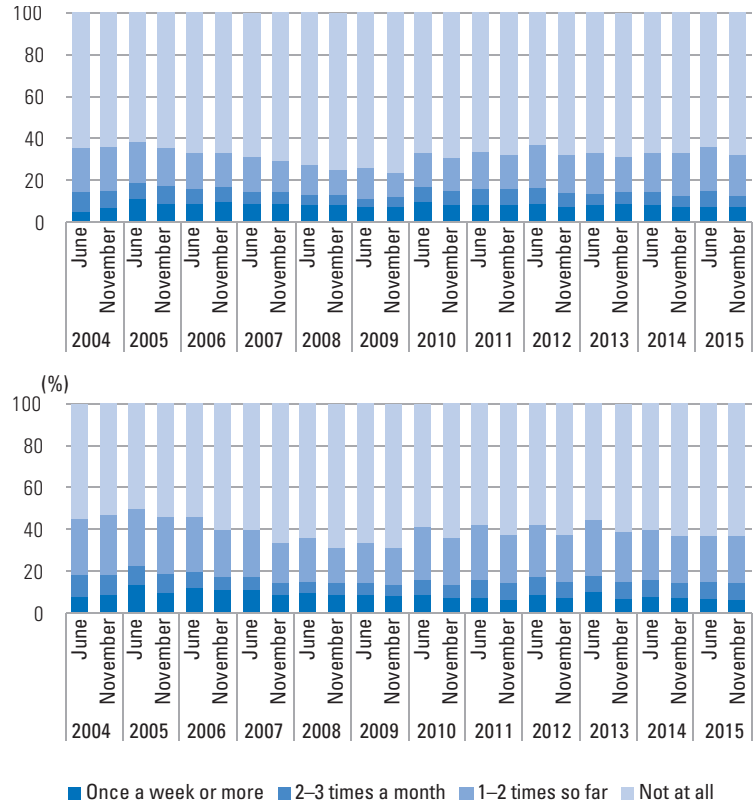
Source: MEXT, *FY 2017 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy, etc.*, (Oct. 2018)

Partnership to End Violence Against Children, which is committed to working to end violence against children in the country. After Sweden, Japan is the second such country in the developed world, and the first in the G7. This is highly commendable. It is hoped that the development of a national plan of action, which is being pursued within a multi-stakeholder framework, will make significant progress in the country's efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against children.

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child's General Comment No. 13 (2011) classifies violence against children into four categories: physical violence, sexual violence, psychological violence and neglect. Moreover, the *Study on Violence against Children* (2006), produced by the Special Representative of the UN Secretary-General on Violence Against Children, focused on five settings where violence against children can occur: the home/family, schools, institutions, places of work, and local communities. Using these frameworks to provide a comprehensive picture of the current state of violence against children would be beneficial not only for achieving the SDGs, but also from a human security perspective.

In order to eradicate violence against children, it is essential to have data for accurately assessing the situation. In developing countries, internationally comparable data on violence against children has been collected through UNICEF-supported household surveys such as the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). Conversely, it has been pointed out that the development of data in this area has lagged behind

Figure 18 : Percentages of junior high school students who have been avoided, ignored, or talked about behind their backs (upper row, boys/bottom row, girls) 2004-15



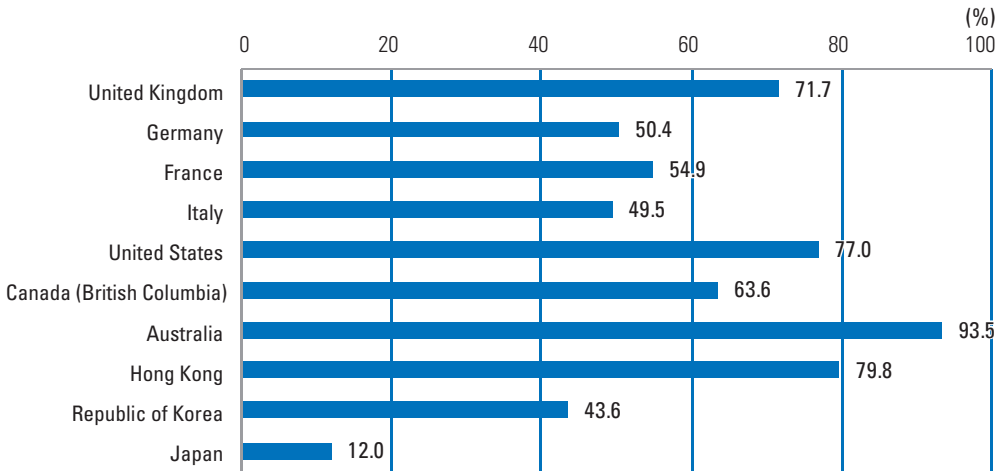
Source: National Institute for Educational Policy Research, *Follow-up Survey on Bullying 2013–2015*

not just in Japan, but also in other developed countries (UNICEF Innocenti Research Center, *Report Card 14: Building the Future*, 2017).

SDG indicator 16.2.1, concerning violence against children in the home, is "the proportion of children aged 1-17 years who experienced any physical violence and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month." "Physical violence" refers to acts intended to cause physical pain or discomfort (including corporal punishment), while "psychological aggression" refers to shouting at a child, calling them useless, and so on. International comparisons of abuse (and corporal punishment) often use data on its prevalence from household surveys of parents, but this kind of data is not collected in Japan. The aforementioned "number of child abuse consultations at child welfare centers" is administrative data on the number of cases in which child welfare centers received notifications and consultations from the police, schools, and neighboring residents and responded to them. As such, it cannot be used for international comparisons, and because it represents the number of cases responded to, it cannot be used for time series analysis of incidence trends either. It is important to obtain data that will lead to a better understanding of the actual situation, including the number of children who were actually judged to have been abused. This can be done by making use of administrative data from the field and sorting out the overlap between the cases handled by child welfare centers and municipalities.

Data of a similar type to the SDG indicators are included in the results of the Cabinet Office's survey on gendered violence. The Survey Report on Gender-based Violence, published in March 2018, included a question asking those who said they had been victims of spousal violence whether their spouse had also committed abuse toward their children. This question was aimed at those who responded that they had experienced spousal violence (26.2% of the total) and had children. 21.4% of the respondents answered in the affirmative, and a breakdown of the types of abuse (physical, sexual, neglect, and psychological) was also given. This is useful as one piece of data showing the incidence of violence against children in the home. In addition to showing the relation between spousal violence and child abuse, if it were also possible to investigate cases in which only children were the victims (i.e., without spousal violence), which are not covered by this question, this would provide a certain

Figure 19 : Rate of children given foster care placements among those requiring care in each country (around 2010)



Source: Hisayo Kaihara (Principal Researcher) et. al., *International Comparative Study on Children in Out-of-Home Care and Rates of Foster Care Placement* (2011-2013)

level of data on the incidence of child abuse.

This survey report also includes data similar to indicator 16.2.3 of the SDGs, which is "the proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18." Although the age range covered by the survey report is different, there was a question asking respondents if they had ever been forcibly made to have sex with someone, including when they were children. Those who answered "yes" were asked about their age at the time this happened. The results show that 7.8% of women and 1.5% of men answered "yes." When asked when this occurred, 3.0% answered "before entering elementary school", 12.2% answered "while I was an elementary school student", 6.1% answered "while I was a junior high school student", and 5.5% answered "from graduating junior high school to age 17." Those who suffered sexual violence before the age of 18 were also asked if the perpetrator was their custodian. 19.4% of the respondents said that it was, and 83.3% of the respondents said that it was not (multiple answers). In terms of sexual violence, the SDG indicator serves as a retrospective indicator for adults, since surveys targeting children themselves are fraught with ethical concerns, and the results of this survey already provide useful data on the incidence of violence against children. As described here, there are cases where data is available which can be used for studies with different primary objectives. Effective use of this data requires collaboration between the relevant ministries and agencies.

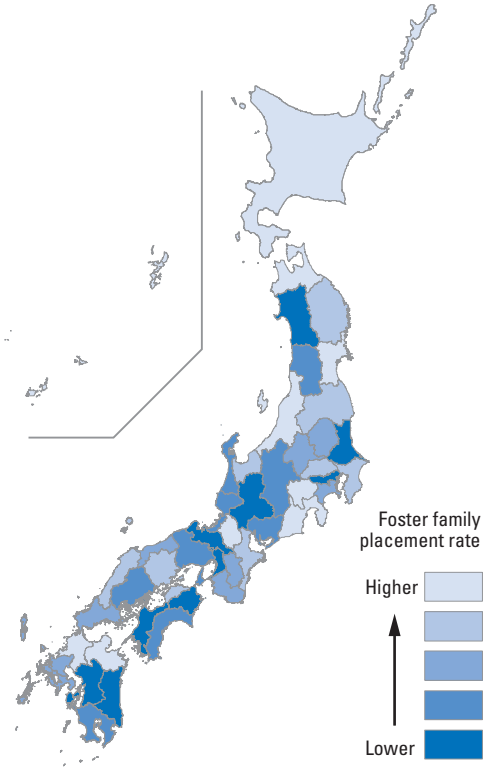
5. Other Issues Relating to Children's Dignity

(1) Children in need of social care

Children who are unable to live at home for any reason, including abuse, are provided with social care (alternative care). The UN Guidelines on Alternative Care for Children also state that such children should be raised in a family environment, but it has been pointed out that the percentage of children living in institutions is extremely high in Japan relative to other countries (Figure 19).

Article 1 of the 2016 revision of the **Child Welfare Act** states that it is "in accordance with the spirit of the Convention on the Rights of Children." The positioning of the child as a "holder of rights" rather than an object of protection was a landmark one, and the revision also made major policy changes in terms of social care. It clearly states that in cases where it is difficult or inappropriate to raise children at home, priority will be given to providing care in a similar environment to a family. In 2017, the "New Vision for Social Care" was drawn up. In order to realize the order of priority ((1) the home, (2) a care environment similar to that of the home, and (3) as good a home-like environment as possible) set out in the **Child Welfare Act**, numerical targets were drawn up for (2) (foster parent placement rate for children under 3 years old: 75% within about 5

Figure 20 : **Foster family placement rate (Rate of children given foster care placements among those requiring care)**



Source: MHLW, *Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services* (2017)

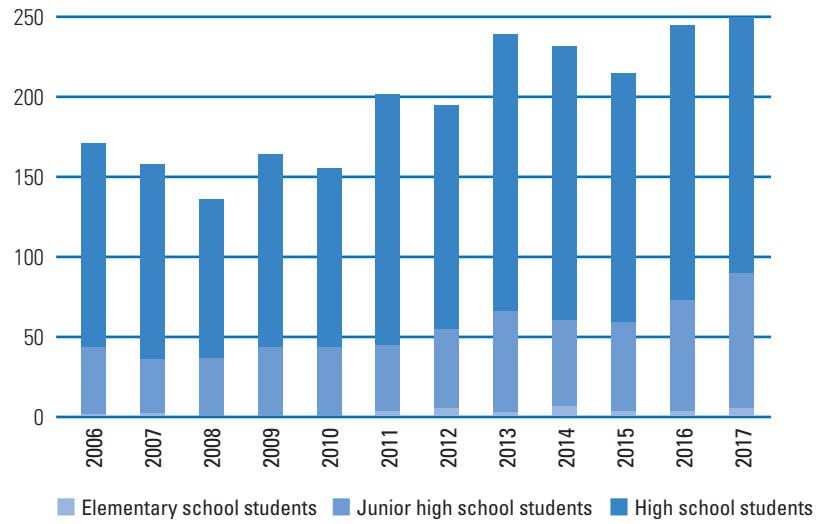
years, 3 years old to pre-school age: 75% within 7 years, school age and beyond: 50% within 10 years). With regard to (3), it was decided to make the care facilities smaller and more decentralized. In response to this, local governments have been required to change their policies, but at present, there are significant differences in their approaches, with Niigata having the highest rate of foster care placement, followed by such prefectures as Shiga, Okinawa, Miyagi, Oita, and Shizuoka. Meanwhile, the lowest rate is found in Akita, with prefectures including Osaka, Kyoto, Kumamoto, Gifu, Miyazaki, Ibaraki, Ehime, Tokushima, and Tokyo also ranking low (**Indicator G3**, Figure 20). The Public-Private Council for the Promotion of Family Based Foster Care of Children, led by some local governments such as Mie, was established in 2016, and some of the local governments participating in this council have taken steps to steadily increase the number of foster care placements and plenary adoption which terminate the relationship between birth parent and child.

(2) Child Suicide

The indicators for target 3.4 of the SDGs, which aims to reduce rates of premature mortality from non-communicable diseases, also includes suicide rates. Efforts to prevent suicide have been made in accordance with the **Basic Act on Suicide Prevention** and the **Comprehensive Measures to Prevent Suicide**. While the number of suicides in the population as a whole has decreased in recent years, the number of suicides among children has not. In FY 2017, 6 (11) elementary school students, 84 (108) junior high school students, and 160 (238) high school students took their own lives, a total of 250 (357) children took their own lives (Figure 21, according to MEXT, *Survey on Problem Behavior and Truancy* (Oct. 2018). The figures in brackets are based on statistics from the National Police Agency)

The number of child suicides (by population) is low in such prefectures as Fukui, Tottori, Yamagata, Shimane, Kochi, Yamanashi, Kagawa, Saga, and Oita, but high in the Tokyo metropolitan area (Tokyo, Saitama, Kanagawa, Chiba, etc.) as well as prefectures like Aichi, Hokkaido, Fukuoka, Hyogo, Osaka, and Shizuoka (**Indicator G4**, Figure 22).

Figure 21 : Changes in the number of child suicides over time



Source: MEXT, *FY 2017 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy, etc.* (Oct. 2018)

For those aged 15–19, suicide was the leading cause of death (Table 5), and in 2017, for the first time since the end of World War II, suicide was the leading cause of death for those aged 10–14.

In terms of causes, out of the 250 people identified by MEXT as having committed suicide in FY 2017, 33 did so due to their future prospects, 31 due to family discord, and 10 due to bullying, while 140 did so for "unknown" reasons. As such, it is imperative to identify these causes and strengthen prevention measures.

Table 5 : **Causes of Death for Children**

Age 10–14	Malignant neoplasm (21.6%)	Suicide (16.1%)	Accident (15.0%)
Age 15–19	Suicide (36.9%)	Accident (26.2%)	Malignant neoplasm (10.3%)

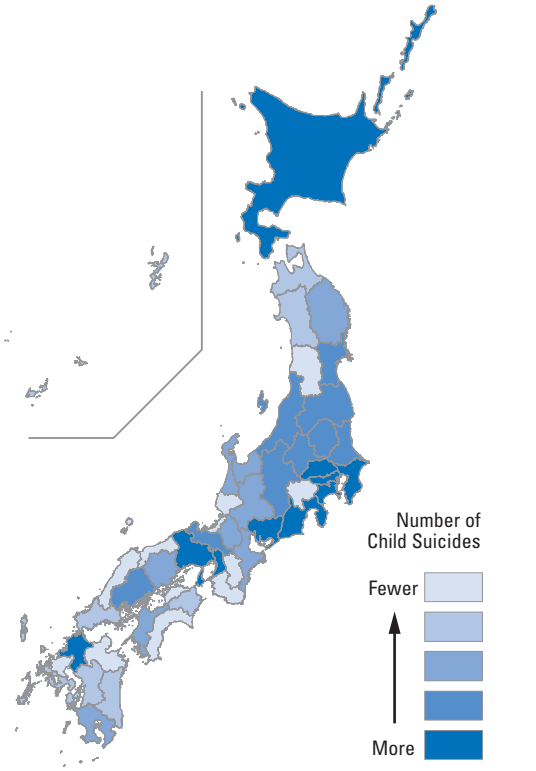
Source: MHLW, *Report of Vital Statistics (2018)*

(3) Children with Unknown Whereabouts, Children with No Family Register

In 2014, the discovery of the skeletonized remains of a boy (five years old at the time of his death) in Atsugi City, Kanagawa Prefecture, laid bare the problem of children whose whereabouts in society are unknown, such as those who do not receive infant health checks or attend school despite being registered as residents. The fact that a child cannot be found in the place where they are supposed to be should be a highly urgent matter, but it later turned out that there were similar cases where information on the children was not shared between the relevant authorities, and their existence was left unconfirmed. In May 2014, the MHLW announced that there were 2,908 such children, and after further checks, announced a figure of 141 in October of that year. Since then, the investigation has been conducted every year. As of June 1, 2017, there were 1,183 children who were subject to investigation for reasons such as not undergoing health checks. Of these, 1,155 children were located by May 31, 2018 based on home visits and records of departure from the country, while 28 (across 14 prefectures) could not be found (MHLW, FY 2017 *Results of the Investigation on Children whose Residential Status Cannot be Ascertained*). Abuse is suspected with respect to four of these children. Abuse was also identified or suspected for 6.7% (44) of the children whose whereabouts were confirmed, leading to support being offered by local governments and child welfare centers.

Target 16.9 of the SDGs aims to "provide legal identity for all, including birth registration, by 2030." However, it has also become clear that there are children who were born in Japan but do not have a family register and, because of this, are unable to receive education and other social services, thus becoming "left behind." The Ministry of Justice states that as of August 2018 there are 715 people (including adults) without family registers in Japan. In addition to provid-

Figure 22 : **Regional comparison of the number of child suicides**



Source: National Police Agency, *Situations of Suicides in 2015-17* (2015-2017)

ing support for these people to be listed in the family register system, the Ministry of Justice established an expert panel in October 2018 to discuss the revision of the Civil Code, as there are many cases where children have not had their births registered for reasons relating to Article 772 of the code, which presumes that a child born within 300 days of a divorce is the child of the ex-husband (it is estimated that these cases make up about 75% of the total). In addition, measures have been taken by local authorities to ensure that even children without family registers can receive education, healthcare, and various benefits.

Unless the number of children who have no legal identity, or whose existence itself is unclear, is reduced to zero, it cannot be said that this is a society in which "no one is left behind."

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

School Education Act (1947; revised in 2007, 2018, etc.)

Child Welfare Act (1947; most recently revised in 2016, 2017, 2019)

Act on Punishment of Activities Relating to Child Prostitution and Child Pornography, and the Protection of Children (1999; revised in 2004 and 2014)

Act on the Prevention of Child Abuse (2000; most recently revised in 2016, 2017, and 2019)

Comprehensive Measures to Eliminate Child Pornography (2010, 2013, 2016)

Basic Plan on Measures against Child Sexual Exploitation (the Plan for Prevention of Sexual Exploitation of Children) (2017)

Act for the Promotion of Measures to Prevent Bullying (2013)

The New Vision for Social Care (2017)

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Child Friendly Cities Initiative (Nara City)

Based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child, UNICEF's Child Friendly Cities Initiative is a local government initiative that listens to children's opinions and works with them on matters concerning children. Promoting the development of a sustainable society where children can grow up healthy and engaged in their communities, and where they can have hope for the future, this is an initiative that is friendly to all. The "Nara Child-Friendly City Ordinance" was approved in April 2015, and the city has been carrying out projects to make the city more child-friendly. By respecting children's rights and working as a whole community to support them and provide them with the knowledge and experience to become independent, Nara's Child-Friendly City Initiative aims to create a city where each and every child can live a safe and prosperous life. A "Nara City Children's Council" has been established to reflect the opinions of children in the city's policies.

Recommendations

1 Eliminating all forms of violence

To achieve target 16.2 of the SDGs, it is essential to take the viewpoint that any violence that injures the dignity of children is unacceptable. At the "Solutions Summit", Japan announced that it would become a "pathfinding country" that proactively works to eradicate violence against children. It is hoped that this will bring further progress to the initiatives underway. Furthermore, since violence is related to issues such as poverty, it is essential to go beyond issue-by-issue approaches and view it as problem for individual children, while collaborating with all the parties involved.

2 Use and collection of data

It is important to make more effective use of existing data, such as the verification of child-related deaths from abuse, for policy measures. International comparison is also important in making use of data. For example, there are important lessons to be learned from data that clearly shows Japan to be an outlier in terms of poverty among single-parent families, the effects of social transfers, and high suicide rates. Data relating to violence against children has been identified as an area in which developed countries have lagged behind, and it is hoped that the available statistics can be better utilized through more effective use of administrative data.

3 Leaving no one behind

As the response to "missing children" makes clear, efforts must be made to ensure that not a single one is left behind and that all children are included. To this end, it is crucial that a wide range of relevant agencies share information with each other.

(Aiko Takahashi)

Chapter 6

Women

The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.

End all forms of discrimination against women and girls (Target 5.1). Eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls, including trafficking and sexual exploitation (5.2). Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child and early marriage (5.3). Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household (5.4). Ensure women's participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life (5.5). Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights (5.6). Undertake reforms to give women access to economic rights, land ownership, inheritances, and other forms of property (5.a). Enhance the use of technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women (5.b). Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls (5.c).

In addition, Goal 4 calls for gender equality in education and equal access to vocational training (Target 4.5). Goal 8 aims to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, as well as equal pay for work of equal value, by 2030 (Target 8.5). Goal 11 includes providing access to sustainable transport systems and improve road safety, with special attention to the needs of those such as women and children (Target 11.2).

The Current Situation

Japanese Women from a Global Perspective

Japan ranked 110th out of 149 countries in the gender gap rankings published by the World Economic Forum in December 2018 (The Global Gender Gap Report 2018). Japan ranks particularly poorly in the following categories: in politics, it is 130th in the number of women in the national parliament and 89th in the number of ministers; in the economy, it is 129th in the number of female managers and senior officials, 108th in the number of female professional and technical workers; in education, it is 103rd in the rate of female students enrolling in higher education (universities and graduate schools). In short, Japan has extremely few women in the executive positions that determine political and corporate policy, the wage gap is large, and there is also a sizable gender disparity in higher education for the next generation.

1. Regional Disparities and Women

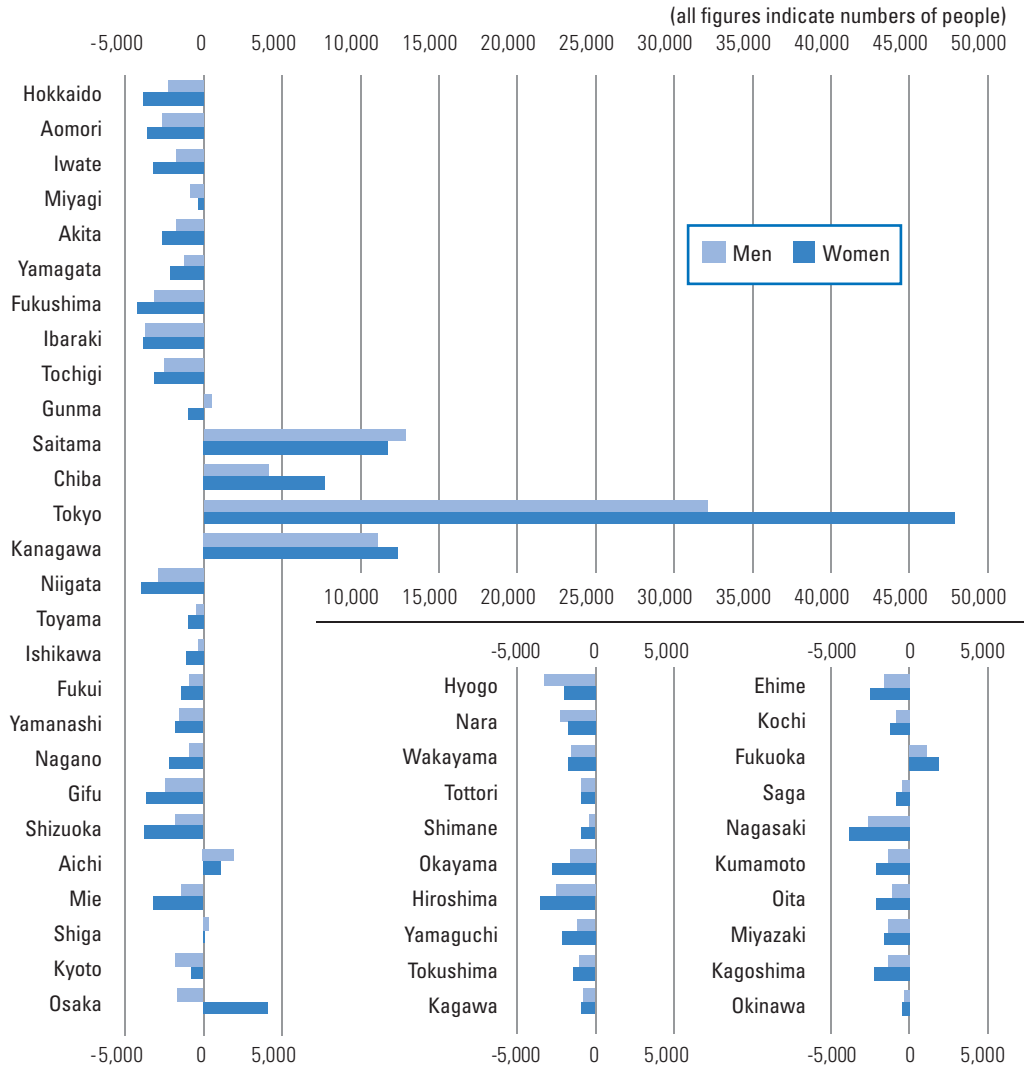
One of the challenges facing Japan is regional disparities. Not only is the disparity between

urban areas and the regions worsening, but even within those regions, there are growing disparities between regional centers and peripheral areas (farming villages, fishing villages, and mountainous areas). In 2018, approximately 30% of Japan's population was concentrated in the Tokyo area (Tokyo, Saitama, Chiba, and Kanagawa prefectures), and the net inflow[*1] was approximately 140,000 people (**Figure 1**). The majority of these were young people aged 15–29, of whom over 120,000 arrived. Since 2010, the gender gap in this net inflow to the Tokyo area has widened. The net inflow in 2018 was made up of 57% women and 43% men, a gap of 14% (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), *Report on Internal Migration in Japan, 2018 Results*). Thus, the concentration of women in the Tokyo area is particularly pronounced.

Young people and women moved from rural areas to cities also in the past. However, accord-

[*1] Net inflow refers to a situation in which the number of people moving into an area within a certain period of time exceeds the number moving out.

Figure 1 : Net population flow by prefecture (Japanese citizens)



Source: MIC, *Report on Internal Migration in Japan, 2018 Results*

ing to a study by Reiko Hayashi of the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, since 2000 in particular, a phenomenon has arisen where women concentrate in cities and do not return to rural areas. Women move first from peripheral areas to regional centers, and from there to large cities. On the other hand, there are also those women who cannot move or who choose to live in rural areas. In many of these regions, women's position in the local community is fragile due to the still-persistent social norms of the Japanese *ie* (family) system.

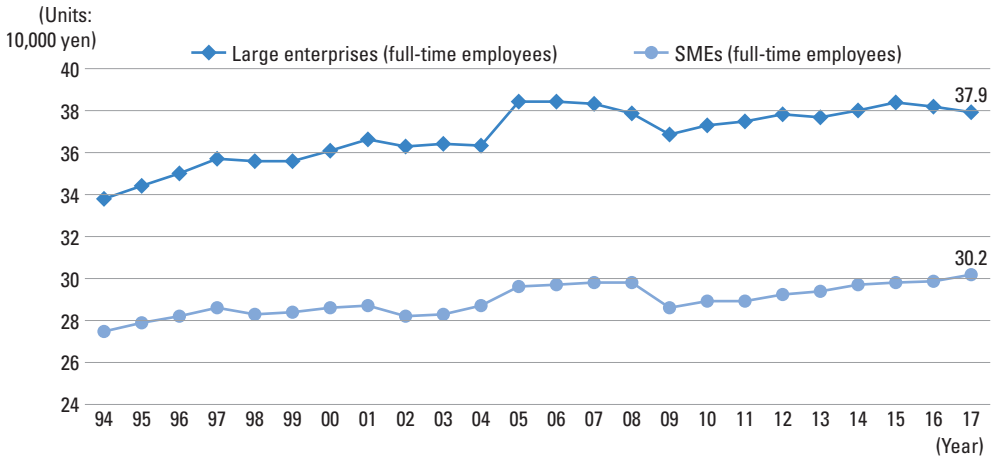
There is also a substantial wage gap between urban and rural areas. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) account for 99.7 % of the approximately 3.59 million companies in Japan (as of 2016), and 70% of these are located in the regions (Survey by the Small and Medium Enterprise Agency). However, 77.5% of employees of large companies work in large cities, and the average salary of full-time employees is 379,000 yen for large enterprises compared to 302,000 yen for small and medium-sized enterprises, showing a substantial disparity (**Figure 2**). The number of people in the workforce aged 15 and over increased by 1.6 million in the Tokyo area between 2000 and 2015, but fell by 2.28 million in the regions. The number of female workers (15-64 years old) also increased by 910,000 in the Tokyo area, but decreased by 720,000 in regional areas (Secretariat of the Headquarters for Overcoming Population Decline and Vitalizing Local Economy in Japan, 2018). There is a continuing labor shortage for regional SMEs, and the smaller the size of the company, the more female employees it tends to have (*2019 White Paper on Small and Medium Enterprises*). The challenges will be examined by focusing on women living in rural areas who, due to regional disparities, are prone to being left behind.

2 Violence against Women

a) Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is generally used to mean "violence perpetrated by a person who is, or has been, in an intimate relationship with the victim, such as a spouse or lover" (Cabinet Office Gender Equality Bureau). In 2018, the National Police Agency received 77,482 consultations regarding domestic violence, a 6.2-fold increase over 15 years (**Figure 3**). In addition, there were 9,017 arrests for penal code violations and special law offenses related to spousal violence in 2018, an 8.5-fold increase in 15 years. Of these, 79.4 % of the victims were women. Aside from the police, the number of consultations at the 281 Spousal Violence Counseling and Support

Figure 2 : Salary by scale of enterprises

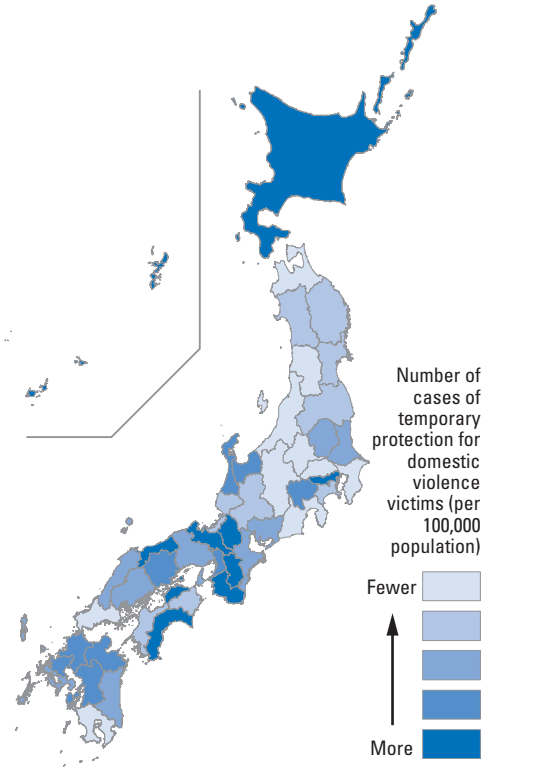


Source: *2019 White Paper on Small and Medium Enterprises*

Centers across the country increased threefold in 15 years to 106,110 in FY 2017 (Cabinet Office Gender Equality Bureau). Behind the increase in consultations on domestic violence lies an increase in the number of consultations from hidden victims of domestic violence, as a result of awareness raising on domestic violence prevention. However, many women in regional areas are hesitant to seek advice due to the strength of social norms such as not bringing disgrace on the family and the weakness of women's economic position due to fixed gender-based divisions of labor. Consequently, there will be many women victims who remain unseen.

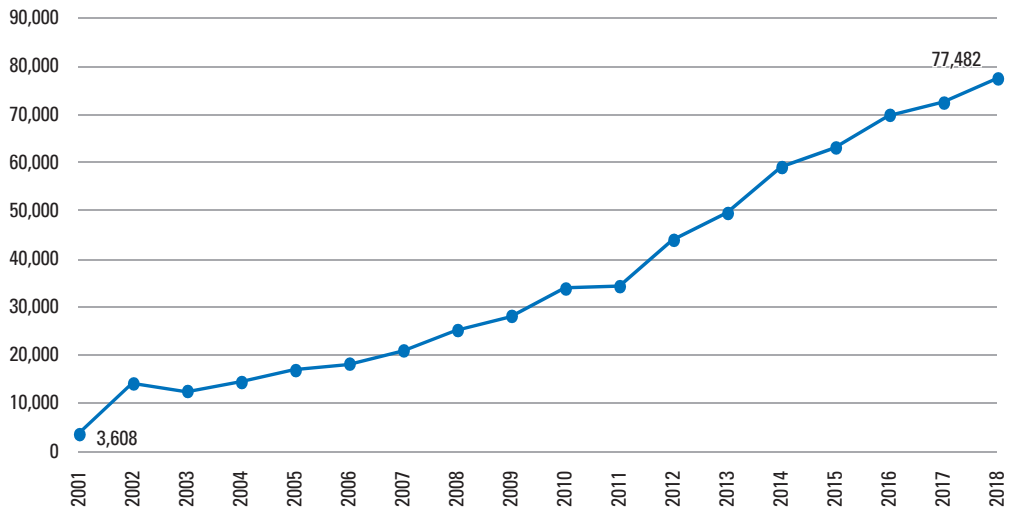
By prefecture, Kyoto, Miyagi, and Aichi had the highest numbers of consultations per Spousal Violence Counseling and Support Center in FY 2017; however, it is possible that the small number of support centers relative to other prefectures may have resulted in a high concentration of consultations per center, or that there are not enough consultation counters. The largest number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims (by population) was in Okinawa, followed by Kagawa, Wakayama, Nara, Tokyo, Shiga, Tottori, Hokkaido, Kochi, and Kyoto (**Indicator G5**, Figure 4).

Figure 4 : Number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims (per population)



Source: MHLW, *Act on the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims Enactment Report,* 2015

Figure 3 : Trends in the number of consultations regarding cases of spousal violence, etc.



Source: National Police Agency, *Response to Stalking Cases and Spousal Violence Cases in 2018*

b) Stalking

The number of consultations relating to stalking have also remained at a high level since 2012, with 21,556 cases in 2018, a 1.8-fold increase over 15 years. Women represented 87.9% of the victims in these cases. In 2018, there were 1,594 arrests for penal code violations and special law offense related to stalking, including 22 cases of forcible sexual intercourse, and 54 cases of forcible indecency. There were also 762 violations of the **Anti-Stalking Act**. In 2017, Tokyo, Fukuoka and Aichi had the highest number of stalking-related inquiries to prefectural police, while Shimane, Fukui and Yamagata had the lowest. However, even Shimane, where the number of inquiries was lowest, showed an increasing trend: its figure of 74 was an increase of 10 over the previous year, and there were 2 more arrests under the **Anti-Stalking Act**.

c) Sexual Harassment

Out of all the inquiries made regarding the **Equal Employment Opportunity Act** in FY 2018, sexual harassment was the most frequent topic, with 7,639 inquiries making up 38.2% of the total (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW), *FY 2018 Prefectural Labour Bureau, Employment Environment and Equal Employment Bureau Law Enactment Report*). In a joint survey by the Cabinet Office Gender Equality Bureau and Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu (*Research Report on Local Assembly Members for the Promotion of Gender Equality in Politics*, 2018), a questionnaire administered to women representatives in local assemblies indicated that 29.6 % had suffered sex discrimination and harassment in their legislative activities. 91.8% responded that training and study sessions for legislators on sexual harassment prevention had "not been conducted." This figure was highest for town and village councils, at 95.1%.

In June 2018, the Japan Federation of National Government Service Employees conducted a questionnaire survey of those working in national civil service workplaces, including part-time employees. 15.6% of respondents said that they had suffered or witnessed sexual harassment in the workplace. The most common workplaces for this to occur were government district offices and family court branches, and the rate of people who said that they had suffered sexual harassment was almost twice as high among part-time and dispatched employees than among full-time employees. In terms of how the victims dealt with this, over 30% said that they "endured it without telling anyone," and in relation to the results of their actions, a majority of 54.9% replied that "nothing changed."

With regard to sexual harassment, it would be ideal to make ongoing sexual harassment training mandatory for business owners (regardless of size), employees, government employees, legislators, school faculty and staff, and local community associations, etc. The national government, local governments and companies need to take the lead in developing consultation services and systems to deal with sexual harassment. In rural areas, there are often circumstances such as the perpetrator and the victim living in the same area or community, and it seems that many women find it difficult to seek advice on sexual harassment if there are not sufficient systems in place to deal with it.

d) Sex Crimes

In 2018, there were 1,307 reported cases of "forcible sexual intercourse" (defined as "rape" before 2017), in which 95.7% of the victims were women, and 5,340 of "forcible indecency," in which 96.5% of victims were women. Both of these offenses occurred in all prefectures (Crime Statistics, January-December 2018, Revised Version). Victims are most likely to be in their 10s and 20s, but there are victims of all ages, from those under 12 years old to those in their 80s or older. According to the *2012 White Paper on Crime*, based on survey results showing that only 18.5% of sex crimes are reported, it is thought that the actual number of victims is considerably higher than the number of consultations or reported cases.

e) Sexual Exploitation of Girls and Young Women

Of the 450,000 Twitter accounts that were permanently suspended worldwide due to child sexual exploitation in the second half of 2018, 29% were Japanese accounts (announced March 2019). Given that at the time, Japanese users made up about 14% (45 million) of the world total, Japanese accounts represent an extremely high proportion of those permanently suspended. In Japan, the number of children falling victim to crimes originating on social media is rising, reaching 1,813 in 2017 (announced by the National Police Agency Juvenile Division and Information Technology Crime Prevention Division). Approximately 90% of the affected children were junior high and high school students, and as of the second half of 2017, 89% of the children accessing social networking sites did so using smartphones, but more than 90% of the affected children's caregivers did not use the filtering systems on their children's phones.

In FY2017, 210 school teachers and staff (of which 98.1% were men) were punished for indecent behavior. Students at the perpetrators' schools accounted for 46.2% of the victims (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), *Disciplinary Action relating to Indecent Behavior, etc. (School Teachers and Staff)* (FY 2018)). 42.3% of these incidents came to light as a result of consultations from the victim student with other teachers and staff, and 33.8% as a result of reports to the police. Cooperation between schools and the police is vital to ensure that students feel safe in school. Also important are coordinated initiatives. These include training and workshops on child sexual exploitation for teachers, staff, students, and caregivers, and working with mobile phone companies to increase the use of filtering on smartphones for minors.

There were 36 arrests for human trafficking offenses in 2018, with 96% of victims being female, and 72.7% Japanese. 88% of foreign victims in the past five years were from the Philippines and Thailand (National Police Agency, *Situation on Arrests for Human Trafficking Offenses*). In 2017, 15 high school girls were forced to appear in pornographic videos, and a girl in the sixth grade of elementary school was forced to work at a massage parlor (*Sankei News*, February 8, 2018). Street and internet recruitment disguised as scouting for models and TV personalities is spreading not only in big cities, but also in rural areas.

In FY 2017, the children's telephone counseling service Childline, which is operated by 70 organizations nationwide, received 1,618 consultations regarding child abuse. Of these, those relating to sexual abuse came to 31.5%. In Miyagi Prefecture, there were 52 child abuse consultations, of which 53.8% were related to sexual abuse. The victims were mainly young girls from elementary school to high school, and it appears that most of the perpetrators were their biological fathers. Almost all of the victims reported that they had "not told anyone" (*Kahoku Shimpo*, January 7, 2019).

The elimination of all forms of violence against all women and girls is a top priority in all regions. The number of victims of sexual violence is still growing, and most of them are women and girls. There is a need to set up telephone and social-media based consultation services that are also easy for people close to the victims to consult, thereby putting in place a system that can help victims as soon as possible. Many women and girls are unable to report the offenses committed against them. As such, it is imperative to reach across region and sector boundaries to work with NPOs and other organizations already active in this area to build systems and points of contact that protect victims' privacy and ensure that they can report crimes without fear of secondary harm.

In March 2019, the Nagoya District Court acquitted a father accused of "quasi-forcible intercourse" on his 19-year-old biological daughter. In the sentencing statement, it was acknowledged that the victim suffered violence at the hands of

her father since she was in elementary school and was forced to have intercourse with him since the second year of junior high school, making it difficult for her to resist. However, it did not recognize that she was in a psychological state where resistance was impossible. The offense of "quasi-forcible intercourse" cannot apply unless the victim is "mentally incapacitated" or "incapable of resistance." This woman, who finally asked for help, was recognized as the victim of non-consensual sexual activity, but that alone was not legally enough to have the defendant punished.

Rape is sometimes referred to as the murder of the soul. It is imperative to consider how the human rights of women and girls can be protected in the current Japanese legal system, which fails to secure a conviction even when there is acknowledged sexual violence from a biological father.

3. Health

a) National Health Insurance

National Health Insurance (NHI) is made up of municipal National Health Insurance programs (91%) and national health insurance societies (9%). As of September 2017, the number of people enrolled in NHI was 32.25 million, or 29.5% of the population (MHLW Health Insurance Bureau). Low-income groups that pay reduced premiums for municipal national insurance make up 52% of that total, and of these, 56.4% are women and 45.6% are men. Of those households paying reduced insurance premiums, 1.42 million more are headed by women than men, and among the households that are given the largest reduction (70%, for those households with a total annual income of less than 330,000 yen), 1 million more are headed by women than men.

b) Health Checks

The proportion of those who had a regular health check (in 2016) was lower for women than for men in all age groups (**Table 1**). The rate among women aged 30–39 in particular was 18.7% lower than that for men of the same age group. It is feared that this lack of opportunities for health checks or physical exams will give rise to increased health risks for women.

To eliminate the gender gap in health, there must be equal access to basic services such as NHI and regular health checks for men and women. NHI had a deficit of 146.8 billion yen in FY 2016 (*Nihon Keizai Shimbun*, March 9, 2018). From FY 2019, the management of the program will be transferred from municipalities to prefectures, and reform proposals will be considered. It is precisely when these kinds of fundamental reforms are undertaken that gender equality mechanisms need to be incorporated.

4. Labor

a) Labor Force Participation Rate

In 2018, the labor force participation rate[*2] was 52.5% (30.14 million) for women and 71.2%

[*2] The proportion of the population aged 15 and over made up by the labor force population (those employed and those fully unemployed). **Abbreviated as labor force rate.**

Table 1 : Rate of regular health checks by gender and age (persons aged 20 years old and over)

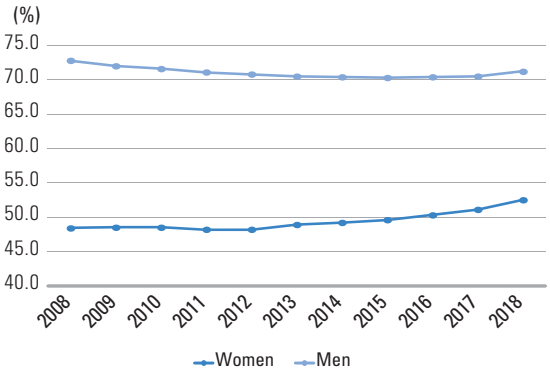
Gender	Overall Rate	20–29 years old	30–39	40–49	50–59	60–69	70–79	80+ years old	40–74 years old (Calculated separately)
Total number	67.3	64.1	65.4	73.5	75.3	67.7	63.5	52.3	71.0
Men	72.0	66.8	74.9	79.6	79.9	70.6	64.2	55.0	75.0
Women	63.1	61.5	56.2	67.7	71.0	65.1	63.0	50.5	67.3

Source: *2016 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions, Distribution*, by gender and by age group, of persons (aged 20 and over) who received a regular health check

Note: Hospitalization is not included. Kumamoto is excluded due to natural disaster.

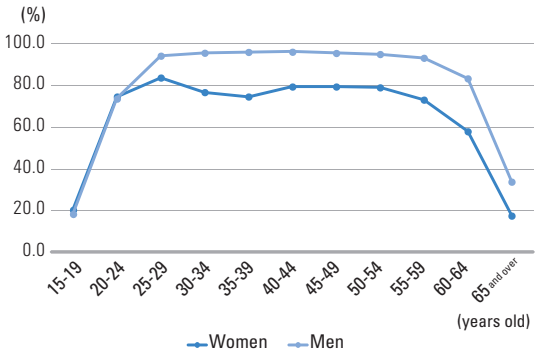
(38.17 million) for men. In the 10 years from 2008 to 2018, the labor force rate for women increased by 4.1%, and that for men decreased by 1.6% (Figure 5). It is known that women's labor force rate decreases in their thirties due to marriage and childbirth, and then rises again in their forties, when childcare becomes less intensive, producing an "M-shaped" curve. Although the dip in the middle of the M has become shallower in recent years, as of 2018, this trend cannot be said to have disappeared (Figure 6).

Figure 5 : **Labor force participation rates for men and women (2008–2018)**



Source: MIC, *Labour Force Survey*

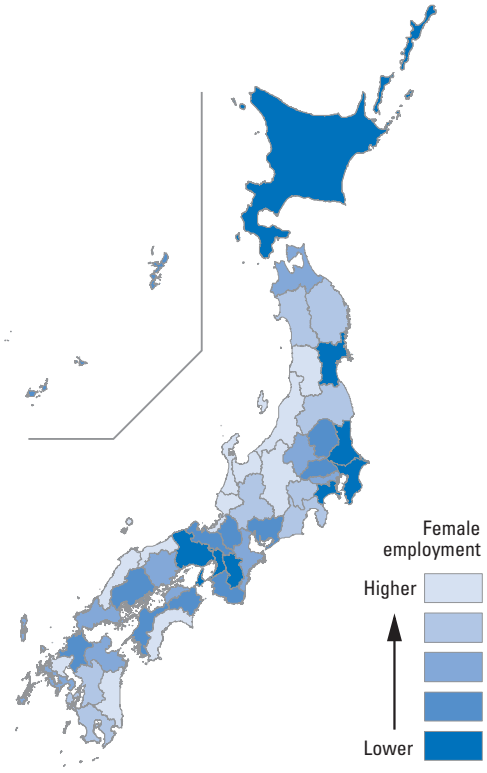
Figure 6 : **Labor force participation rates for men and women by age (2018)**



Source: MIC, *Labour Force Survey*

Looking at the employment rate for women by prefecture, the highest rate was found in Fukui (74.8%), followed by Toyama (72.2%), Shimane (71.8%), Tottori (71.6%), Ishikawa (71.2%), Yamagata (71.1%), and Kochi (70.1%). The lowest was in Nara (58.5%), followed by Hyogo (60.6%), Osaka (61.4%), Kanagawa (62.0%), Miyagi (62.9%), Hokkaido (62.9%), and Chiba (63.0%). As can be seen here, there are large regional disparities in women's employment (**Indicator C6**, Figure 7).

Figure 7 : **Female employment rates**



Source: 2015 Population Census

There are also large differences in the gap between male and female labor force rates within each prefecture. The phenomenon of low female labor force rate is generally observed in towns and villages with small populations and in municipalities far from the prefectural capital. For example, in Nara, which has the lowest rate of women with a job in the country, cities and towns with populations of 20,000 or more tend to have higher female labor force rates and lower rates of aging. Conversely, villages with a population of 3,500 people or fewer tend to have lower female labor force rates and higher rates of demographic aging. The village of Kawakami (population about 1,300), with the lowest female labor force rate in the prefecture

(31.2%) also has the prefecture's highest rate of aging (58.7%). Forestry is the village's core industry, and tourism is in decline. According to an estimate by the Japan Policy Council, by 2040, it will have the second highest rate of decline in the number of young women nationwide. However, there are also villages that have high rates of female labor force participation despite their small populations. The villages of Soni (population of about 1,500) and Tenkawa (about 1,300) both have high female labor force rates, at 45.6% and 44.5% respectively. In both cases, 500,000–650,000 tourists visit each year. In these villages with small populations but relatively high female labor force rates, there is a thriving tourism industry, and many women are working in the lodging, food service, and retail sectors.

In Kochi, which has the lowest gap between male and female employment rates of any prefecture in the country, cities and towns with population of 17,000 or more have high rates of women's labor force participation and low rates of demographic aging. As in Nara, the smaller the population and the higher the rate of aging, the lower the female labor force participation rate tends to be. The village of Niyodogawa, with a population of about 5,500, has the lowest female labor force rate in Kochi Prefecture (35.3%), while its rate of population aging is the second highest (53.9%). The village is located in the central part of the Shikoku Mountains. 90% of its land is mountainous, the main industries are lime mining, construction, and services, and it received about 75,000 tourists in 2013. On the other hand, Umaji Village (population of about 800), the second least populated village in Kochi, has a high female labor force rate (50.3%) and the rate of aging is also not that high (39.4%). The village focuses on creating jobs in the village based on the processing of agricultural products such as yuzu. Many women work in office and service jobs, and the number of tourists exceeded 60,000 in 2013.

Although women's labor force rate has been on an upward trend, with a rise of 2.2% over four years, the number of women as a proportion of full time-employees has increased by only 0.3% during the same period, with little change to the labor structure in which men make up 70% of full-time employees, and women only 30%. When looking at women's labor force rate as an indicator, it is also important to note the type of employment involved.

b) Gender disparities in Employment Status

Looking at employment status (2017) shows that of the 66.213 million people engaged in work, men make up about 70% of self-employed, directors of companies and other organizations, and **regular employees**. Conversely, women make up about 70–80% of family workers, non-regular employees, and part-time workers[*3]. In agriculture and forestry, 80% of men work as self-employed. However, these positions only account for 30% of women workers in these industries, with 70% women working as family workers or non-regular employees. As such, there is a clear gender imbalance in employment status within these industries (**Figure 8**).

According to OECD statistics, the gender wage gap in Japan (2018) was 75.5 for women relative to every 100 for men (OECD, 2018). After South Korea and Estonia, this was the third largest among the 43 OECD countries (OECD, *Gender Wage Gap*, 2019). According to a survey by the MHLW, monthly wages for general workers (2017) were 247,500 yen for women compared to 337,600 yen for men, and in management positions, women section chiefs were paid only 88% of what their male counterparts were. Furthermore, 73.2% (15.53 million) of non-regular workers had yearly incomes of less than 2 million yen, and of those workers, 75.7% (11.76 million) were women, showing that many women are in low-paid work (MIC Statistics Bureau, 2018).

Looking at wages by gender, age, and employment type (for 2017), wages for each group were in descending order as follows: full-time men, full-time women, non-regular men, and non-reg-

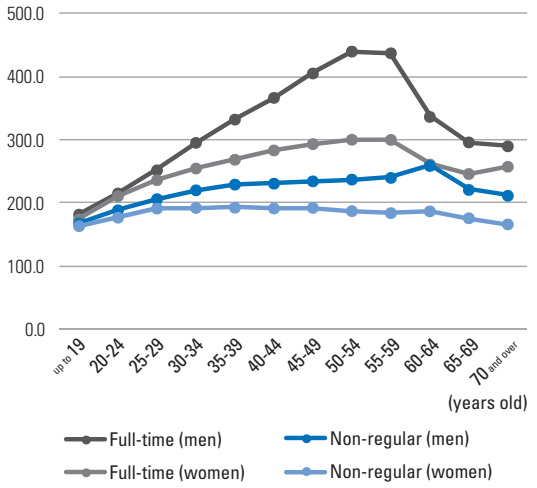
[*3] Part-time workers account for 64% of non-regular employees.

ular women (Figure 9). Comparing those aged 20–24 with those aged 50–54, monthly wages for full-time men increase from 215,200 yen to 439,900 yen, twice as high; for full-time women, 210,900 yen to 300,300 yen, 1.5 times as high; for non-regular men, 188,500 to 237,200 yen, 1.3 times as high. However, wages for non-regular women increase only from 176,900 yen to 187,300 yen, or 1.06 times as high. In other words, wages barely increase even with 30 years of age. Behind this lies the fact that women's careers are interrupted by leaving employment for childbirth, childcare, and nursing care. This leads to delays in promotion or working part-time while carrying unpaid labor. The shift from regular to non-regular employment changes the wage structure, and issues in terms of the way women work manifest themselves as a wage gap.

The prefecture with the highest rate of non-regular employment among women was Shiga, followed by Nara and Saitama, while the lowest was Tokushima, followed by Yamagata and Kochi. The difference between Shiga and Tokushima comes to 15.4%, showing a large difference in the rate of non-regular employees by prefecture (Figure 10).

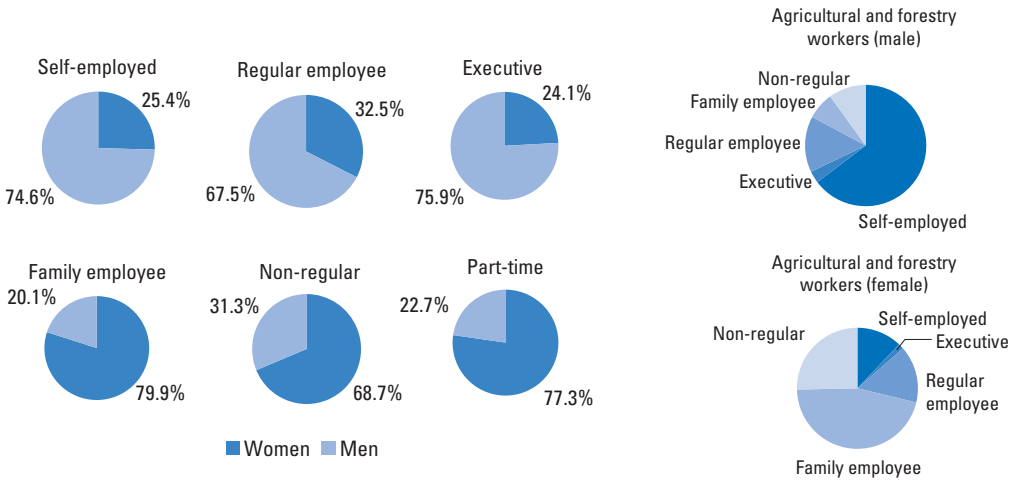
It is also important to ensure the participation of women in positions with decision-making authority. The overwhelmingly low percentage of female executives and managers is not only a factor in the gender pay gap, but also has a significant impact on the creation of systems and work environments that make it easy for women to work. For example, in Toyama and Fukui, the employment rate among women is high, but the rate of women in management positions is low and share of housework taken on by men is only around average.

Figure 9 : Wages by gender, age, and employment type (2017)



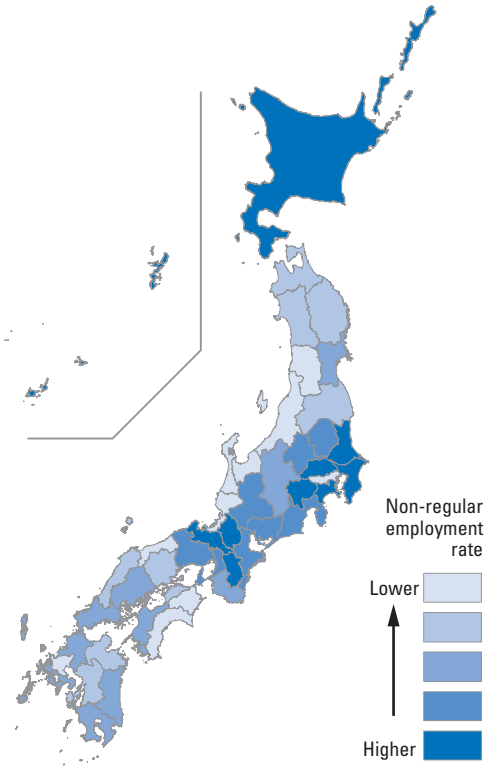
Source: MHLW, *Basic Survey of Wage Structure 2017*

Figure 8 : Employment status by gender (2017)



Source: MIC, *Employment Status Survey*, 2017

Figure 10 : Proportion of non-regular employment among female workers by prefecture (2017)



Source: MIC, *Employment Status Survey 2017*: Table 4: Number of employed persons and employee ratios by gender, employee position, employment status, and business formation Nationwide, Prefectures (cont.)

With the overwhelmingly large number of women working as non-regular employees, the establishment of equal pay for equal work could create opportunities for women to work more flexibly while earning a wage commensurate with their labor. In addition, indicators and data such as the rates of female executives, full-time employees, part-time employees, and the wage gap need to be viewed holistically as an issue relating to the employment structure, rather than as individual problems.

Differences in the ratio of men to women in the labor force and the wage gap indicate that male-centered labor practices are still dominant in Japan. Men are primarily responsible for earning money and working a lot of overtime, while women take on household chores and childcare single-handedly while earning money through supplementary work, such as reduced hours of work or part-time jobs. If there is no one around to support them, women's work and mental state are more likely to become unstable, and isolation is also a concern. In the future, the questions of how to change the way men work and how to share the burden of housework and childcare will become increasingly important. Moreover, there is also the fear that the move of women to cities will be accelerated if women in rural areas are not given opportunities to work full-time, allowing them to make use of their education and experience, rather than in non-regular employment.

5. Women's Economic Rights

a) Inheritance

Access to things such as land ownership and inherited property is important for improving women's economic status. In March 2015, Study Group on Women's Inheritance and Wealth by the Meiji Yasuda Institute of Life and Wellness (chaired by Kyoko Uemura, professor at Tokyo Kasei Gakuin University) conducted a survey of 4,800 men and women in their 40s to 60s nationwide. The results showed that men were about 25% more likely than women to inherit real estate from their father. Meanwhile, according to *Study on the Inheritances of the Elderly* by the Dai-ichi Life Research Institute (2005), to the question whether they received residential real estate as an inheritance from a father, the reply by men (16.3%) was higher than that by women (5.0%). Although there is no publicly available data on property inheritance and property ownership, it appears that, as the above surveys show, there are many areas where the idea of men being the ones to inherit houses and land still exists. The proportion of women who own or inherit real estate is low. Equal male and female ownership of land and inheritance affects things like business opportunities, because owning real estate increases the opportunity for economic benefits, such as the ability to take out

loans, easier access to credit, and opportunities to increase income.

b) Pensions

The average monthly amount received under Employees' Pension Insurance in 2017 was 147,051 yen. However, the average for men is 174,535 yen, compared to 108,776 yen for women. The amount that women receive is only 62.3% of the amount that men receive (MHLW, *Overview of the Employees' Pension Insurance and National Pension Program in FY 2017*). Meanwhile, the average yearly amount that men received in public pensions (including mutual aid association pensions and annuities) in 2017 was 1.828 million yen. The amount for women was 57.8% of this, at 1.057 million yen (MHLW, *Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions of Pensioners*). The most common pension income group for men was 2–3 million yen (42.2%), while that for women was 0.5 – 1 million yen (40.7%). 20.1% of men had pension incomes (including company and private pensions as well as public pensions) of less than 1 million yen, while for women, this percentage rises to 54%, a clear gender difference. Behind this lies the fact that while men fall mainly into the categories of "worked mainly as a regular employee" (69.7%) or "self-employed" (16.5%), women are dispersed across the categories of "worked mainly as a regular employee" (22.5%), "worked mainly part-time" (17.3%), "self-employed" (15.6%), or "no paid work" (17.1%), with a low proportion of regular full-time employees. The proportion of those receiving pensions in households without a spouse was 31.8%, of which 24.6% were men and 75.4% were women. The average yearly pension amount for these households was 1.571 million yen for men and 1.349 million yen for women.

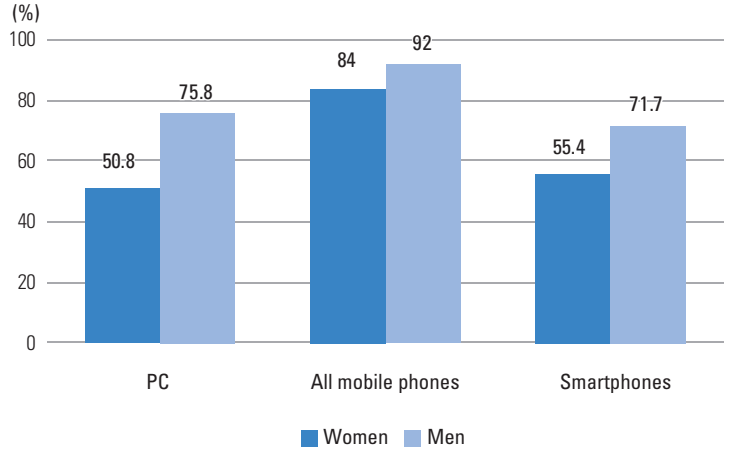
The disparity in pension benefits between men and women is not so much a matter of how individuals work as it is a social issue facing Japan, where male-centered labor practices have remained in place. As Japan heads rapidly into an aging society, there are concerns about the increasing levels of poverty among single elderly women.

6. Digital

a) Personal Computers

Levels of PC ownership are lower among women across all types of households and age groups (**Figure 11**). Single women aged 60 and over had the lowest rate (35%), while men in two or more person households aged 30-59 had the highest rate (90%). By region, single person households in Hokkaido and Tohoku had the lowest rates

Figure 11 : Rates of personal computer ownership by gender



Source: MIC, *Consumer Confidence Survey* (March 2018)

(41%), while households with two or more people in Kanto, Tokai, and Chugoku, and Shikoku had the highest rates (80%). In terms of income, the ownership rate was lowest among single-person households with an annual income of less than 3 million yen (39%), and highest among households of two or more people with an annual income of 9.5–12 million yen (97%).

7. Unpaid Labor

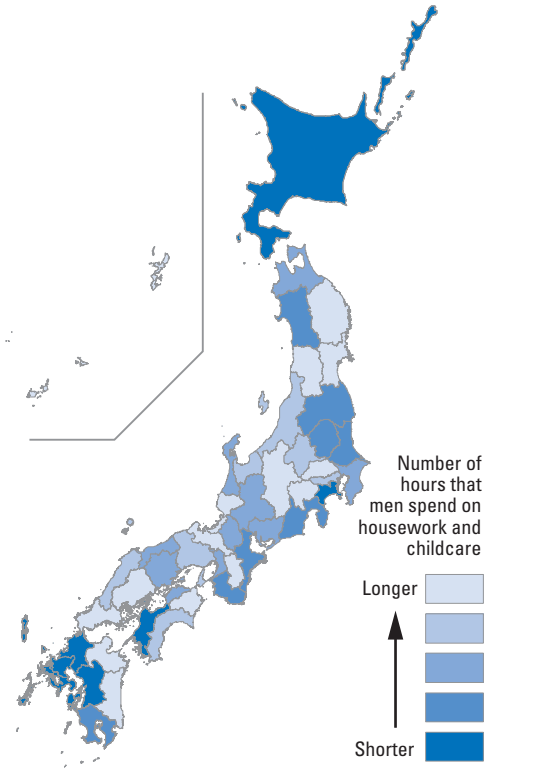
a) Housework

Women spent almost five times as much time as men on home-related activities (housework, care/nursing, childcare and shopping) in 2016, at 3 hours and 28 minutes per week compared with men's 44 minutes per week. For couples with children under the age of six, husbands spend an average of 17 minutes per week on housework and 49 minutes per week on childcare, a total of just 1 hour and 23 minutes for all home-related activities. Wives, meanwhile, spend an average of 3 hours and 7 minutes on housework, and 3 hours and 45 minutes on childcare. This comes to a total of 7 hours, 34 minutes on home-related activities per week, and is 5.5 times the amount spent by husbands. The fact that women are responsible for this unpaid home labor greatly influences the way men and women work. There are large regional differences in the amount of time men spend on housework and childcare (**Indicator G6**, Figure 12).

b) Leaving Employment due to Childbirth

The proportion of women that left the workforce around the time of the birth of their first child (between 2010 and 2014) was 46.9%, or nearly half (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research). 200,000 women each year leave employment due to childbirth (Tokyo Shimbun, July 30, 2018 morning edition). According to an estimate by the Dai-ichi Life Research Institute, this causes an economic loss of about 1.2 trillion yen on a nominal GDP basis.

Figure 12 : **Number of hours that men spend on housework and childcare**



Source: MIC, *2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities*

In the five years between October 2012 and September 2017, 1.025 million women left their previous employment due to childbirth and childcare (MIC Statistics Bureau, *Employment Status Survey*).

Why do women quit their jobs due to childbirth, and how can it be made possible for them to continue working after having a baby? The Cabinet Office conducted a survey of women who wanted to continue working after the birth of their first child but did not. According to the survey, the following factors were cited as necessary to continue working: (1) being able to send the child to an accredited or certified nursery; (2) systems in place at the workplace, such as shortened work hours, to support the balancing of work and family life; (3) understanding in the workplace of the balance between work and home life; (4) workplaces where it is easy to take days off; (5) support from parents and other relatives; (6) active support from the spouse;

(7) workplaces with little overtime; (8) shorter commuting times; (9) no harassment related to pregnancy or childcare in the workplace; (10) senior women role models for balancing work and family (Data collection on trends in women's rates of continuing employment after the birth of their first child, 2016). It should be noted, however, that the results of this survey are based on the current way of working. In addition, the percentage of men taking childcare leave is low, at 5.14% (MHLW, *FY 2017 Basic Survey of Gender Equality in Employment Management*). This also reinforces the idea that women should take time off from work to raise children. Looking just at those in their 30s, although the amount of time men spend on raising children is rising, the amount of time that women spend doing so is rising even more (**Figure 13**).

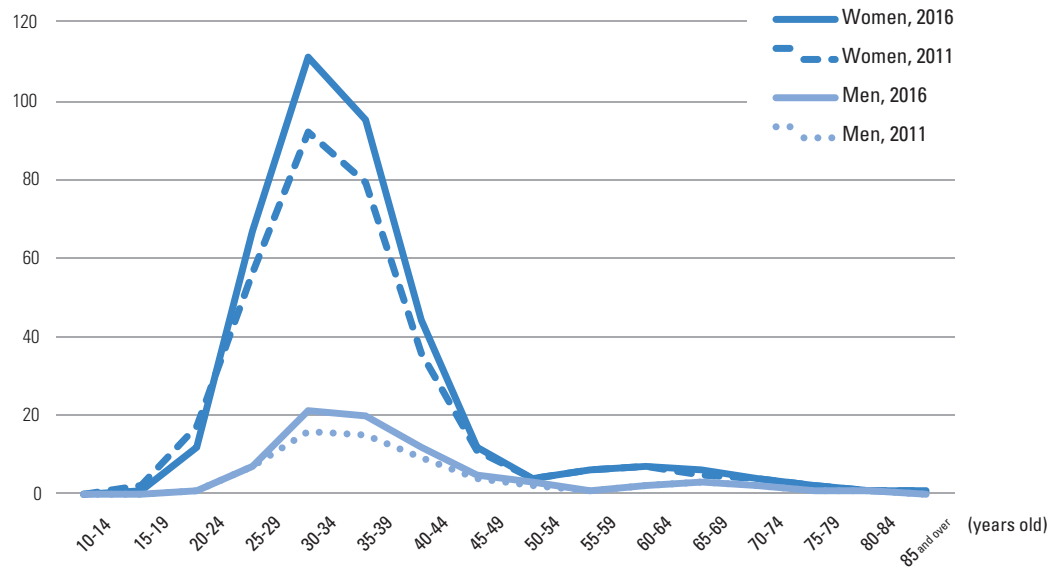
By prefecture (2017), the proportion of women engaged in both childcare and paid work is highest in Shimane (81.2%), Fukui (80.6%), and Kochi (80.5%), and lowest in Kanagawa (57.1%), Saitama (58.6%), and Aichi (59.9%). The figures were on the rise in all prefectures. However, the difference between Shimane and Kanagawa is 24.1 points, showing large regional differences in the proportion of women who are engaged in both childcare and paid work (**Figure 14**).

c) Leaving Employment due to Nursing Care

The number of women providing nursing care to elderly or disabled people is over 30% higher than the equivalent figure for men (**Figure 15**). During the one-year period from October 2016 to September 2017, 99,000 people left the workforce to provide medical or nursing care. These people were overwhelmingly women, making up 75.8% of the total compared to 24.2% men (MIC, *Employment Status Survey*). As demographic aging progresses rapidly in the future, the problem of leaving employment to undertake nursing care is expected to intensify.

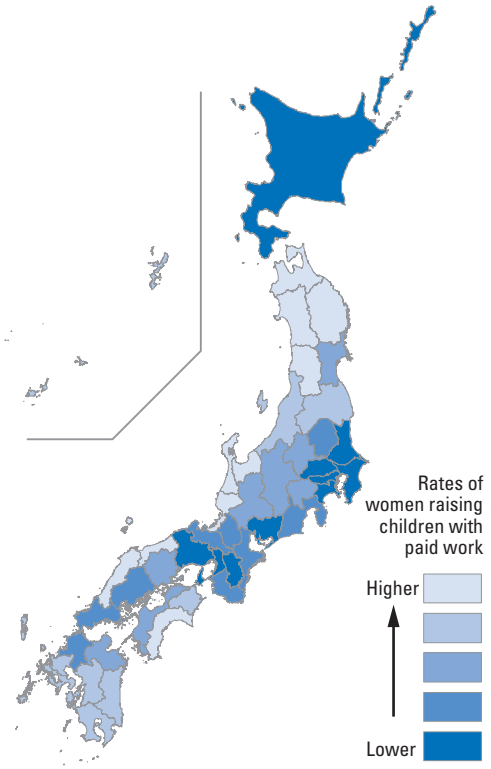
In 2017, the proportion of women who were engaged in nursing care alongside paid work was highest in Nagano (56.0%), Gifu (53.9%), and Saga (53.3%), and lowest in Akita (42.4%), Hyogo (44.7%), and Wakayama (44.8%). The difference between Nagano and Akita is 13.6

Figure 13 : Childcare hours for men and women by age group (2011, 2016) — entire week



Source: MIC, *2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities*

Figure 14 : Rate of women raising children with paid work by prefecture, 2017



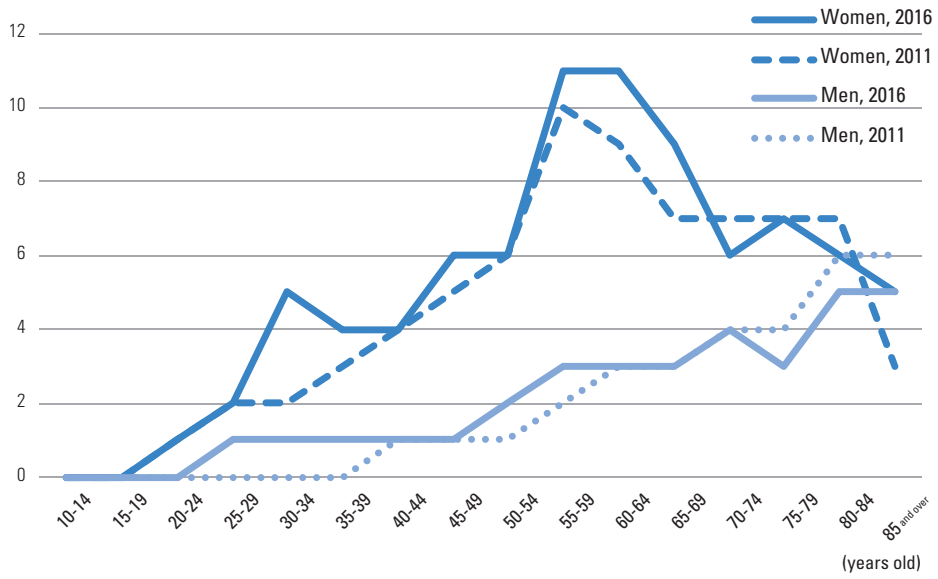
Source: MIC, *Employment Status Survey 2017*

points, showing large regional differences in the proportion of women who balance nursing care with their jobs (**Figure 16**).

d) Consultations on Leaving Employment for Childcare / Nursing

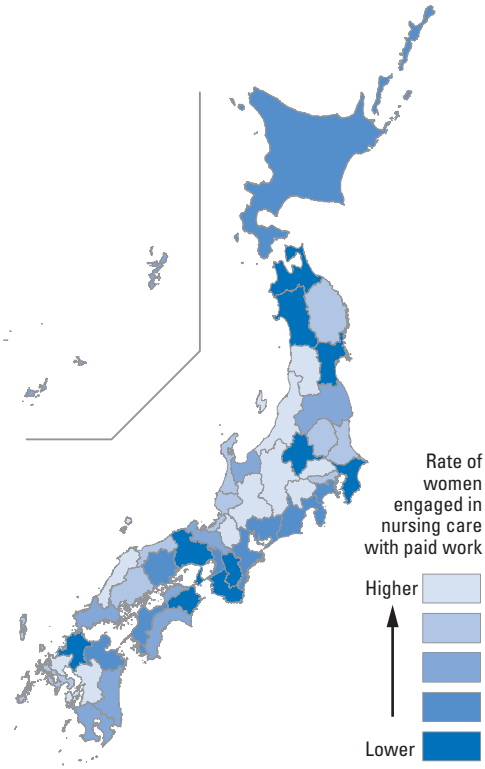
It is also important to improve the working environment so that the number of employees who leave their jobs due to childcare and nursing care against their wishes does not increase. In FY 2017, there were 99,596 inquiries on the **Equal Employment Opportunity Act** and similar matters, of which those relating to the **Act on Childcare and Caregiver Leave** were the most common (78.3%). Under the Act, consultations regarding childcare are the most common (69.1%), and among these, the most common are those relating to childcare leave (51.3%). Characteristically, there are many more inquiries from workers with fixed contract terms (temporary, part-time, etc.) than from workers with indefinite contract terms. The difference between these figures for each of the different types of inquiries is as follows: twice as many for childcare leave, 4.5 times as many for nursing

Figure 15 : Nursing / care hours by gender and age group (2011, 2016) — entire week



Source: MIC, *2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities*

Figure 16 : **Rates of women engaged in nursing care with paid work by prefecture, 2017**



Source: MIC, *2017 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities*

care leave, 2.7 times as many for unfavorable treatment relating to childcare leave, and 1.7 times as many for unfavorable treatment relating to nursing care leave. This suggests that non-regular employees are in a more vulnerable working environment when undertaking childcare or nursing care (Table 2).

There is a need to improve public services, infrastructure and social security policies so as to allow the burdens of unpaid childcare, nursing care and domestic work to be spread among spouses, family members and social services, rather than women taking them on alone. In particular, when women leave the workforce despite not wishing to do so, it can destabilize household income, isolate them from social connections, and contribute to women's irregular job status and low incomes. In order to spread the burden of unpaid work, it is important that families first appreciate its value and then educate the next generation so as not to reproduce that situation.

8. Education

a) Investment in Education for Female Students

The percentage of female students among those currently enrolled in universities in 2019 was 88.4% for junior colleges, 45.4% for faculties in four-year universities, 31.6% for master's programs, 33.8% for doctoral programs and 19.8% for specialized training colleges. Thus, the proportion of female students in higher education is low (MEXT, *School Basic Survey* (2019 Preliminary Report)). The higher the level of education, the less that families invest in in the education of their female child(ren). The proportion of students that do not receive monetary support from their family is 4.3% for men compared to 4.6% for women at undergraduate level, 6.4% for men compared to 12% for women at master's level, and 28.1% for men compared to 31.3% for women at the doctoral level (Japan Student Services Organization, *Results of the Survey on Student Life*, FY 2016). The proportion of female students that go on to enroll in four-year universities is lower than that of male students in 46 prefectures. The largest gender disparities in university enrollment rates are in Hokkaido (67.7% for men and 44.3% for women), Saitama (67.7% for men and 54.6% for women), and Kagoshima (48.7% for men and 36.6% for women). In Tokushima (men 50.2%, women 52.7%), the rate for women is slightly higher. The percentage of students who enroll in universities located

Table 2 : **Breakdown of inquiry categories by employment status**

	Workers with a permanent contract		Workers with a fixed-term contract	
Childcare leave (Article 5)	2,851	59.2%	1,101	63.8%
Nursing care leave (Article 11)	605	12.6%	145	8.4%
Unfavorable treatment relating to childcare leave (Article 10)	1,282	27%	451	26.1%
Unfavorable treatment relating to nursing care leave (Article 16)	78	1.6	29	1.7
Total	4,816		1,726	

Source: MHLW, *Status of Enforcement of the Law by the Employment Environment and Equal Opportunity Divisions (Offices) of Prefectural Labor Bureaus in FY 2017*

in the same prefecture as their high school was higher for women than men, at 40.5% for male students and 45.9% for female students.

The notion that being a woman, they do not have to go to university is discriminatory. Because the cost of living is higher when a student goes to a university outside their own prefecture, the high rate of female students attending universities within their own prefecture can be seen as a result of more active investment in education for male students than for female students.

b) Female Students in Science and Engineering

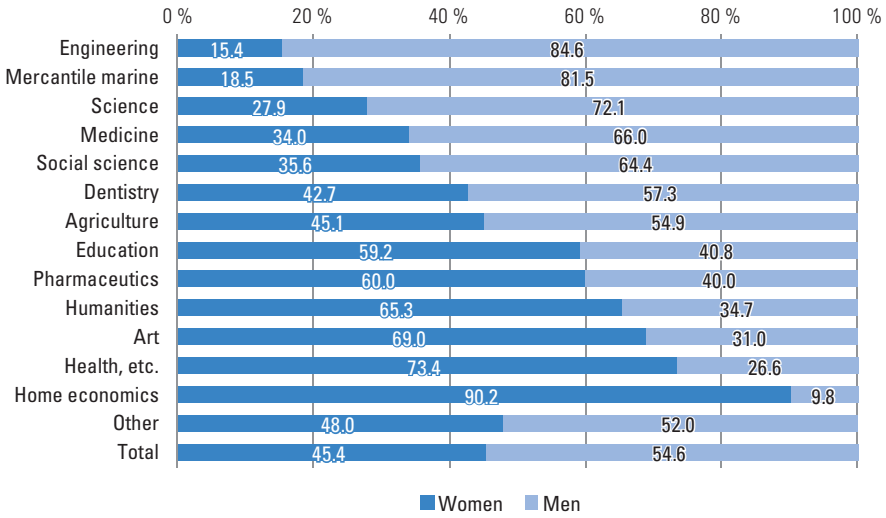
In 2019, the percentage of female students enrolled as university undergraduates was very high in faculties such as home economics (90.2%), art (69.0%), and humanities (65.3%), but low in faculties for science-related fields such as engineering (15.4%), science (27.9%), and medicine (34%) (MEXT, *School Basic Survey (2019 Preliminary Report)*, Figure 17). Rates were also extremely low in master's programs of engineering (13.6%) and science (23.7%), and in doctoral programs of engineering (18.3%) and science (19.7%).

The low proportion of female students in faculties of science and engineering gives rise to concern about an overwhelming shortage of women working in the fields of IT, scientific research, and technological innovation in the future, as well as to fears that the gender gap will continue. It can be said that ICT education for female students is an urgent issue for preventing the gender gap in ICT innovation, which is proceeding at ever greater speed, from widening even further.

c) 30% of High School Pregnancies result in Students Dropping Out

During FY 2015–2016, public high schools identified 2,098 pregnancies. In 30% of these cases, the student concerned voluntarily withdrew from school, including 32 cases in which the school suggested voluntary withdrawal despite a student's or parent's desire for them to continue attending. Only the 37.1% who remained at the same school and the 8.5% that transferred to another school carried on with their studies (excluding directly before and after childbirth). In about 30% of cases, students who withdrew from school were not provided with information about the examinations for the high school-equivalent

Figure 17 : **Male to female ratio of undergraduate students by department (FY 2019)**



Source: MEXT, *School Basic Survey* (2019 Preliminary Report)

certification and the support systems in place for completing them (MEXT, *Survey of Withdrawals Due to Pregnancy in Public High Schools*). In 2017, 14,666 girls under the age of 20 had abortions, including 8,555 girls aged 18 and under (MHLW, *FY 2017 Overview of Reports on Public Health Administration and Services*).

It has been noted that high school dropouts who become pregnant at a young age are more likely to fall into the cycle of poverty. It is imperative that female students who find themselves in the vulnerable situation of a young pregnancy be supported to continue their studies, rather than excluded.

9. Decision Making

According to the Cabinet Office Gender Equality Bureau, venues in decision-making bodies such as national government, prefectures, municipalities, and residents' associations where women make up more than 30% of those present are extremely few in number. Rather, there are many cases in which they are less than 10%. As pointed out in the World Economic Forum's gender gap rankings, there is an extremely low level of women in decision-making positions in Japan (**Figure 18**).

Female leadership should be strengthened so that they can initiate, from a woman's perspective, their own responses to those women who are often left behind in their local communities and those who are in vulnerable positions.

Strategic measures should be taken immediately to put in place the necessary policies for helping women reach decision-making positions, including short-term development (through training, support systems, and practice), recruitment of female talent from outside, and quota systems. Effective tools already exist, such as creating lists of women candidates in

Figure 18 : Rates of female representation (2018)

Members of the House of Representatives	Members of the House of Councilors
10.1%	20.7%

	Members of Prefectural Assemblies		Members of City and Ward Assemblies		Members of Town and Village Assemblies	
1st	Tokyo	28.6%	Tokyo	28.1%	Kanagawa	22.9%
2nd	Kyoto	19.0%	Saitama	21.3%	Osaka	22.4%
3rd	Shiga	16.7%	Osaka	20.3%	Saitama	18.3%
45th	Yamanashi	2.8%	Saga	8.0%	Toyama	5.3%
46th	Saga	2.8%	Oita	6.9%	Yamanashi	4.8%
47th	Kagawa	2.6%	Nagasaki	5.8%	Aomori	2.8%

	Managers in Prefectural Civil Service		Members of Prefectural Advisory Bodies		Members of Municipal Advisory Bodies		Presidents of Neighborhood Associations	
1st	Tottori	20.0%	Tokushima	49.8%	Fukuoka	32.1%	Osaka	15.3%
2nd	Tokyo	16.6%	Shimane	43.9%	Shiga	31.8%	Kochi	13.6%
3rd	Gifu	13.5%	Tottori	43.9%	Tottori	31.7%	Tokyo	11.7%
45th	Fukushima	5.6%	Wakayama	26.8%	Yamagata	22.5%	Yamagata	1.3%
46th	Iwate	5.5%	Yamanashi	25.4%	Kumamoto	21.3%	Nagano	1.1%
47th	Hiroshima	5.4%	Akita	22.8%	Gunma	21.2%	Gunma	1.1%

Source: Cabinet Office Gender Equality Bureau, *National Map of Women's Participation in Politics by Prefecture*, (Version revised January 9, 2019)

politics, business, etc., creating groups of women to become peers, ongoing leadership training, coaching, and mentoring. Women are diverse, and having a diverse group of women in managerial positions can help prevent women's earning power being minimized through leaving the workforce, irregular job status, and reductions in their wages.

Major relevant laws, regulations and public measures

Revision of Act on Securing, etc. of Equal Opportunity and Treatment between Men and Women in Employment (the Equal Employment Opportunity Act) (1985)

Prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender at every stage of employment management. However, employers are only obliged to "make efforts" to ensure equal opportunities for men and women in hiring and promotion

The 1997 revision prohibits discriminatory treatment, obliging employers to take sexual harassment into account

The 2006 revision includes men as targets of sexual harassment

Act on Promotion of Specified Non-profit Activities (1998)

Number 12 of the 20 activities in the attached table (relating to Article 2) is activity to promote the formation of a gender-equal society.

Basic Act for Gender Equal Society (1999)

Makes compulsory the formulation of Prefectural Plans for Gender Equality, and processes the handling of complaints

Anti-Stalking Act (2000)

Provides for punishments for stalking and restraining orders against stalking behavior

The 2016 revision moves matters related to restraining orders from the jurisdiction of chief of police and others to that public safety authorities and established stronger penalties

Act on the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims (DV Prevention Act) (2001)

Makes spousal violence a crime.

The 2004 revision strengthens protective orders and allows private domestic violence shelters and similar organizations to provide a two-week period of temporary protection of victims in place of public organizations.

Act on the Promotion of Female Participation and Career Advancement in the Workplace (2016)

Companies publish an "Employer Action Plan" (those with 300 or fewer workers are obliged to make efforts)

Act on Promotion of Gender Equality in the Political Field (2018)

Political parties, etc. are obliged to make efforts towards gender equality in their candidates

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Lighthouse: Center for Human Trafficking Victims

Provide counseling and support in relation to the sexual exploitation of children, young people, and women.

Examples of past inquiries include coercion to appear in pornography, child prostitution (so-called "JK business" and "compensated dating"), child pornography (selfie taking), coercion to work in the sex industry, and coercion of foreign nationals into prostitution. Professional counselors are available by phone, e-mail or the

LINE messaging app in Japanese and English, and after an interview, they provide support such as accompaniment to a lawyer, the police, the welfare office or further counseling.

As of September 2019, they are involved in counseling and supporting to 65 children and young people from across Japan in relation to prostitution and child pornography, with new inquiries coming in every day. The staff draw on their experience in the welfare, education, and medical fields to connect them with various social resources and to stand by their side. While it is of course necessary for local governments, police and schools to work with these non-profit organizations, the first priority is to properly secure a budget for the prevention of sex crimes against children and young people. NPOs also offer training and seminars, so it might be worth considering learning about the basics and the latest cases.

Recommendations

1 Human security approaches of protection and empowerment, each of which complements the other, as an effective way of addressing the challenges women are facing

Women in vulnerable situations often face complex challenges, such as single motherhood, sexual victimization, domestic violence, non-regular employment, the digital divide, the wage gap, social withdrawal, gender roles, membership of sexual minorities, and foreign nationality. When these are intertwined, they can appear to be complex and difficult to resolve. However, it is important to continue to focus on each and every woman who is facing these challenges, continuing to work on both protection and empowerment. The human security approach to empowerment is not so much about what we can do for people in difficulty from the outside, but how we can make the most of their efforts and potential can be best harnessed. It requires stakeholders with expertise and experience to fully understand this and exert, as well as joint efforts across sectors.

2 Create work environments where employees can continue to work without leaving their jobs due to childbirth or nursing care

There are many companies that have maternity, childcare, and nursing care leave systems. However, whether women are actually able to make use of these programs depends largely on the atmosphere in the workplace and people's interpersonal relationships. There is a need to step in and intervene between the parties to make it easier for these systems to be used. In order to create a workplace where it is easy to continue working after childbirth or while providing nursing care, all stakeholders must get involved and change the work environment. This can be done not only through systematic approaches, but also approaches that center the person involved, such as proactive support from superiors and the understanding of many people who have had similar experiences.

3 Husbands take on the same housework and childcare responsibilities as their wives

Although the number of men who want to experience housework and childcare together with their partners is increasing, in the overwhelming majority of households, it is wives who do most of the housework and childcare, with husbands only helping at times. If a wife is able to continue as a full-time employee between the ages of 30 and 60 as a result of her husband doing half of the housework, a simple calculation based on the MHLW's 2017 wage figures shows that she would earn 129.96 million yen. However, if she leaves her job and works part-time or as on a contract basis, she would earn 68.19 million yen, a reduction in household income of approximately 61.77 million yen. Accordingly, it might be worth discussing the economic benefits to the family budget, as well as the happiness and self-actualization of women themselves.

4 Disclose statistical data by gender

There are still many cases where statistical data is not disaggregated by gender. Monitoring of the SDG indicators also requires gender-specific data to be disclosed for all statistics, and there is an increasing need for transparency for sharing decision making, current issues, and outcomes.

5 Build local communities comfortable for women to live in

The difficulties for women living in rural areas are not only related to the availability of jobs and the wage gap. The fact that the social norms of the Japanese *ie* (family) system are still in place in local communities is also likely a major factor. Although the *ie* system was abolished after World War II with revisions to the Civil Code, the idea behind this system, in which a wife enters her husband's house after marriage and he decides on real estate, inheritance, and other important legal actions, still persists in rural areas. As long as these legacy treats women unfairly, they will continue to move to the cities where better opportunities are offered. However, if communities work together to promote women to bring about change, perhaps it will lead to communities that are easier to live in, not just for women, but also others who are in vulnerable positions. The more people who realize the difficulties women face in rural areas, the easier it will be for all people to live there. If these communities are happy ones, then perhaps more women will aspire towards them.

(Megumi Ishimoto)

Chapter 7

Young People

The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

SDG Goal 1 (Poverty) aims to reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty (Target 1.2). SDG Goal 4 (Quality Education) aims to ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university (Target 4.3). It also includes substantially increasing the proportion of youth and adults who have the necessary skills for decent jobs and entrepreneurship (Target 4.4). SDG Goal 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth) aims to achieve full and productive employment, decent work for all women and men, equal pay for work of equal value (Target 8.5). In addition, it aims to substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (by 2020, Target 8.6).

The definition of young person varies between countries, and even the United Nations has different definitions for different agencies. UN statistics classify young people as the 15–24 age group, but the United Nations Major Group for Children and Youth has those aged 30 and under as members. In Japan, there is no legally defined age category, and the government's "White Paper on Young People" sets the age range at 15-34. In this chapter, the challenges faced by the 15–34 age group are principally focused.

The Current Situation

The 2030 Agenda, on which the SDGs are based, lists the problems facing the world today as increasing intra- and inter-national inequality; disparities of opportunity, wealth and power; and unemployment among young people. In Japan, however, the problem with regard to youth employment is not a shortage of jobs, as is the case in other countries. Rather, the country is facing a shortage of labor. Nevertheless, there are many "NEETs" (those "Not in Education, Employment, or Training"), "Freeters" (those habitually engaged in non-regular employment) and unemployed young people in Japan. These are the result of working environment such as long working hours, low wages and harassment at work. Other reasons include social withdrawal stemming from truancy after bullying at school. It is also the case that there is a shortage of suitable workplaces for those young people who are in dire poverty, long-term unemployed, ill or disabled. It is not due to a lack of individual effort that young people find themselves in poor-quality workplaces and face problems such as social withdrawal and suicide. Rather, in most cases, these are determined by a variety of circumstances, including economic inequality and disparity of opportunity.

In this chapter, the current situation of young people will be analyzed from the human development, human dignity, and freedom of choice perspectives that are vital to the objective of the SDGs to create a society where no one will be left behind

1. Education and Inequality

Educational Background and Economic Inequality

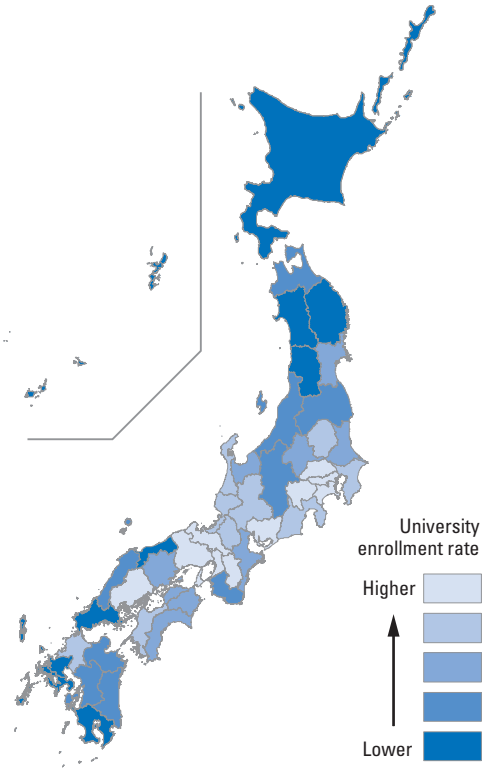
The SDGs aim, by 2030, to halve the proportion of people living in poverty, ensure equal access to vocational and higher education, and increase the proportion of young people with the skills needed for work.

Educational background has a significant impact on the range of jobs someone can find in the future. In many cases, job openings are limited to those who hold bachelor's degrees (or are expected to obtain one shortly), and those who graduate from junior high or high school face many constraints before they are able to apply their skills on the job. Even among young people with bachelor's and master's degrees, disparities exist based on the university they obtained their degrees from. This should not be regarded as something each of them is personally responsible for, reflecting the level of effort that they put in. Rather, it must be examined in terms of the ease and difficulty of making such effort, focusing also on each person's family environment and economic circumstances.

Differences in educational background also give rise to wage disparities. Men's average monthly salary is 405,000 yen for university and graduate school graduates, 313,800 yen for specialized training college and junior college graduates, and 291,600 yen for high school graduates. For women, meanwhile, the average monthly salary is 291,000 for university and graduate school graduates, 258,200 yen for technical college and junior college graduates, and 212,900 yen for high school graduates (Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare (MHLW), *Basic Survey on Wage Structure 2018*).

University enrollment rates vary widely by region, as well as by family's economic status and gender (**Indicator D6**, **Figure 1**). In recent years, as admission fees and tuition fees have skyrocketed, young people often use scholarships and other programs to pay for their university education. According to the results of a 2018 survey by the Japan Student Services Organization, one in 2.4 students received a scholarship from this organization. Additionally, one in ten students receive support from their university's own scholarships and other foundations.

Figure 1 : Regional disparities in university enrollment rates



Source: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), *School Basic Survey* (2016)

In Japan today, there are grant-based scholarships that do not require repayment. However, these are often limited to a small number of very high-achieving students, and are therefore out of reach for the average student. Ordinary students take on debts in the form of repayment-based scholarships and are forced to repay large amounts of money after graduation. Even if a student is fortunate enough to obtain a grant-based scholarship, if they have to repeat a year due to their grades or employment circumstanc-

es, they may have their scholarship terminated or may shift to a repayment-based scholarship for additional year.

Whether or not young people are able to receive a higher education and obtain stable employment in the future is strongly affected by the economic and household circumstances of their parents or other caregivers. It is well known that students attend cram schools and university-focused high schools in order to get into prestigious universities, and the competition to get into those high schools begins with famous private elementary schools or even kindergartens. It can be said that the economic disparities between families are at the root of large disparities in later stage of life.

By the time a young person gets a scholarship, graduates from college and begins working in society, they are often already carrying a large debt in exchange for their education. If a student from a rural area is forced to live on their own in an urban area, housing costs will be incurred on top of the tuition repayment. Accordingly, in many cases, people have no choice but to decide where to work based on high starting salaries rather than job satisfaction or the company's working environment (company culture, working hours, etc.).

Cultural Capital

It is not solely for economic reasons that disparities arise. In recent years, inspired by the arguments of sociologist Pierre Bourdieu, the term "cultural capital" has come into common use. For example, unlike the traditional university entrance examination which focuses on memorization, systems like the Admissions Office Examination aim to evaluate a person's character holistically, with an emphasis placed on experiences such as volunteering, extracurricular activities, and living abroad. Whether it is reading, the arts, volunteering or extracurricular activities, the family environment has an impact on young people's activities. There is a difference in the breadth of experience between a young person who has worked a part-time job since high school to help their family make ends meet, and a young person from a culturally affluent family. The disparities among young people that are affected by a family's economic circumstances are not only those that are obvious at a glance, such as lessons and examinations. Even things such as reading and volunteering experience, which might seem unrelated to family circumstances, create disparities between young people from advantaged and disadvantaged backgrounds.

2. Employment and Precarious Work

Job-Hunting

According to the Japan Productivity Center's *Survey on Attitudes to Work* (2001–2013), the proportion of young people who choose a company because it "matches their skills and personality", who proactively choose a company because they "find the work interesting", and who want to do a job that "makes them feel appreciated by society and others," is on the increase. For today's young people, the ideal is to look for a job while taking into account not just the salary, but other factors as well.

The demanding nature of Japan's job-hunting process has become a social problem. Some individuals receive job offers from many companies, while others are overlooked even after applying to a hundred. In the job search process, educational background, qualifications, character, and gender have a significant impact on hiring. Relative to those who start work after junior high or high school, those who go on to vocational school or university have a wider range of options, generally better employment status, and higher annual earnings. However, education costs a great deal of money. Not only does it cost a lot of money to go to high school or university, but it can also be difficult to obtain professional qualifications without attending a vocational (specialized) school, and here again, disparities in parental income have an impact on children's futures.

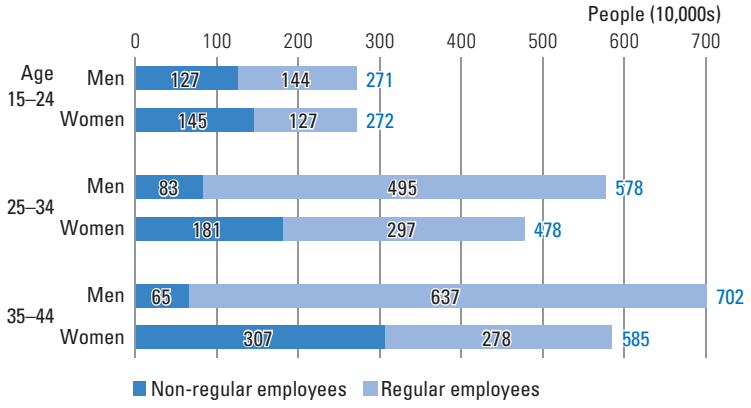
University (undergraduate) enrollment reached an all-time high of 53.3% in 2018, but the flipside to this is phenomenon of the "well-educated working poor." Despite the fact that talented students have gone on to graduate school in Japan and abroad and even earned master's and doctoral degrees, *de facto* age restrictions can make it difficult for them to find jobs at ordinary private companies. According to MEXT (2018), the percentage of those who are not going on to the next stage of education or employment is 5% among high school graduates and 7% among those with undergraduate degrees. In comparison, this figure stands at 9.6% among those with a master's degree and 19% among those with a doctoral degree, showing that many people find themselves in precarious circumstances after completing graduate school.

Even if they remain in academia, which is highly competitive, university faculty positions are limited, and they are often forced to work under precarious employment conditions. Young researchers who have worked hard and even taken on debt should be the ones supporting the Japan of tomorrow. However, there are many cases where, if they take a research position in a normal company, these researchers are employed at a wage that differs little from that of a regular graduate, and so in conjunction with paying back their scholarship, they have difficulty making ends meet. Japan has a strong culture of developing personnel through on-the-job training, based on the practice of batch-hiring new graduates. In recent years, there has been a trend toward preferential treatment for those who have experiences to work straight away, but there remains a strong tradition that values years of service. As such, the treatment of young people who have been with the company for only a few years has been slow to improve, even if they are outstanding personnel with specialized knowledge.

Employment Status

Lately, the "Japanese way" of running companies, centered on lifelong regular employment, has changed dramatically. The system of lifelong employment has weakened, and the number of non-regular jobs has been increasing rapidly. The rate of non-regular employees, which stood at 19.1% in 1989, surpassed 30% for the first time in 2003, increasing to 37.9% by 2018, a total of 21.2 million people. According to 2018 Labor Force Survey, in each age group, the proportion made up of those in non-regular employment was 50.1% for those aged 15–24 (2.72 million) and 25.0% for those aged 25–34 (2.64 million). The rate for these two groups combined is 33.5%, but the figure stands at 28.9% for those aged 35–44 (3.72 million). Among women, the figures were 53.3% for those aged 15–24, 37.9% for 25–34, and 52.5% for 35–44 years old, respectively. Among

Figure 2 : Employment status among young people



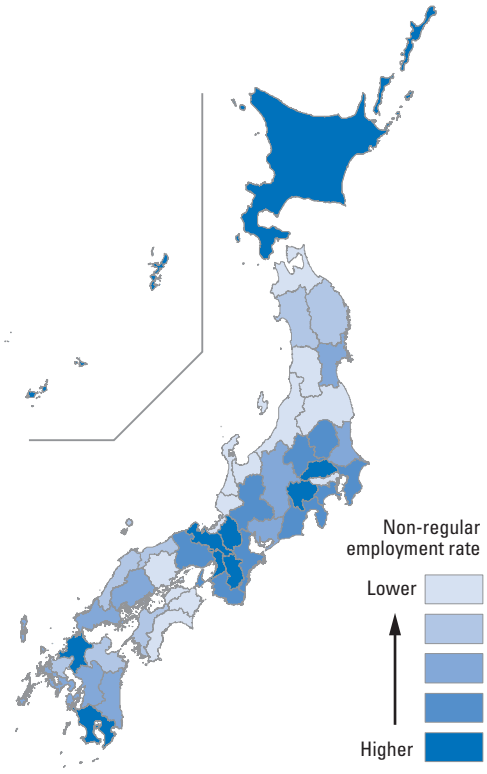
Source: MIC, *2018 Labour Force Survey* (Preliminary Report)

men, they were 46.9% for those aged 15–24, 14.4% for those aged 25–34, and 9.3% for those aged 35–44 years old (**Figure 2**). Among young people in non-regular employment, part-time employees make up the largest group, followed by contract employees, dispatched employees, and temporary and other type of employees (**Figure 3**). The number of Freeters decreased for five years running from its peak of 2.17 million in 2003, standing at 1.8 million from 2010–2013, then dropping to 1.43 million (of which 660,000 were men, and 770,00 were women) by 2018 (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), *2018 Labour Force Survey* (Detailed Tabulation)).

The percentage of non-regular employees is higher among women in every age group. The negative effects of the "male full-time earner model" (the Japanese employment system in which men are employed for life and women are homemaker) are evident in women's employment status. If women with children wish to work, they have to take care of their children and do household chores in addition to their jobs. In the Japanese labor market, it is difficult for such women to find well-paid, responsible, regular employment.

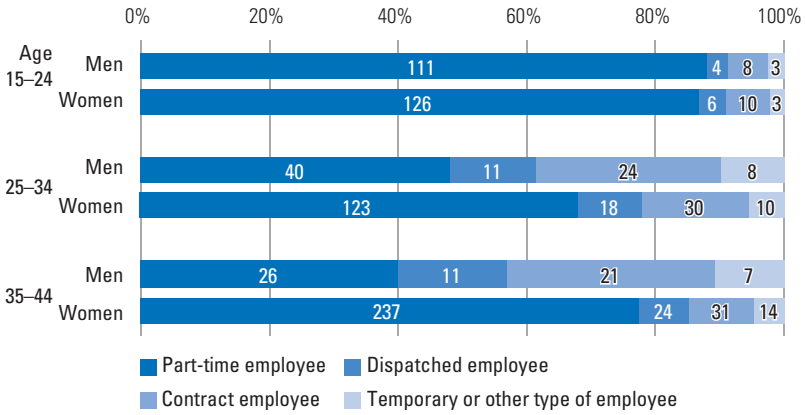
Relatively speaking, job hunting has been seller's market over the past few years, but among those young people who graduated during the "employment ice age" (those born in 1971–81, now 35–44 years old) there are large numbers of non-regular workers, amounting to 650,000 men and 3.07 million women. Among those are people who, having few opportunities for employment upon graduation, were forced to become non-regular workers and were unable to transfer to regular employment, as well as those who stayed

Figure 4 : Non-regular employment rate



Source: MIC, *Labour Force Special Survey*

Figure 3 : Types of non-regular employment among young people (bar graph units: 10,000 of people)



Source: MIC, *2018 Labour Force Survey* (Preliminary Report)

in place even if they did find an opportunity for regular employment, because moving to a regular employment position would mean resetting their years of service to zero and reducing their salary accordingly, with little prospect of promotion due to the predominance of the "bubble generation" (i.e., the large numbers of employees who were hired at the height of Japan's economic bubble in the late 1980s) in positions above them.

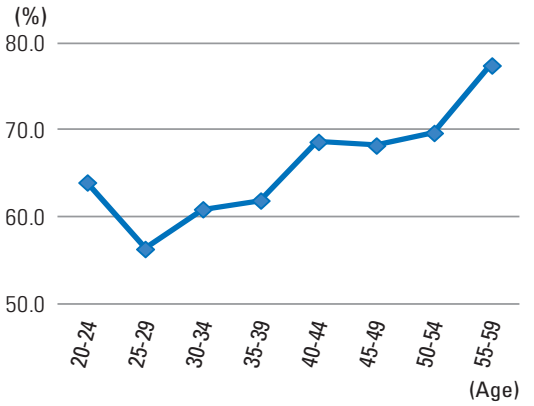
Rates of non-regular employees are low in Tokushima, Yamagata, Toyama, Kagawa, Fukui, Niigata, Fukushima, Tokyo, etc., but high in Okinawa, Kyoto, Nara, Yamanashi, Shiga, Hokkaido, Kagoshima, Osaka, Saitama, Fukuoka, etc. (**Indicator C5**, Figure 4).

Low Wages due to Non-regular Employment

Wage levels for non-regular employees (average monthly wage of 209,400 yen in 2018) are lower than those of regular employees (323,900 yen), creating difficult living conditions for those in non-regular employment. Non-regular employees with particularly low incomes are known as the "working poor." Although there is an indicator in the Cabinet's plan for "Promoting Dynamic Engagement of All Citizens" to reduce the wage gap to the level of European countries, as of 2017, the wage ratio of non-regular employees to regular employees is still just 65.5%. Moreover, in regular employment, salary levels for women are 75.6% of those for men, while in non-regular employment, salary levels for women are 80.9% of those for men (calculated based on Figure 5 by author).

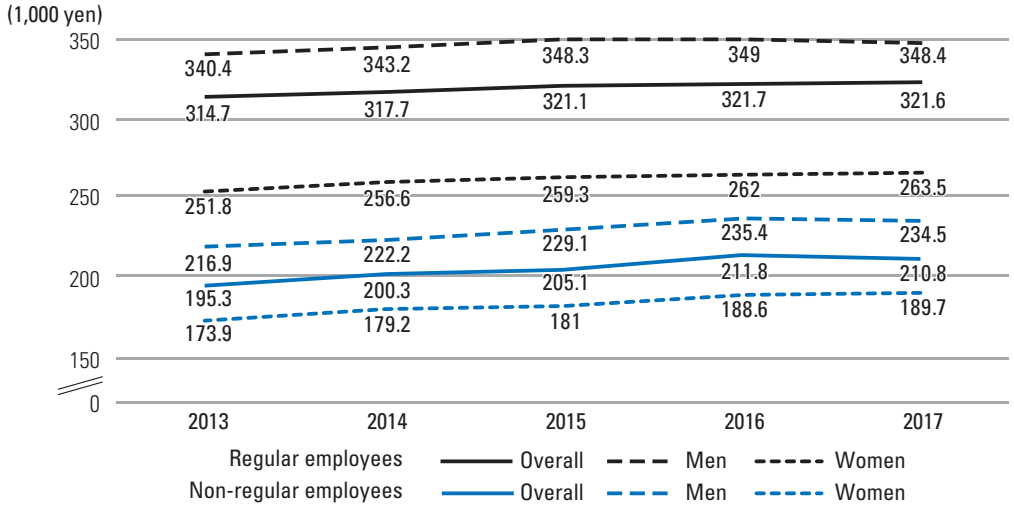
There is currently a very high rate of late in payment of National Health Insurance (NHI) fees and National Pension contributions among the youth population. For the National Pension,

Figure 6 : **Rates of non-payment of National Pension Contributions (FY 2017)**



Source: MHLW *Enrollment and Payment of National Pension Contributions in FY 2017*, (2018)

Figure 5 : **The Income gap between regular and non-regular employees**

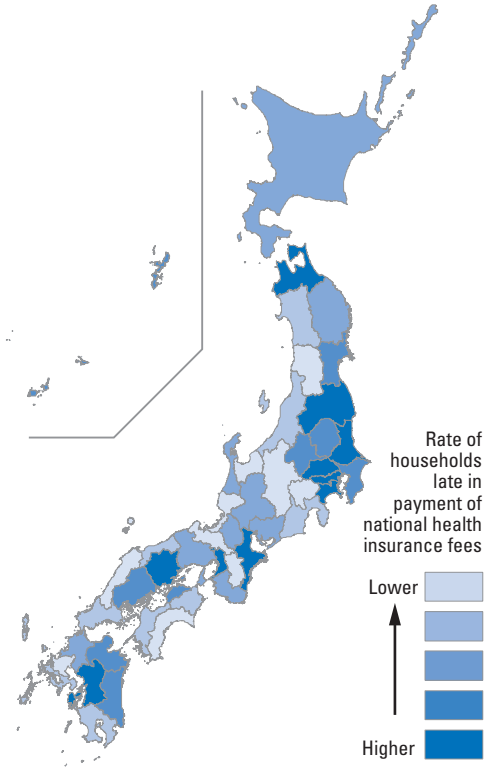


Source: MHLW, *Basic Survey on Wage Structure*

the payment rate is lowest among 25–29-year-olds at 54.87% (**Figure 6**), and there are concerns that they will be excluded from the retirement safety net.

The highest rate of households late in payment of National Health Insurance fees was in Tokyo, followed by Kumamoto, Ibaraki, Mie, Fukushima, Saitama, Aomori, Kanagawa, Okayama, and Osaka, in that order. The lowest was in Shimane, followed by Saga, Kochi, Fukui, Nara, Yamagata, Kyoto, and Toyama (**Indicator B7**, **Figure 7**).

Figure 7 : Rate of households late in payment of national health insurance fees



Source: MHLW, *Financial Status of National Health Insurance (Municipalities) in FY 2016* (2017)

Target 8.5 of the SDGs sets out to achieve equal pay for equal work by 2030. Attempting to improve conditions for part-time, contract, dispatched, temporary and other non-regular employees, the Japanese government is also reforming the way people work. Revisions to the **Labor Contracts Act**, the **Part-time Employment Act** and the **Worker Dispatching Act** have imposed obligations on companies to explain to their non-regular employees any disparities in how they are treated and the reasons why, starting in April 2020 for large enterprises and April 2021 for small and medium-sized enterprises. It will then be determined whether or not it is unreasonable in light of the nature and purpose of the work that regular and non-regular employees do. It is based on the principle that there should be no unreasonable disparities, and that balanced treatment should be provided by taking various factors such as "differences in responsibilities, possibility of transfers, etc.," into consideration. What specific disparities in treatment will be considered illegal will be defined by the guidelines on equal pay for equal work. It is hoped the 2016 draft guidelines' suggestion of "sweeping away the idea of non-regular" in terms of ensuring "balanced and equal treatment in all types of benefits" will receive proper consideration, rather than just being a slogan. While in industries such as logistics, retail, and manufacturing, there are moves to reduce the gap by raising the wages of non-regular employees and hiring them as regular employees, it has been reported that the Japan Post Group has moved to close the gap with non-regular employees by abolishing housing allowances for some regular employees (*Asahi Shimbun*, April 13, 2018). There has also been a dispute in the judicial arena about how to apply this principle, and there have been a number of court rulings concerning the purpose of the individual items that make up employee's wages (for example, the Supreme Court ruling of June 1, 2018). It would be ideal for the goal of equal pay for work of equal value to be achieved by equalizing wages at a higher level.

The system for converting fixed-term contracts to indefinite-term contracts is governed by the revised **Labor Contracts Act** (enacted in 2013), which allows fixed-term employees (non-regular employees) to convert to an indefinite-term contract if they wish to do so after working for the same company for more than five years. However, there is a loophole in the system that allows previous service not to be counted if there is a six-

month gap in employment before the worker is re-employed. With regard to dispatched employees, the period of dispatch was changed to a flat three years under the revised **Act on Dispatched Workers** (enacted in 2015). This means that after three years of temporary employment, dispatch companies are required to request that the client company give the employee a permanent position, or, if that is not possible, to introduce the employee to a new employer, or to hire them on a permanent basis themselves. However, there were cases where rather than becoming a regular employee after three years, the job was switched to another dispatched employee, or the employee was let go before converting to a full-time employee. This shows the precarity of non-regular dispatched employment.

Long Working Hours

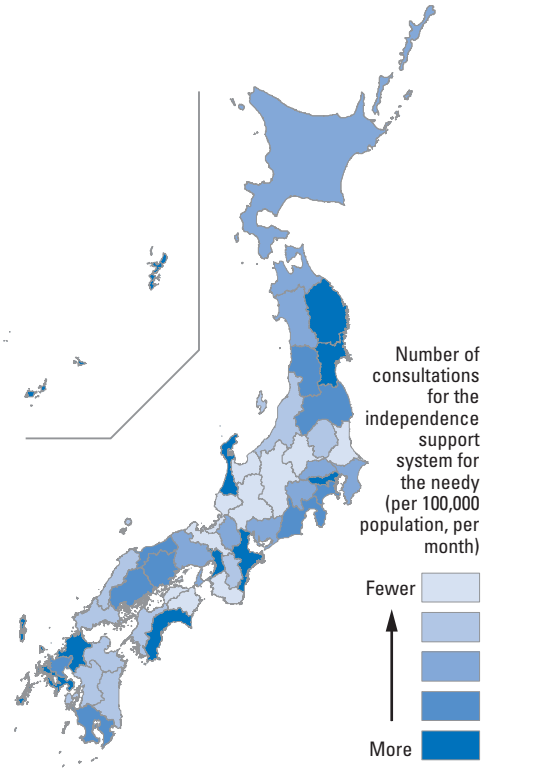
The government's **Work Reform Action Plan** for 2018 also aims to reduce long working hours. Relevant legislation was amended to set maximum overtime limits of "less than 100 hours a month, 80 hours per month averaged over 2–6 months, 240 hours per 3 months, and 720 hours per year," even if it is necessary to exceed these limits on an occasional basis, such as during a busy season. They were also revised to impose imprisonment and fines on companies that make employees work in excess of the limit (effective from April 2019 for large enterprises and April 2020 for small and medium-sized enterprises). At the same time, the revisions mandated that companies should strive towards a system of intervals between work and the start of the next workday.

However, the high limits on overtime hours and the fact that the intervals between workdays are only something to "strive towards" have drawn criticism for "endorsing" the practice of making people work until they are at the brink of death from overwork. Taking the childcare aspect into consideration, the **Basic Plan for Gender Equality** sets a target to reduce the percentage of employees who work for 60 hours or more per week to 5%.

It can be surmised that many cases of depression are caused by harassment and long working hours. However, the 2011 MHLW criteria for workers' compensation regarding overwork (100 hours or more overtime for three consecutive months) are too strict, and just 498 people were certified under these criteria in 2016. Moreover, in the same year, the rate of approval of applications for workers' compensation for death and illness caused by overwork was just 7.7%. According to the White Paper on the Prevention of Death by Overwork (Karoshi) (2018), the occupations with particularly long working hours are education, medicine, and IT. The number of recognized cases of death and illness caused by overwork continues to be around 200 each year, far short of the government's target of zero overwork deaths.

In the past, Japan's seniority system tended to ensure that the longer you worked, the higher

Figure 8 : Number of consultations for the independence support system for the needy



Source: MHLW, *Status of the Independence Support System for the Needy* (FY 2017)

your salary would be and the more security you would receive. While today that system is half-collapsed, young people are still poorly paid and many are still forced to work long hours.

Employment Support for Young People

Youth Support Stations (for 15–39-year-olds) have been set up in 160 locations nationwide, and many young people make use of them (450,000 visitors per year). However, in order to further strengthen support for young people's occupational independence, there is a need to expand the vocational training system for young people and provide occupational guidance and other multifaceted support (such as social education for youth).

The largest number of consultations (per population) for the independence support system for the needy was in Osaka, followed by Kochi, Okinawa, Ishikawa, Miyagi, Nagasaki, Fukuoka, Iwate, Mie, and Tokyo (**Indicator E5**, Figure 8).

3. Social Withdrawal and Isolation

Social Withdrawal

Another social problem is posed by social withdrawal (known as "hikikomori") and NEETs, which stands for "Not in Education, Employment, or Training." As this name suggests, it refers to those who are not working, nor attending school or vocational training. Target 8.6 of the SDGs sets out to "substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training."

According to a recent Cabinet Office survey, the number of people in social withdrawal between the ages of 15–39 has risen to about 696,000. The proportion of these who have been withdrawn for seven years or more stood at 16.9% in 2009, but by 2015, it had risen to 34.7%. Prolonged social withdrawal often stems from non-attendance at school (Cabinet Office, *FY2018 Survey on Living Conditions*). In fact, more than 144,000 elementary and junior high school students were habitually absent from school during the 2017 academic year. In order to reduce the number of young people withdrawing from society, it is also necessary to focus on the problems of working environments and non-attendance at school from early childhood. The KHJ National Federation of Families with Hikikomori Persons in Japan estimates that there are 160,000 people who are in social withdrawal even over the age of 40. Meanwhile, the Cabinet Office's *FY 2018 Survey on Living Conditions* estimates that 613,000 people in middle and old age (40–64 years old) are in social withdrawal (76.6% men, 23.4% women). It was found that more than half of these had been in social withdrawal for seven years or more, confirming that those in social withdrawal are getting older and withdrawing for longer periods.

An issue known as the "80-50 problem" has also been identified. This is a problem in which people in their 40s and 50s, who are in social withdrawal with no income, and their parents, who are in their 70s and 80s and have reached their mental and financial limits, become impoverished and isolated from society.

Isolation among Young People

One question from HSF's *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations* (Aug. 2018) asked how young people feel about loneliness ("When do you feel lonely?"). 38.6% of 15–34-year-olds replied that they feel lonely when alone. This figure is 28.9% among 35–64-year-olds, then falls to 19.5% among those aged 65 and over, half the rate for young people (Figure 9). Moreover, when asked in another question if they had anyone they could talk to about their problems and who they would go to when they were in trouble, the 25.8% of 15–34-year-olds replied "no one", a response that was particularly common among men (**Part 1**, **Chapter 3**, Figure 11). About 40% of 15–34-year-olds replied that they feel lonely when alone, and a quarter experience the loneliness of not having anyone to talk to when they are having trouble.

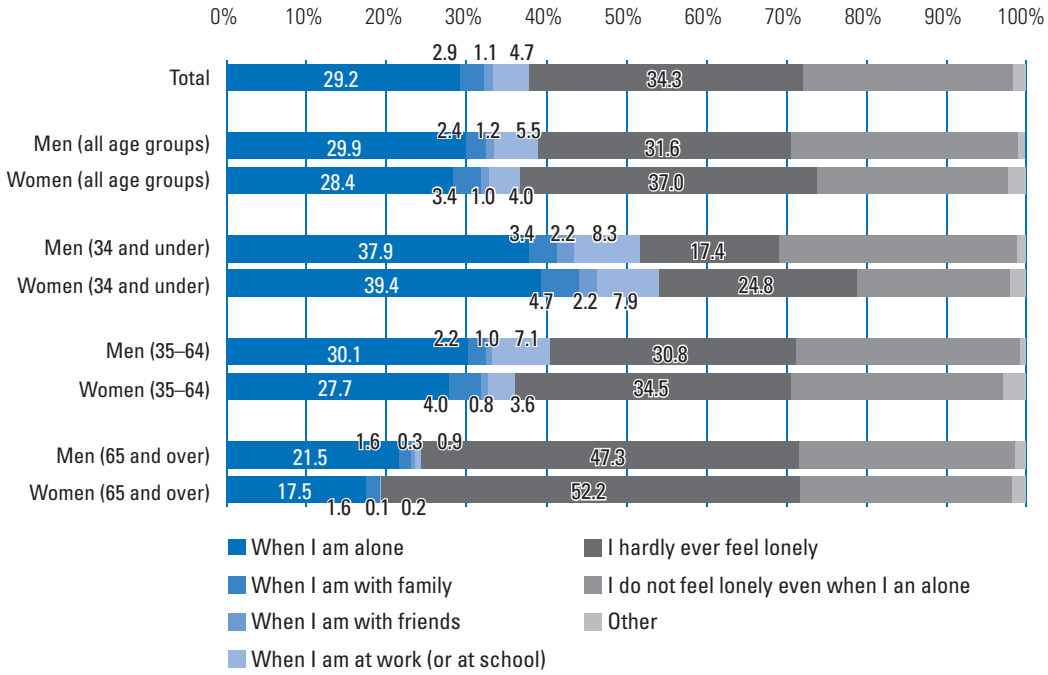
4. Loss of Self-affirmation and Suicide among Young People

Japan is the only country in the developed world where suicide is the leading cause of death among 15–34-year-olds. Although the number of suicides has declined continuously since 2010, the rate for those in their 20s and below remains high, making up 2,596 (12.2%) of the 20,840 deaths by suicide in 2018 (The rate of suicides per 100,000 people declined by 40 percentage points from its peak in 2003 to 2018, but the number of suicides among people in their 20s and below fell by only 30 percentage points from its peak in 2011 to 2018 (National Police Agency Statistics)). An international comparison of deaths by suicide (per 100,000 population) among 15–34-year-olds between 2012 and 2014 gives the following figures: Japan 17.8, United States 13.3, Canada 11.3, France 8.3, Germany 7.7, United Kingdom 6.6, and Italy 4.8. The government too recognizes that this situation is "also serious when looked at in international terms" (2018 White Paper on Suicide Prevention). Sites for suicidal people to interact with each other exist on platforms such as social media and bulletin boards, and they often send messages online saying, "I want to die," or "I want to stop living."

Levels of self-affirmation among Japanese youth are also low by international standards. A 2011 report on the mental and physical health of high school students by Japanese, American, Chinese and Korean research organizations found that expectations for the future are particularly low among Japanese youth. Another question from HSF's *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations* asked, "What are you proud of yourself for?" to which 48.6% of those aged under 35 replied "Nothing" (the figures were 50% for 35–64-year-olds and 44.9% of those aged 65 and over. **Part 1**, **Chapter 3**, Figure 5).

Furthermore, according to the 2016 Suicide

Figure 9 : When do you feel lonely?



Source: Huma Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations* (August 2018)

Awareness Survey (The Nippon Foundation, published in 2017), there are high levels of suicidal ideation (thinking about, considering, or planning suicide) among people in their 20s and 30s, as well as many non-fatal suicide attempts, with 25.4% of respondents in this age group saying that "I have really wanted to commit suicide." The main causes were held to be relationship problems at work, school and home, and mental illness. The situation for women is even more serious, with 37.9% of young women answering that they have seriously wanted to commit suicide in the past. According to the *2016 Survey on Suicide Prevention Measures* (MHLW), the percentage of respondents who answered that they "have wanted to commit suicide" was about the same, at 23.6%. The proportion that replied "good things will happen if I keep on living" stood at 62% among people in their 20s in 2008, but this had fallen to 37% by 2016.

Additionally, low mood and low self-affirmation can lead to depression. Treatment for depression is measured in years, and it is difficult to cure. To prevent suicides by overdose, hospitals tend to limit the amount of medication prescribed at one time, and over-the-counter psychoactive drugs do not exist, so patients must attend hospital regularly. This puts a financial and time burden on young people, and in some cases, they stop attending.

Furthermore, depression and suicide cannot be thought of separately. Seeing a psychiatrist or psychotherapist is only possible for patients with relatively settled and stable depression. If their condition is advanced and severe, it is difficult for them to go to the hospital on their own. Withdrawing from society at home can exacerbate depression and this mental anxiety can lead to the worst possible outcome. The situation has become more complex in recent years with the emergence of so-called "New-Type Depression", in which the symptoms of depression arise while in a stressful or unpleasant setting, such as a workplace or school, but lessen after leaving it. There are many different levels to what we call "depression," so individualized attention is essential.

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

Act on the Promotion of Development and Support for Children and Young People (Enacted 2010)

This is a framework to promote comprehensive support measures, obliging the national government to draw up general guidelines for the support and development of children and young people, and prefectures to work towards plans for children and youth.

Regional networks to support children and young people who have difficulties in smoothly leading their social lives (Regional Support Councils)

Employment Measures Act

This puts in place guidelines for businesses to take appropriate action in terms of securing employment opportunities for young people.

Basic Act on Suicide Prevention (2006)

Government commissions 13 NPOs to provide suicide prevention counseling via social media (2018)

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Sodateage Net

This NPO provides support to young people with no social experience, such as the unemployed, the socially withdrawn, and NEETs, as well as their parents and families. They also work with local communities, governments and businesses to increase the number of stakeholders in "social investment" for solving social problems. Their basic employment training program offers young people the opportunity to set individual challenges based on their personal concerns and wishes, taking the necessary steps to join the workforce through group work-based training programs. Those in the programs learn about the experience of leading collaborative work, business etiquette and other preparations for internships, programming and information technology skills, as well as practical training in the field.

Moyai: Support Centre for Independent Living

This NPO provides consultations about welfare, safe spaces to talk, and independent living support to those in need, the working poor, and the homeless living on the streets, in parks, in shelters and in hospitals.

Suicide Prevention Centers

Meaningful support to prevent suicide is also provided by other NPOs such as Suicide Prevention Centers.

Recommendations

1 Actual improvements in equal pay for equal work

The disparity between non-regular and regular employees is a problem that stems from the structure of the labor market, which is beyond the scope of "personal responsibility" to solve. Precarious employment and low wages not only reduce the incentive to work and lead to sluggish consumption, but can also lead to social problems, such as increases in the unmarried rate.

Although legislation based on the principle of equal pay for equal work will be gradually introduced from April 2020, the government and companies must listen to those non-regular employees (including the self-employed and farmers) who are unable to raise their voice, and make further efforts to improve their wages and treatment, reducing the gap between them and full-time employees as much as possible, including the expansion of employee insurance coverage to non-regular employees.

2 Occupational Independence for Young People

There is a need to expand the vocational training system for young people and enhance occupational guidance and other multifaceted support (such as social education for youth). It is also necessary to expand the Independence Support System for the Needy and the safety net that secures people's livelihoods in the event of unemployment.

(Marimo Karaki)

Chapter 8

Elderly People

The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

SDGs Goal 1 relates to the implementation of nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, achieving sufficient coverage of the poor and the vulnerable (Target 1.3). SDGs Goal 3 sets out to provide access to quality health-care services, and to attain universal health coverage (Target 3.8). Goal 8 (Work) aims for full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men (Target 8.5). Goal 10 (Reducing inequality) sets out to empower all people irrespective of factors such as age, and to promote the social, economic, and political inclusion of all (Target 10.2). Goal 11 (Sustainable cities and human settlements) includes improving transport safety and providing access to safe and sustainable transport systems, with special attention paid to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, such as the elderly (Target 11.2). For Japan, social isolation and poverty among the elderly, as well as equitable access to health and care services, are considered to be among the most important issues facing its efforts to achieve the SDGs.

In many countries, including Japan, the elderly is defined as those aged 65 and older. This is due to the United Nations' report "The Aging of Populations and Its Economic and Social Implications" (1956), which stated that a society in which 7% of the total population is 65 or older is an "aging society." Based on the UN definition of an "aging society," a society is classified as "aged" when the percentage of people aged 65 years and over in the population exceeds 14%, and "super-aged" when the percentage exceeds 21%. As of 1950, Japan's aging rate (the proportion of people aged 65 and over) was less than 5% but in 1970 it exceeded 7% to become an "aging society." Subsequently, in 1994, the aging rate surpassed 14% and the country became an "aged society," and in 2007 it reached 21% to become a "super-aged society."

The speed of population aging can be measured by the number of years it takes for the aging rate to double from 7% to 14% (doubling time). The doubling time was 115 years in France, 85 years in Sweden, and 46 years in the UK. In Japan, by contrast, the aging rate reached 14% in 24 years after 1970, showing that aging is proceeding at a remarkably fast pace. As a result, the current situation is such that neither the social security systems for a super-aged society, nor support from local communities, have been sufficiently developed in time, and there are many challenges to address in terms of human security.

The Current Situation

1. The Rapid Progression of Aging

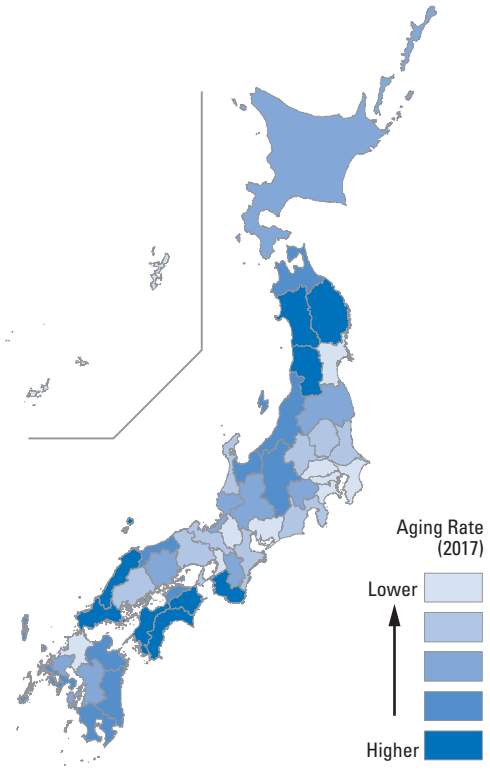
At present, 35.58 million of Japan's total population is aged 65 or over, an aging rate of 28.1% (as of October 1, 2018). According to the government's future projections, the number of people aged 65 and over will continue to increase as

the population declines, and by 2036 aging rate is expected to reach 33.3%, with one in three people classified as elderly.

The number of people aged 65 and over will peak in 2042 and then start to decline, but the aging rate will continue to rise (**Figure 1**). It is estimated that by 2065, the aging rate will be 38.4%, with one in 2.6 people aged 65 or over (2019 Annual Report on the Ageing Society).

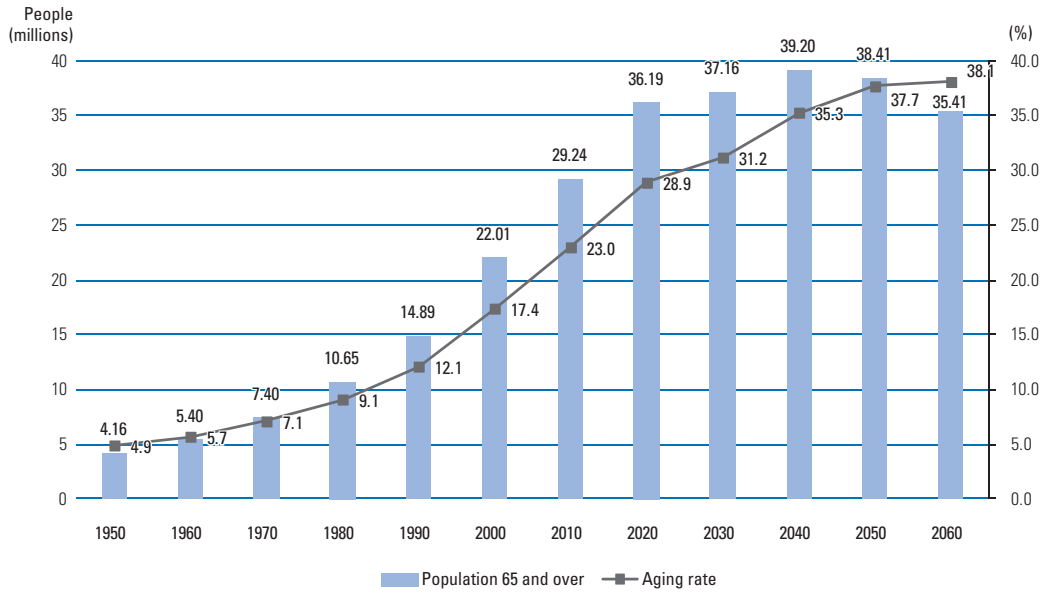
In the **Act on Assurance of Medical Care for Elderly People**, Japan defines those between 65 and 74 years of age as the "early-stage elderly" and those aged 75 years and older as the "late-stage elderly." In 2017, the population aged 65–74 (17.67 million) exceeded the population aged 75 and over (16.90 million), but in 2018, the population aged 75 and over (17.98 million) exceeded the population aged 65–74 (17.6 million) for the first time, and is expected to continue growing thereafter. Japan has the fastest rate of population aging in the world, and the Japan Gerontological Society and the Japan Geriatrics Society have proposed raising the definition of elderly to 75 years of age and above, and designating those aged 65–74 as "semi-elderly."

Figure 2 : Aging rates (2017)



Source: Cabinet Office: 2019 Annual Report on the Ageing Society

Figure 1 : Population aged 65 and over and trends in the aging rate



Source: Cabinet Office: *Annual Report on the Ageing Society*, 2019

In terms of aging rate by prefecture, Akita (36.4%) has the highest percentage of the population aged 65 or over, followed by Kochi (34.8%), and Shimane (34.0%). The prefecture with the lowest rate of aging is Okinawa (21.6%), followed by Tokyo (23.1%) and Aichi (24.9%) (**Figure 2**). In the future, the aging rate will rise in all prefectures, and by 2045 it is expected to reach 50.1% in Akita, with even Tokyo exceeding a rate of 30%.

Trends in the population aged 65 and over indicate that the elderly population in metropolitan areas is also expected to grow rapidly. This is driven by the fact that generations who moved to the cities will stay there as they approach old age. The largest increases in numbers of elderly people from 2015 to 2045 will be in Tokyo (1.11 million), Kanagawa (740,000), and Saitama (530,000) (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2015), and as such, there is an urgent need to address the growth of the elderly population in the Tokyo metropolitan area.

2. Social Isolation of the Elderly

As the aging of Japanese society progresses, the number of elderly people living alone, both in cities and rural villages, is increasing. As a result, the phenomenon of "**solitary deaths**" has come to pose a major social issue. This is a situation where it is too late for someone living alone to access emergency medical care despite health condition worsened suddenly, and where if the worst happens, considerable periods of time pass before they are discovered. Many young people live on their own, but by belonging to some organization, such as the workplace, or by being part of a diverse social network that includes friendships, they are more likely to catch the attention of those around them in an emergency situation. For the elderly, this social network is weakened, and with the shift toward nuclear families, they are prone to becoming isolated upon the death of a spouse. As such, it is difficult for news of them to reach those around them. In particular, urban dwellers with weak neighborhood relationships and elderly people living alone in areas with small populations spend their daily lives facing this danger. The Annual Report on the Ageing Society describes solitary death as "a death that occurs without anyone else present, after which the deceased is left undiscovered for a considerable period of time." In Tokyo's 23 special wards, the number of deaths at home of people aged 65 or older living alone that were considered to be "solitary deaths" was 3,333 in 2017. That number had increased by 1.8 times over the previous decade (Tokyo Medical Examiner's Office). Social isolation not only has a serious impact on the lives of the elderly, but can also deprive them of a dignified death.

Households Comprised of a Single Elderly Person

Social isolation of the elderly is influenced by multi-layered factors, including changes in household composition due to the rise of nuclear families, changes in family and community relations, problems concerning low income, and changes in the medical and nursing care systems. Hisanori Kotsuji, *Analysis of the Perspectives on Social Isolation of Elderly People* (2011), defines social isolation as "a state in which 'connections' have weakened due to changes in community relations, economic conditions, government policies, etc."

The number of people aged 65 and older living alone rose to 5.92 million in 2015, a sharp increase from 1980 (880,000) (**Figure 3**). There was a marked increase in both men and women. The percentage of the population aged 65 and over who live alone increased from 4.3% (198,000) for men and 11.2% (688,000) for women in 1980, to 13.3% (1.924 million) for men and 21.1% for women (4.003 million) in 2015. Previous studies examining elderly people living alone and the onset of isolation have shown that approximately 15–25% of elderly people living alone are isolated, suggesting that there are over 900,000 of them facing the potential risks posed by isolation (Akishige Saito, 2010; Erina

Kobayashi, 2015). As for the impact of social isolation, the White Paper on Crime points out that social isolation of elderly people contributes to theft resulting from deprivation and killings resulting from caregiver fatigue.

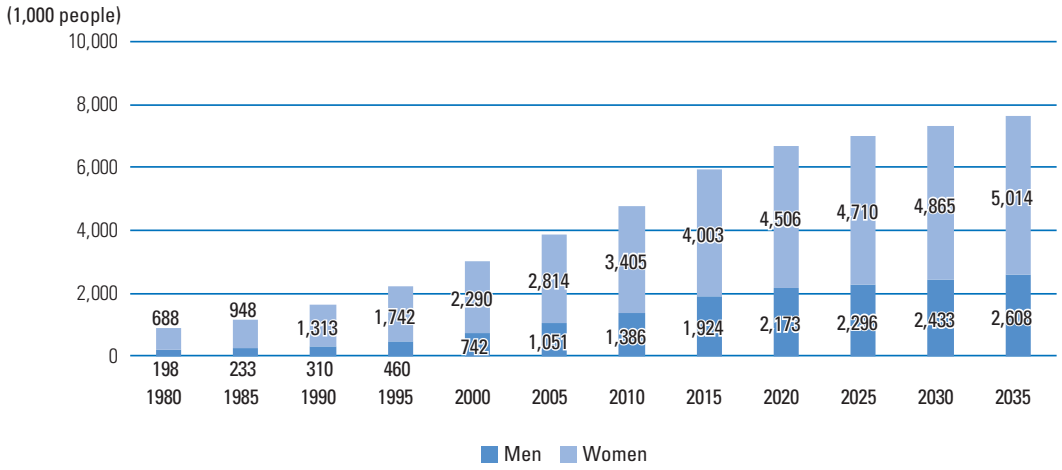
When the characteristic changes of old age, such as decline in physical function, illness, loss of financial capacity, separation from a spouse or other loved ones, and bereavement occur at the same time, it can result in the loss of connections, opportunities for activity, purpose in life and hope. Human security guarantees a dignified way of life tailored to the diversity of individuals, an aspect that cannot be isolated through the quantification of indicators. In order to realize a society in which no one is left behind, we must also focus on the individuality of those deprived of their dignity.

Another issue that could pose a threat to elderly people's everyday lives is the pressing problem of securing daily commodities. In small rural villages and depopulated areas, elderly people are often forced to drive their own cars to purchase goods from distant places. Even city dwellers are now in the habit of using their cars to procure everyday items, as small neighborhood stores where they used to buy food and necessities on a daily basis are being replaced by large stores in the suburbs. As the population ages, it is likely that this kind of consumer behavior will become unfeasible. There is also a need to examine the reality of problematic social issues, such as traffic accidents caused by elderly drivers.

If there is a supermarket nearby, it may be possible to use home delivery, and depending on the item, online shopping can be relied upon. Regular door-to-door sales and the like exist in remote residential areas, but they are by no means sufficiently widespread. It is quite possible that the elderly will benefit from the development of artificial intelligence (AI), the internet of things (IoT) and self-driving technology for cars in the future. However, human communication, which is only possible through in-person delivery, is valuable to elderly people in many ways. It is hoped that the range of home delivery services for the elderly will be expanded and enhanced.

One of the situations in which older people need assistance with their lives is in responding to a major disaster. The frequent occurrence of large-scale natural disasters has revealed that there are many issues requiring special attention, especially in supporting emergency evacuation of the elderly and rebuilding their lives afterwards. The growing experience of government agencies, local governments, NGOs, and volunteers

Figure 3 : Numbers of elderly people aged 65 and over living alone



Source: Population Census until 2015. The figures for 2020 onwards are estimates by the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research.

in supporting them, and the sharing of such experience, are to be welcomed. In some cases, local residents, including the elderly, have set up their own mutual aid organizations to deal with these emergencies. In the Saruhannai district of Yokote City, Akita Prefecture, which is known for its heavy winter snowfall, the Saruhannai Mutual Aid Management Organization has been organized to provide support activities to the elderly for a fee. These include snow removal, shopping, daily shopping support, as well as transportation to and from the hospital. This system is known as the "Yokote Model" (*Mainichi Shimbun*, December 18, 2015).

Social Participation of the Elderly

In addition to protecting life and livelihoods, let us look at protecting human dignity. In order to ensure that older people do not feel isolated, it is essential to build and maintain social networks that allow them to continue interacting with others. There are elderly people who are prone to becoming isolated, with no-one to talk to on a regular basis. In order to maintain their human dignity in terms of emotional well-being, it is extremely important for them to have opportunities to talk with others and share their joys and anxieties.

According to the Cabinet Office's *Annual Report on the Ageing Society*, out of households consisting of a single elderly person, the proportion who speak with family and friends "almost every day" is only 54.3%, while 19.6% replied that they speak to family and friends less than once per week or less.

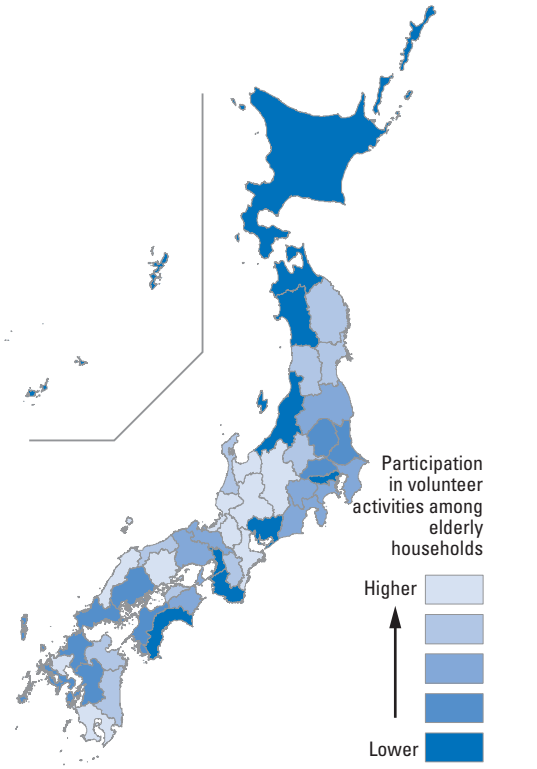
One of the characteristics of modern society is that mandatory retirement, the shift to the nuclear family, and the deaths of spouses have produced an environment in which elderly people's opportunities to interact with others are severely diminished. With a different mindset from when they were of working age, as well as the loss of motivation associated with aging, it is not uncommon for the elderly to become socially withdrawn and eventually develop depression. In addition, when factors such as dementia are added in, it can cause social problems such as wandering, which can result in an increased burden on the people around them.

In terms of older people's interaction with others, Japan has a wider variety of informal social networks than places such as Europe and the United States. Many older people socialize with others through reunions, meetings with former work colleagues, trips, participation in hobby clubs, cultural centers, and gyms. If an individual is motivated and proactive, they can participate in a variety of exchange networks. However, according to the *National Health and Nutrition Survey* (2016), the proportion of those aged 60 and over who participate in social activities (work, volunteer activities, community activities, learning activities, etc.) is only 62.0% for men and 56.0% for women, indicating that around 40% do not participate at all. For those aged 70 and over this proportion exceeds 50%, with rates of social participation declining as people age. According to the Cabinet Office's *Survey on the Economy and Living Environment of the Elderly* (2016), 70% of respondents were "not particularly active" in social activities in the community in which they live, showing little connection to the community through social activities.

Research on older people who are not participating or have no desire to participate in society has shown that these people have lower levels of satisfaction in their lives and livelihoods, go out less often, have less desire to avoid social isolation, and are more likely to become isolated (Institute of Gerontology, the University of Tokyo, 2013). An intervention study also reported that social participation contributes to improved levels of self-perceived health and reduced rates of certification for long-term care[*1]. Prefectural-level rates of participants in volunteer activities, calculated from the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC)'s *Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities* (2016), show substantial regional differences in participation, ranging from 19% to 35%. The highest rate was in Shiga

[*1] Yukinobu Ichida, et al. *Does social participation improve self-rated health in the older population? A quasi-experimental intervention study* (2013).

Figure 4 : **Rates of participation in volunteer activities among elderly households**



Source: MIC, *Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities* (2016)

(35%), followed by Toyama (32%), Nagano (31.5%), Gifu (31.4%), and Okayama (30.9%). The lowest was Kochi (18.9%), followed by Aomori (20.9%), Osaka (21%), Tokyo (21.3%) and Okinawa (21.5%) (Figure 4).

Encouragement of social participation by government and communities is important because social participation can be expected not only to prevent elderly people's isolation, but also to contribute to improving their mental and physical health.

3. Poverty and Work among the Elderly

Poverty and Inequality

Due to changes in household composition, economic conditions, and structural reasons relating to the social security system, there is an increasing number of elderly people who, without a viable livelihood in their old age, are unable to lead a dignified life.

As elderly people retire, the basis of their livelihood changes from work income to pensions and savings. According to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW)'s *Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions* (2016), the total proportion of elderly households (aged 65 and over) who described their self-assessed living conditions as "very difficult" or "somewhat difficult" rose from 37.8% in 1995 to over half (52.0%) in 2016, showing the marked economic uncertainty facing elderly people.

In particular, elderly households have become increasingly polarized between the rich and the poor, and according to the MIC, the poverty rate for households aged 65 and over is as high as 13.6% (2014). Single-person households and woman-headed households have particularly high rates of poverty. This is also consistent with the factors that make people more likely to fall into low income in old age: lack of work income, low pension benefit levels, and not living with their children or younger generations (Mizuho Research Institute, 2008). Studies have shown that in 2016, 27% of the elderly were living on incomes of less than the standard of livelihood protection, a figure that represents over 6.5 million households (Naoyoshi Karakama, *Poverty among the Elderly and its Causes*, 2016).

In terms of recipients of the livelihood protection allowance, elderly households made up over 50% (864,000) of the 1.64 million monthly average of recipients in FY 2017, an increase of 27,000 households on the previous fiscal year. While the number of "single mother households", "households of the disabled and injured", and "other households" decreased, only elderly households showed an increase from the previous fiscal year. Single-person households account for 90% of the elderly household recipients. In addition, there are only a limited number of places for low-income, single elderly people facing housing difficulties to rely on.

This illustrates the need to, as a society, further expand the social safety net for such people.

Job

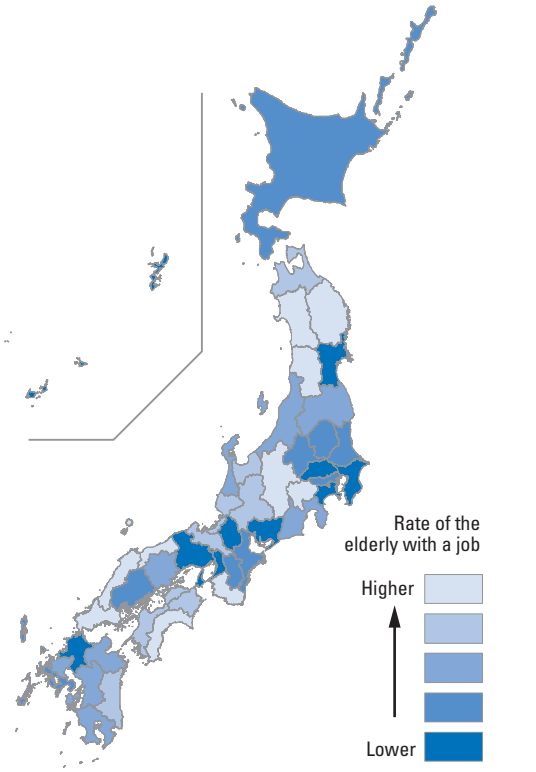
A variety of factors have been identified as causes of poverty among the elderly, including a lack of employment opportunities in old age, no pension payments, and low pension payments due to insufficient wages and time spent in work during people's years of working age. Another urgent task is to guarantee work opportunities for elderly people who want to work. Under the **Act on Stabilization of Employment of Elderly Persons**, people over 60 who are healthy and wish to keep working will be able to work until age 65 (the goal is to increase the employment rate of 60–64-year-olds from 63.6% in 2016 to 67% by 2020).

Of all the prefectures, Kochi (16.9%) had the highest rate of the elderly with a job, followed by Nagano (16.8%), Shimane (16.6%), Yamanashi (15.5%), Wakayama (15.2%), Yamaguchi (15.2%), Akita (14.9%), and Iwate (14.9%). The lowest was in Okinawa (8.5%), followed by Miyagi (11.0%), Shiga (11.1%), Kanagawa (11.1%), Aichi (11.6%), Fukuoka (11.7%), Saitama (11.9%), Hyogo (12.0%), Chiba (12.2%), and Osaka (12.2%) (**Indicator C9**, Figure 5).

The Cabinet Office reports that 65% of elderly people aged 60 and over want to work beyond the age of 65, with 29% of elderly people wanting to continue working as long as their health allows. According to the MIC's *Labour Force Survey* (2018), there were 8.62 million people aged 65 and older in work as of 2018, the 15th consecutive year of growth. Moreover, the government is considering raising the age limit to 70. If realized, it would be possible to respond positively to healthy elderly people's desire to work. Revisions are also being considered to allow those working beyond the age of 70 to raise the age that they start receiving pension benefits from 70 or older, thereby accommodating their various working patterns.

Keeping older people healthy and able to work presents several benefits. It allows them to continue using their knowledge and experience, to stay connected to society, to prevent them from becoming isolated from society, and to ensure a stable economic base for their lives. At the same time, it should not be forgotten there will be an inevitable increase in labor costs for companies, and that it will also limit employment opportunities for young people. It will be necessary to consider multiple perspectives, including elderly people's productivity and desire to work, and the impact on young people's employment.

Figure 5 : **Rates of the elderly with a job**



Source: MIC, *Population Census* (2015)

4. Health Disparities among the Elderly

Healthy Life Expectancy

Average life expectancy in Japan has increased rapidly due to improvements in living conditions and medical advances. At 81.09 years for men and 87.26 years for women (as of 2019), it has some of

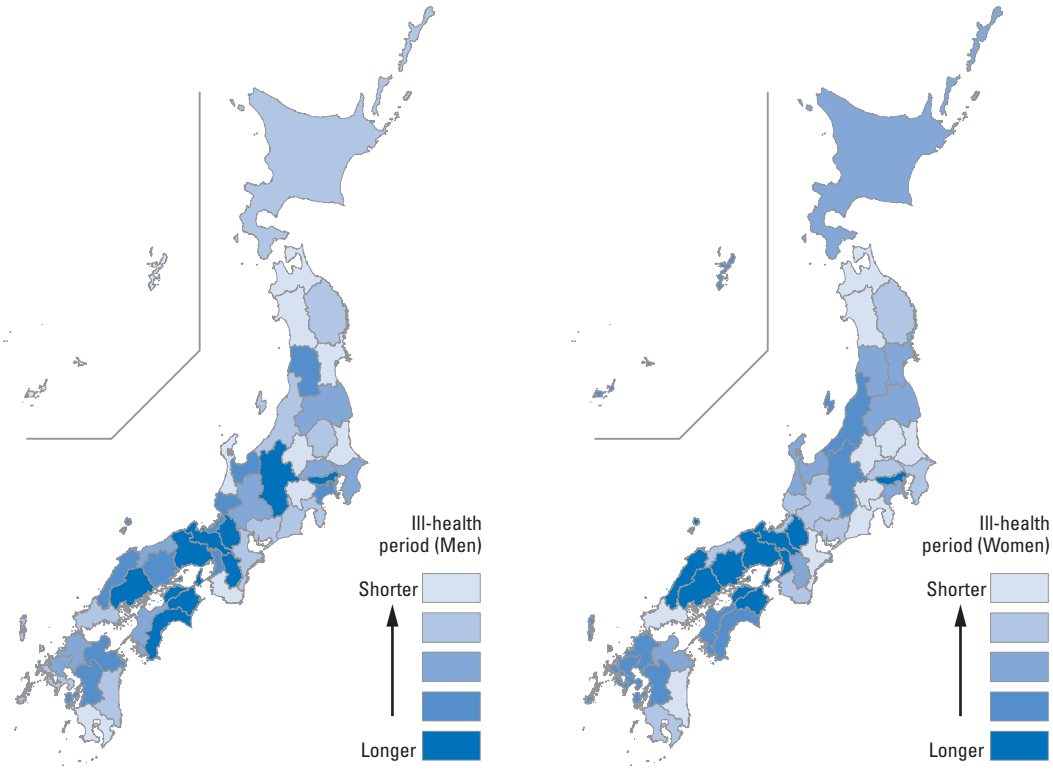
the longest average lifespans in the world. Healthy life expectancy, indicating the period of time that someone can live their life without having their daily activities limited by health problems, is also among the world's highest: 72.14 years for men, and 74.79 years for women in 2016. On the other hand, the difference between average life expectancy and healthy life expectancy has not changed significantly, remaining around 9 years for men and 12.5 years for women. This "ill-health period," in which restrictions are placed on daily activities, can lead to a reduced quality of life for individuals and families, and can also be an impediment to living with dignity.

According to the Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations by HSF (2018), about half (47.1%) of the elderly respondents replied that what they most worried about in life was their health (followed by "post retirement life", at 31.8 %).

The length of time during which people experience restrictions in their daily activities, calculated using the average life expectancy and healthy life expectancy from 2013, varies by prefecture. The differential between the longest and shortest was 3 years for men, and 3.5 years for women. The longer this period of ill health is, the more it reduces the quality of life for older people, and the heavier the burden placed on their families. Increasing healthy life expectancy beyond increases in overall life expectancy is important in terms of maintaining dignified living in old age and reducing the burden on society.

The prefecture with the longest "ill-health period" for men was Kyoto (10 years), followed by Shiga (9.63 years), Tokushima (9.59 years), Nagano (9.43 years), Nara (9.1 years) and Tokyo (9.06 years). That with the shortest was Aomori (6.99 years), followed by Yamanashi, (7.02 years), Okinawa (7.26 years), Ibaraki (7.43 years), Akita (7.51

Figure 6 : Average duration of the ill-health period



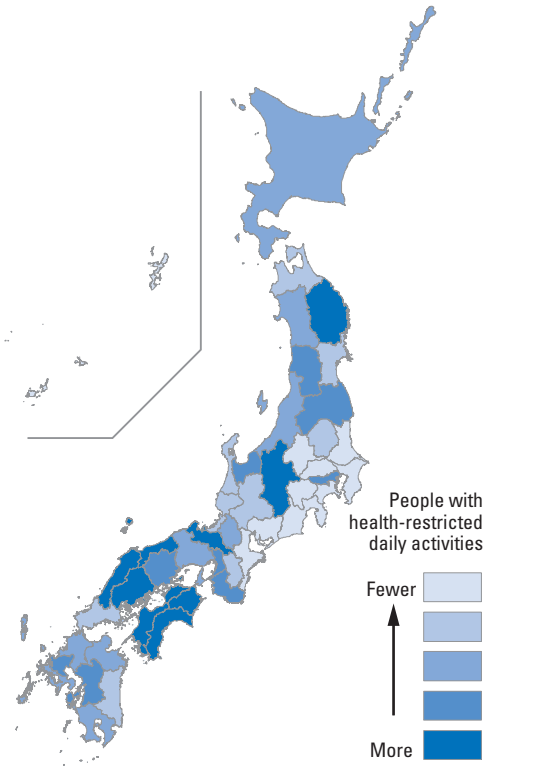
Source: MHLW, *2015 Life Tables by Prefecture*, and MHLW, *Increasing Healthy Life Expectancy and Reducing Health Disparities* (2016; Kumamoto Prefecture only 2013), (Calculated by the author)

years) and Kagoshima (7.63 years). For women, the longest "ill-health period" was in Hiroshima (14.1 years), followed by Kyoto (13.54 years), Osaka (13.44 years), Shimane (13.27 years), Okayama (13.1 years), Shiga (12.94 years) and Tokyo (12.8 years). The shortest was in Akita (10.5 years), followed by Ibaraki (10.57 years), Shizuoka (10.61 years), Gunma (10.64 years), Aomori (10.7 years), and Tochigi (10.83 years) (**Figure 6**).

In 2016, the rate of reported ill-health (the number of people with subjective symptoms of illness or injury in the last few days (excluding those hospitalized) per thousand population) shows that almost half of elderly people (446.0 out of 1000) reported some subjective symptoms relating to their physical condition. The rate of elderly people aged 65 years and older whose daily activities are restricted by their health (the number of people with health problems that affect movement, going out, work, household chores, schoolwork, exercise, etc. (excluding those hospitalized) per thousand population, 2013) was about one in four (258.2 out of 1000), and this proportion increases the higher the age group. Prefectural rates of reported ill-health differed by 100 (people per 1000) between the area with the most and the area with the least, while the rate of people with health-restricted daily activities differed by 30. Those reporting ill health and those whose health restricts their daily activities go out less frequently, are obstructed from participating in social activities, and are also at higher risk for social isolation and dementia.

The number of people with health-restricted daily activities (per thousand population) was highest in Kagawa (146.9), followed by Shimane (145.7), Kyoto (144.9), Tokushima (143.8), and Kochi (142.8). The number was lowest in Okinawa (107.4), followed by Ibaraki (111.3), Gunma (112), Yamanashi (113.2), and Shizuoka (114.5) (**Figure 7**).

Figure 7 : People with health-restricted daily activities



Source: MHLW, *Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions* (2013)

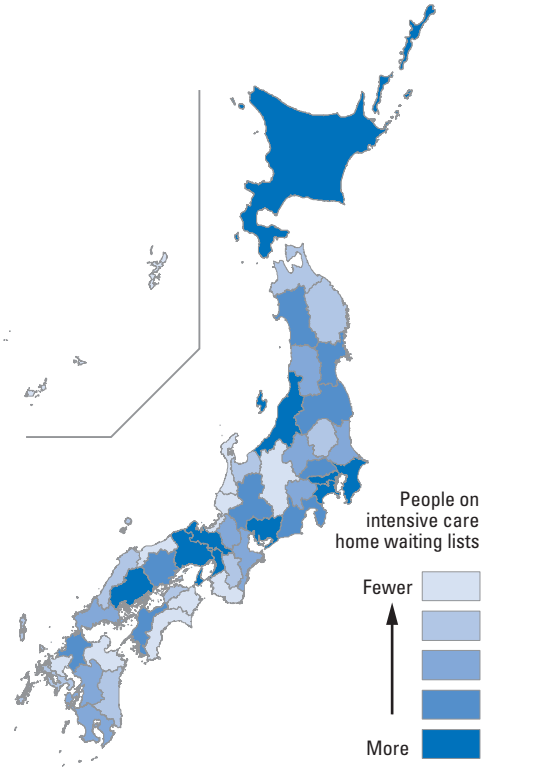
Nursing Care

For the period of life between healthy life expectancy and life expectancy, i.e., the period of time when people need the support of others to lead their daily lives, the introduction of the Long-Term Care Insurance System (2000) made it possible to provide a certain amount of public assistance. The specific nature of nursing care is divided into five levels according to need, but only those who require care levels 3–5 can be admitted to Intensive Care Homes for the Elderly, which are public facilities. Those people with care levels 1–2 are essentially covered by at-home care. The number of people certified as needing long-term care or support under the long-term care insurance system was 6.068 million at the end of FY 2015. This is a 1.5-fold increase over the 10 years since 2005 (MHLW, *Status Report on the Long-term Care Insurance System*).

It goes without saying that the provision of care requires an adequate supply of care workers as well as facilities. When looking at supply and demand for long-term care, although the status of at-home care and private facilities must also

be taken into account, the number of applicants for intensive care, or the number of the waiting lists, is one indicator of how well the demand for long-term care is being met. The number of people waiting to be admitted to intensive care facilities by prefecture is highest in Tokyo (24,815), followed by Kanagawa (16,691), Hyogo (14,983), Hokkaido (12,774), Osaka (12,048), Niigata (11,070), Chiba (10,165) and Aichi (10,006). The lowest number is in Tokushima (1,161), followed by Saga (2,083), Tottori (2,084), Ishikawa (2,244), Fukui (2,292), Nagano (2,343), Kochi (2,584), and Okinawa (2,587) (**Indicator E8**, **Figure 8**).

Figure 8 : Number of elderly people on waiting lists for intensive care homes



Source: MHLW, *Results of the Elderly Support Survey* (2016)

"Elderly care of the elderly" in which elderly people aged 65 and older provide nursing care for other elderly people, has become a serious problem in this field. This includes care between elderly couples, caring between elderly siblings, or an elderly child caring for an even older parent or relative. The *Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions* reports that in over half the households providing at-home nursing care, the situation involves care provided by another elderly person. Although it varies by the needs of the person being cared for, the older they are, the more their physical functions decline, and the greater the physical and mental burden on the caregiver. Then, there is the danger of caregivers themselves becoming unable to lead their lives without the support of others, giving rise to the risk of "falling down together". In addition, measures have been taken to extend the leave period for nursing care by revising the **Childcare and Family Care Leave Act** (2018), and also to increase the number of consultation services at Community Comprehensive Support Centers. However, the number of people who quit their jobs to care for family members exceeds 100,000 each year, showing that many people are unable to balance that care with their work.

A serious problem in the field of nursing care is that of elder abuse. Elder abuse includes physical abuse, such as violence; psychological abuse, such as violent language, ignoring, and harassment; neglect, such as not providing care or using necessary care services; and financial abuse, such as the unauthorized use of an elderly person's property. According to the MHLW, the number of consultations and reports regarding elder abuse has been increasing every year, and the total number of reported cases of abuse by caregivers, care facility workers, and others reached 29,693 in FY 2016 (27,940 cases of abuse by caregivers, and 1,723 cases of abuse by care facility workers and others). Of these, 16,836 cases were identified as abuse (16,384 by caregivers, and 452 by care facility workers and others). It has been reported that the severity of elder abuse increases the greater the level of care that the elderly person requires.

The main reasons given for the occurrence of abuse are caregiver fatigue and stress (27%) and disability or illness on the part of the abuser (21%), which account for about 50% of cases. This illustrates the need to reduce the burden

on caregivers and expand the necessary welfare services. In care facilities, the main reasons related to education, knowledge, and care techniques (67%) and staff stress (24%). It is estimated that there will be a shortage of 380,000 care workers by 2025, and as such, the training of care workers and ongoing education to improve their knowledge and skills is an urgent challenge.

There are also elderly people who, even if they are in distress or unhappy, will continue to suffer abuse without being able to speak up. Older people must be guaranteed a life of dignity, regardless of whether they are receiving care. It is vital that society as a whole works to put in place measures and support to prevent the human rights of elderly people being violated by their families, relatives, and care workers.

Suicide

Japan has one of the highest suicide rates in the developed world, with 20,840 reported in 2018 (MHLW Suicide Statistics). People aged 60 and over account for 40% (8,367 people) of all deaths by suicide. Although the number is declining, the situation remains serious. It is reported that, compared to young people, a much higher proportion of suicidal behavior among the elderly results in a completed suicide. Health-related problems accounted for more than 60% of the "causes and motivations" for suicide among the elderly, followed by financial and livelihood problems, and family problems. Mental illnesses such as depression are also often present in the background. As people age, they are more likely to have chronic lifestyle-related diseases, and more likely to have multiple diseases at the same time. It has also been reported that in more than 90% of cases of elderly suicide, the individual concerned complained of some kind of physical illness, with 85% being treated in hospital (Yoshinori Cho and Rika Nakahara, *Suicide in the Elderly*, 2012).

Ongoing physical pain has been identified as a potential risk factor for triggering depression. Similarly, frequent experience of changes in living situation resulting from the death of a family member or relative, as well as relationship problems in the home, are also risk factors for depression. It is thought that depression leads people to take a pessimistic view of everything and strengthens their inclinations toward suicide. It has also been noted that depressive symptoms in the elderly can be misinterpreted as dementia, and that they may be reluctant to seek medical attention in the first place. Along with efforts to prevent the worsening of depressive symptoms through early diagnosis and treatment, creating a sense of purpose in the lives of the elderly may ultimately help to prevent suicide.

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

Long-Term Care Insurance Act (2000)

Provides those who require nursing and medical care with "benefits pertaining to necessary health and medical services and public aid services so that these people are able to maintain dignity and an independent daily life routine according to each person's own level of abilities" (Article 1)

Act on Stabilization of Employment of Elderly Persons (2013)

Companies will either abolish the mandatory retirement age or hire people until age 65 (raising the age to 70 is under consideration)

Basic Act on Measures for the Aging Society

Basic Principle on Measures for the Aging Society

(1) A fair and vibrant society in which citizens are ensured opportunities to participate in work or other diverse social activities throughout their lives

(2) A society in which citizens are respected as important members throughout their lives and where local communities are formed in the spirit of independence and solidarity

(3) An affluent society where people can live peacefully and with fulfillment throughout their lives

Act for Promoting the Dynamic Engagement of All Citizens

Act on Housing Safety Net (October 2017)

Guidelines of Measures for the Aging Society (2017)

(1) Aim to create an ageless society in which people of all ages can play an active role by making the most of their ambitions and abilities as they wish

(2) To build up regional infrastructure and create local communities where people can imagine old age at any stage of life

(3) Work towards new measures for an aging society made possible by technological innovation

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Across the country, local governments, consumer co-operatives, and other organizations and groups are working to watch over elderly people in isolated situations in order to ensure their safety. Various methods of checking on elderly people living alone that make use of opportunities to visit their homes, such as postal delivery, newspaper delivery, electricity and gas meter reading, and home delivery, are being tested. It is also expected that private security companies and smartphone apps will be used in the future, followed by new technology such as IoT and AI. By the time that the generations accustomed to social media reach old age, there will be wider use of this technology to check people's safety remotely.

Shopping daily commodities is shifting from small neighborhood stores to large suburban stores, which can leave the elderly in a vulnerable situation. Efforts are underway in the form of home delivery, mail-order, door-to-door sales, and shopping support, but these need to be built as part of a wide-ranging and detailed network that can meet the needs of the elderly. Local governments, Co-ops and NPOs around the country are working to prevent elderly people living alone from becoming more emotionally isolated by providing a variety of venues for social interaction.

The section below introduces the pioneering efforts of Fureai COOP, a social welfare corporation based in Utsunomiya City, Tochigi Prefecture, which has been developing support activities for the elderly.

Fureai COOP

Fureai COOP was established in 2006, with the Tochigi Co-op Consumers' Cooperative as its parent organization. Its goal is to create a society that works towards cooperation between people, and where all can live with dignity. Its activities range from nursing care, creating places where children, adults, the elderly, and the disabled can get together, to provide a paid volunteering program called "Otagaisama," which means "reciprocity". The Otagaisama program provides help to people who need it by connecting them with people who want to help.

One example involved a middle-aged man. He had been through many difficulties at home, school, and the workplace, and was unable to find stable employment. At the time, he was living on livelihood protection and almost totally withdrawn, living in an apartment overflowing with garbage. He was also dependent on alcohol, and unable even to walk on his own. He needed assistance such as room cleaning and medical treatment, and a young man who had himself experienced social withdrawal came forward to help with the cleanup, saying that he could understand what the person was going through.

When it became necessary to bring him to the hospital in a wheelchair, an elderly man who was registered with the program came to help. Unfortunately, it was raining that day, but the elderly man brought a raincoat with him so that the man in the wheelchair would not get wet. Moreover, after fixing an electrical problem in the man's apartment, the elderly man then went on to become certified as an electrician. A while later, the facility again received a call from the middle-aged man requesting a home cleaning, but at the time, he was clearly under the influence of alcohol. Even the staff members were annoyed by this selfishness, but on the group's leader saying that "we mustn't abandon him," they went over to help. After many twists and turns, the man was admitted into a relief facility, and is now able to live an active and cheerful life. They say that people can only start to escape from this kind of hardship if they are provided with careful support that not only helps them deal with the problems they are facing at the time, but also takes into account their complex and varied background.

In another case, a woman over the age of 90 was admitted to the Fureai COOP nursing home. The woman was bedridden, unable to stand up or speak with eye contact, and had painful bedsores on her back. As well as healing her bedsores by frequently changing the position she slept in, they continued to make steady efforts to support her, hoping that they would be able to get her to move on her own, even just a little. In the end, she was even able to put her hands on the table and stand up by herself. When supporting older people, there is a tendency to assume that lost abilities cannot return. However, even older people have the ability to recover if they are given the right support. In this case, the staff were also reminded of the importance of nursing care in rehabilitating the elderly.

Fureai COOP also operates a home care service that visits elderly people's homes three times a day, not only to confirm their safety, but also to monitor their daily lives and provide support as needed. A woman in her early 80s with dementia was living with her mentally disabled son, relying solely on livelihood protection and a pension. Although her son was eventually admitted to a hospital, his mother is able to live at home with regular visits by staff, working in partnership with home physicians, health care workers and nurses to support her in daily life. Regular visits to elderly people's homes can help them avoid hazards in their lives.

In addition, a calisthenics program is offered to provide a place for the elderly, who are often isolated, to socialize. Due to the health maintenance aspect, calisthenics seems to present less of a hurdle for older men to participate. They say that these programs can also provide staff with early warning of dishonest business practices that take advantage of elderly people's psychology. This allows them to offer proper advice and take action, preventing people from falling victim to these practices before the situation becomes serious. The case of Fureai COOP speaks eloquently of the importance of steady and persistent support activities that put an arm around elderly people and take into account the circumstances and background of each individual.

Recommendations

People use money to buy various services that they need in their daily lives, or have them provided by the government. But some people cannot get the services they need in these ways, or they fall between the gaps between the networks. It is not enough to simply procure various types of support for elderly people through the market or government. Rather, there is an acute need to build support systems, both in people's consciousness and as social institutions, that are premised on the basic social bond of mutual support. There is no denying that some activities, whether caregiving or the delivery of daily necessities, are valuable precisely because it is nothing but humans that do them. Accordingly, it would be ideal if the elderly were able to live in communities where people support each other.

1 We recommend the expansion of a system in which medical care, long-term nursing care, preventive care, housing, and community-based support for independent daily living are comprehensively ensured, allowing the elderly to live independently in their own communities. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to develop systems of mutual community support that involve social welfare councils, “silver” employment centers for older workers, commissioned welfare volunteers, neighborhood associations, companies, NPOs and co-ops. The example of the Fureai COOP will be of great use as a reference here.

2 In addition, we recommend initiatives to build communities of multi-generational households, such as multi-generational group homes, as a way to prevent the elderly from becoming isolated. In Singapore, urban communities are being created in which diverse generations coexist in part of a housing complex, incorporating a nursing home, nursery school, and kindergarten, as well as spaces where residents meet on a daily basis. Rather than isolating and sheltering the elderly, it is preferable that they be naturally integrated as key members of a multi-generational society, and that the necessary support be provided to them within this context. Japan too can learn from this. For those people still working, trying to change to a more pluralistic lifestyle, such as by building networks through volunteering, community activities, and hobbies, will help in making a smooth transition into retirement.

(Satoshi Sasaki, Naoki Ishihara)

Chapter 9

People with Disabilities

The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

Goal 1 (Poverty) aims to ensure that all vulnerable people, including people with disabilities, have equal access to social protection systems (Target 1.3), land and economic rights (Target 1.4), develop resilience to climate change (Target 1.5). Goal 2 sets out to do the same for food and nutrition (Target 2.1). Goal 4 (Education) aims to provide equal access to education and vocational training for people with disabilities (Target 4.5). Goal 8 (Work) includes achieving full employment of people with disabilities, and equal pay for equal work (Target 8.5). Goal 9 is to build resilient infrastructure accessible to everyone (Target 9.1). Goal 10 (Reducing inequality) requires the empowerment and inclusion of all people, including people with disabilities (Target 10.2), the elimination of discriminatory laws, policies, and practices (Target 10.3), and progressive attainment of greater equality in social security policies (Target 10.4). Goal 11 (human settlement) aims to ensure access to transportation for people with disabilities (Target 11.2), as well as providing safe, inclusive, and accessible green and public spaces (Target 11.7). Goal 17 (Partnerships) includes producing data disaggregated using disability status as an observation group (Target 17.18).

Inclusiveness plays an important role in the relationship between the SDGs and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (below referred to as the Convention on Rights). As all these issues are interrelated, it is imperative to work towards policy that "leaves no one behind," without a bias towards any particular goal or target.

9-1. People with Disabilities as a Group

The Current Situation

1. The Range and Number of People with Disabilities

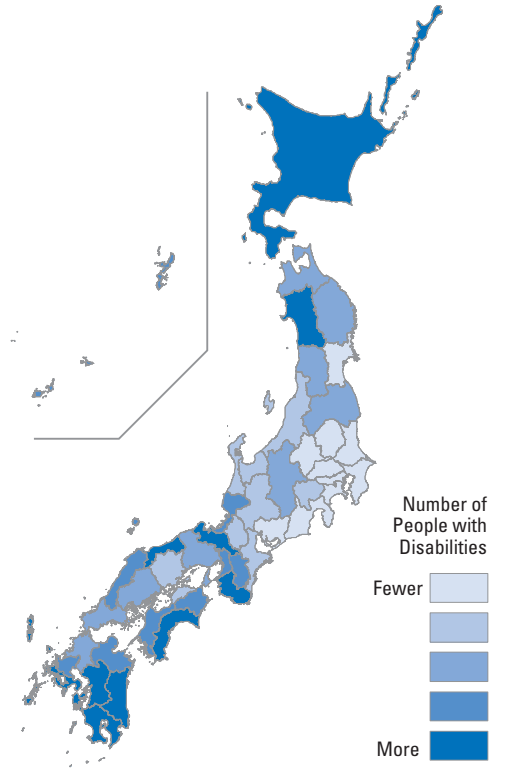
According to the 2019 White Paper for Persons with Disabilities (Estimate), there are 4.36 million people with physical disabilities (including those residing at home and in institutions, as well as children with physical disabilities. The same applies below), 1.082 million people with intellectual disabilities (including children with intellectual disabilities), and 4.193 million people with mental disabilities (Figure 1 shows the breakdown by age for people with disabilities residing at home). In terms of the number of people with disabilities per 1,000 population, the number of people with physical disabilities is 34, the number of people with intellectual disabilities is 9, and the number of people with mental disabilities is 33. Statistically, approximately 7.4% of the population has some form of disability (however, due to

the fact that there are probably many people with disabilities that the government has not identified, and that some people have multiple disabilities, this is not a straightforward total). According to the 2016 National Survey on Persons with Disabilities Residing at Home, 52.5% of all people with disabilities are men and 47.0% are women. Men are also a majority among those aged under 65, accounting for 57.1% to women's 42.6%.

The definition of persons with disabilities on that these estimates are based is in accordance with the **Basic Act for Persons with Disabilities** (Article 2, Paragraph 1), in that it includes three categories of disability: physical, intellectual, and mental. However, the definition is not in line with the social model of disability set out in the Convention on the Rights, in the sense that it does not adequately reflect the definition of social barriers as "items, institutions, practices, ideas, and other things in society that stand as obstacles against persons with disabilities engaging in daily or social life". Article 1 of the Convention on Rights defines persons with disabilities as "those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others."

The prefecture with the highest number of people with disabilities (per 10,000 people) was Okinawa (897), followed by Akita (875), Hokkaido (863), Kyoto (852), and Miyazaki (840). That with the fewest was Chiba (486), followed in order by Saitama (486), Ibaraki (502), Kanagawa (524), and Gunma (535) (**Indicator B8**, Figure 2).

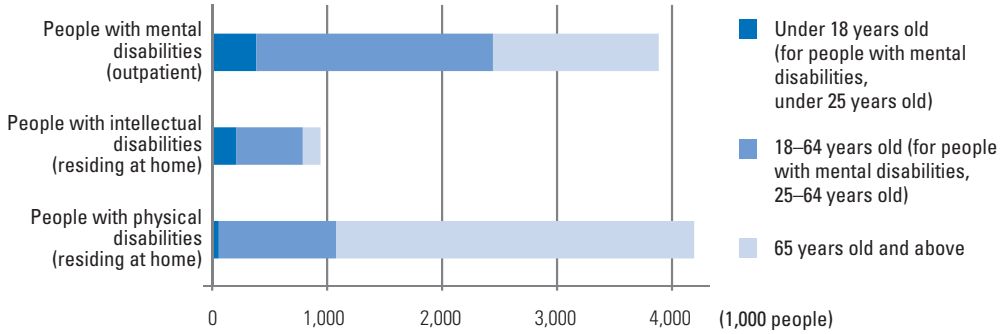
Figure 2 : Number of People with Disabilities by Prefecture



Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW), *Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services*

Internationally, the World Health Organization (WHO)'s 2011 World Report on Disability

Figure 1 : Number of persons with disabilities by age



Source: *Cabinet Office, 2019 Annual Report on Government Measures for Persons with Disabilities*, pp.235-236.

provides the definition underlying its claim that "15% of the world's population lives with some kind of disability." This is a definition of disability based on a questionnaire (short list) that identifies people with disabilities as proposed by a group of researchers set up by the United Nations (the Washington Group, referred to below as the WG). In terms of SDG indicators, 37 out of 146 countries have adopted the WG's definition as of 2018. In order for Japan too to achieve "equality with others", which is the goal of the Convention on Rights and the **Basic Act for Persons with Disabilities**, there is a need to develop internationally comparable data on the number of people with disabilities. As things stand, the number of people with disabilities in Japan is increasing due to the aging of the population, especially those with physical disabilities (Table 1).

2. Daily Life and Social Participation of People with Disabilities

(1) Worthwhile Employment and Economic Independence

In order to promote the employment of people with disabilities, the **Act on Employment Promotion etc. of Persons with Disabilities** (established in 1960) requires private sector companies and public bodies at the local and national level to hire people with disabilities as at least a certain percentage of their full-time employees. If the number of people with disabilities employed does not reach that level, the Minister of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) issues an order to draw up a "plan for hiring persons with disabilities" (Article 46, Paragraph 1) or subsequently, a recommendation for proper implementation of the plan (Article 46, Paragraph 6), and in the case of the private sector companies, the name of a company can be made public if the recommendation is not followed (Article 47). The latest information, that for FY 2017, was published in March 2018, and showed no companies, or national and local governmental bodies having their names disclosed for failing to follow a recommendation. However, even in 2017, only half of companies achieved their hiring targets, so it is difficult to say that progress is being made. Following the passage of the **Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities**, the **Act on Employment Promotion** was amended in April 2018. The amendment prohibits discrimination against persons with disabilities in employment and establishes measures to reduce the obstacles facing people with disabilities in the workplace (mandating the provision of reasonable accommodations). It also includes persons with mental disabilities in the basis for calculating the legally mandated employment target. At the same time as the law was amended, the legally mandated employment target was increased from 2.0% to 2.2% for the private sector, from 2.3% to 2.5% for national and local public bodies, and from 2.2% to 2.4% for the education boards of municipalities and prefectures. Increases of 0.1% to each target by April 2021 have also been decided on, and people with mental disabilities are now included in the legally mandated employment target. However, the actual employment rate of people with disabilities in the private sector is below the legally mandated target (Table 2).

Table 1 : **Number of persons holding disability certificates by age group (annual change) (units: 1,000 people)**

Age (years)	0-9	10-17	18-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-64	65-69	70-	Unknown	Total number
2016	31	37	10	74	98	186	314	331	576	2537	93	4287
2011	40	33	10	57	110	168	323	443	439	2216	25	3864
Year-on-year (%)	77.5	112.1	100.0	129.8	89.1	110.7	97.2	74.7	131.2	114.5	372.0	110.9

Source: MHLW, *2016 National Survey on Persons with Disabilities Residing at Home*

In July 2018, it was noted that the figures for the employment of disabled people by central government agencies and local public bodies were inaccurate. It was found that there were errors in the scope of disabilities covered as well as a lack of thorough verification, such as checking disability certificates or certification from medical institutions. In August of the same year, the MHLW announced the results of a reassessment showing that the *full-time equivalent* number of people with disabilities employed by national government agencies was 3,407.5, a reduction of 3,460 from the report in December of the previous year. Accordingly, the actual employment rate was revised from 2.49% to 1.19%. The figures announced in June 2019 also showed the actual rate of employment in national government agencies to be 1.24%, far short of the legally mandated target of 2.5%.

Employment of people with disabilities has increased in recent years among people with mental disabilities. In terms of company size, many large companies have achieved the targets, but the proportion of small and medium-sized companies to have done so is small. There are also imbalances between different industries, including high rates in welfare and medical care, and low rates in agriculture, forestry, and fishing.

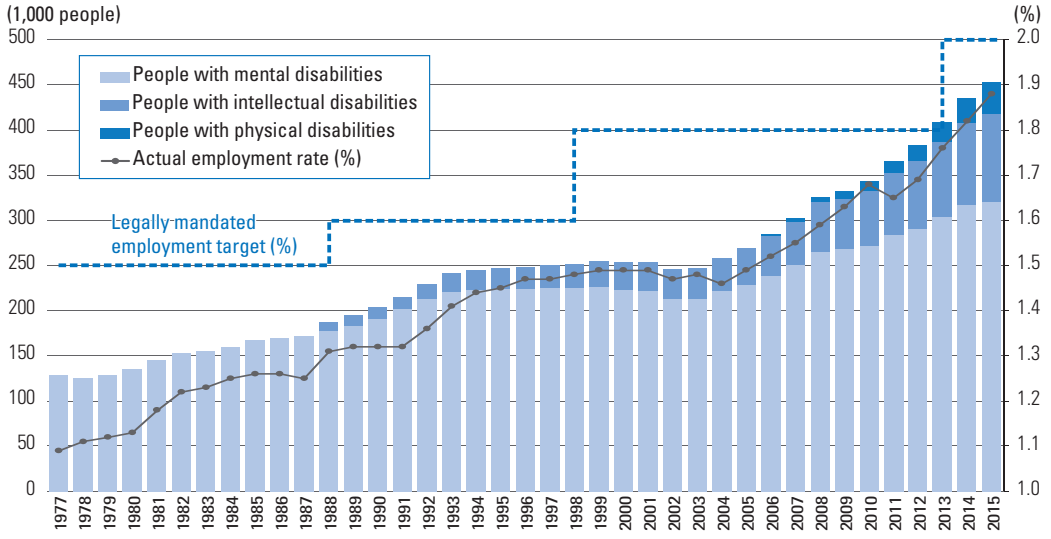
In light of the core objectives of SDGs: "no one left behind," it is necessary to keep a close eye on disparities, not only in terms of type of disability, but also in terms of gender, nationality, and region. However, *Employment Status*

Table 2 : Employment of People with Disabilities in Private Companies (as of June 1, 2017)

Number of workers on which the calculation of the mandated target for the employment of people with disabilities is based	Number of people with disabilities	Actual employment rate	Number of companies that have achieved the mandated employment target / total number of companies	Proportion of companies achieving the target
25,204,720.0	495,795.0 [406,981]	1.97%	45,553/91,024	50.0%
(24,650,200.5)	(474,374.0)	(1.92%)	(43,569/89,359)	(48.8%)

Note: The figures in square brackets represent the actual number of people.
Source: MHLW, *Report on the "Status of Employment of Persons with Disabilities" for 2017*

Figure 3 : Employment of People with Disabilities

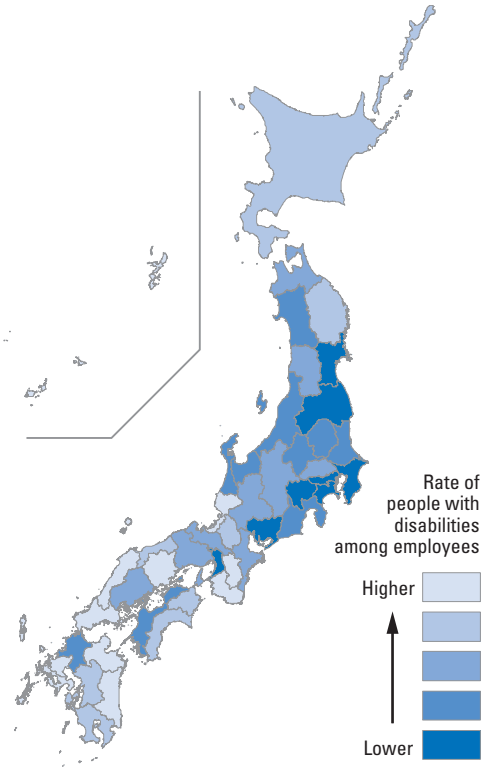


Source: Reference document 1 of the MHLW Employment Security Bureau, Employment Measures for Persons with Disabilities Division, 72nd Labour Policy Council's Disabled Persons Employment Subcommittee

of Persons with Disabilities, the survey for the legally mandated employment target, does not include gender as a question. There is also a need to inspect the questionnaires for business statistics so that analyses based on gender and region can be performed.

The rate of people with disabilities among employees was highest in Nara (2.62%), followed by Yamaguchi (2.56%), Saga (2.54%), Okayama (2.52%) and Oita (2.44%). Tokyo, meanwhile, had the lowest rate (1.88%), followed by Aichi (1.89%), Chiba (1.91%), Osaka (1.92%) and Kanagawa (1.92%) (**Indicator C8**, Figure 4).

Figure 4 : Rate of people with disabilities among employees



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), *Population Census*

From the viewpoint of promoting social participation among people with disabilities, it is especially important to ascertain their situation among the working-age population (aged 15–64). An OECD report (2003) provides an international comparison of the proportion of people with disabilities in the population aged 20–64, as of the late 1990s (OECD, *Transforming Disability into Ability: Policies to Promote Work and Income Security for Disabled People*, 2003). The report does not include Japan, but according to an estimate by Professor Takafumi Uzuhashi of Doshisha University (2006) Japan's rate is considered extremely low, at 3.54% compared to the OECD average of 13.5%. Japan's employment rate for disabled people is similarly low, at 32% compared to the OECD average of 43%. This difference may be due in part to differences in the definition of disability. 14 of the 20 countries compared by the OECD took as their basis the European Community Household Panel survey, which uses two questions: "Do you have a chronic physical or mental health problem, illness or disability?" and "Does the chronic physical or mental health problem, illness or disability that you mentioned limits your daily activities?" This definition of disability may be broader than the Japanese definition of disability, which requires certification of disability and the possession of various types of disability certificates. In Japan, a similar question in a nationwide statistical survey would provide a clue to international comparisons.

(2) Income Security for People with Disabilities

With regard to income security for disabled people, the national basic pension system began in 1986. Pensions became an individual benefit, and a new disability basic pension system was set up. Until then, people born with disabilities were not able to receive their own pensions even after they reached adulthood, and the only way for them to live was to rely on their families' financial support, or to receive livelihood protection. However, the disability basic pension enabled people with disabilities to receive a state pension in their own name. For people who become disabled at the age of 20 or older, participation in the national pension and paying insurance contributions before becoming disabled are requirements for receiving a disability basic

pension. This means that those who do not meet those requirements (for example, if they became disabled after falling into arrears on their contributions while they were a student) will be left without a pension. Receipt of the disability basic pension is subject to periodic examinations to determine the degree of disability, and payments can be suspended if the disability becomes mild. However, some have argued that there are discrepancies between the determinations made by different local governments. The benefits vary depending on the degree of disability, and the reality is that pensions do not cover everything for severely disabled people who need nursing and medical care. Therefore, supporting the employment of people with disabilities is essential not only for their participation in society but also for their economic independence, making it important to have public assistance such as sheltered employment, in which a portion of their wages is subsidized with public funds.

In 2017, 440,000 households (27.3%) of households receiving livelihood protection were headed by people with disabilities or injuries. Even after the establishment of the disability basic pension, livelihood protection has become something that provides important income security for disabled people.

(3) Disability Support Services

The **Act on the Comprehensive Support for the Daily and Social Life of Persons with Disabilities** (enacted April 2013), which established comprehensive welfare services for people with disabilities, remedied the previous system of services compartmentalized by disability type and enabled an inclusive system that also covers children with disabilities. This is a shift away from the idea of welfare services that support only the disabled person concerned, and support for families with disabled members is now included in welfare services. On the other hand, as some municipalities provide their own services, as well as the services uniformly implemented throughout the country under the **Comprehensive Support Act**, the content of the services varies depending on where you live. For example, while some municipalities have systems in place to cover the out-of-pocket portion of medical expenses, many do not. Some local governments, such as Kashiba City in Nara Prefecture, offer benefits for taxi transportation for disabled children as an independent local initiative. The inability to use mobility assistance benefits, one of the welfare services available for people with disabilities, for commuting to school or to work is a major problem. This is an example of regional disparities in disability welfare services, and one that organizations for persons with disabilities are seeking to rectify.

(4) Inclusive Education

The right to compulsory education for all children with disabilities in Japan has been guaranteed since 1979, when schools for children with disabilities were included in compulsory education. Prior to that, more than 10,000 disabled children residing at home were excluded from compulsory education nationwide through deferments and exemptions. While progress has been made in setting up schools for children with disabilities (renamed special-needs schools in 2007), a new problem has arisen in that the children are no longer able to attend regular schools in the area, even if they wanted to. While the overall number of students enrolled in elementary, junior-high, and high schools is decreasing due to the decline in the number of children, the number of students enrolled in special-needs schools is increasing every year, reaching 143,000 in 2018, an increase of 1,000 students from the previous year and the highest number ever recorded (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), *FY 2018 School Basic Survey*). Opinions are divided as to whether the decline in the total number of children has led to wider provision of specialized and generous education to children with disabilities, or whether the number of children excluded from regular schools has increased. The employment rate for

graduates of special-needs high schools is only about 30%. If inclusive education is something that aims for social inclusion, the reality is that Japanese education is not achieving its full potential in this regard.

The Basic School Survey also shows that the college enrollment rate for graduates of special-needs high schools is 3%. The low rate of entry into higher education for people with disabilities is problematic, even when considering differences in learning ability. Recently, some universities have begun to offer entrance exams that take into account the needs of students with disabilities, but whether or not students will be able to receive adequate support after they are admitted is left up to the individual universities to determine.

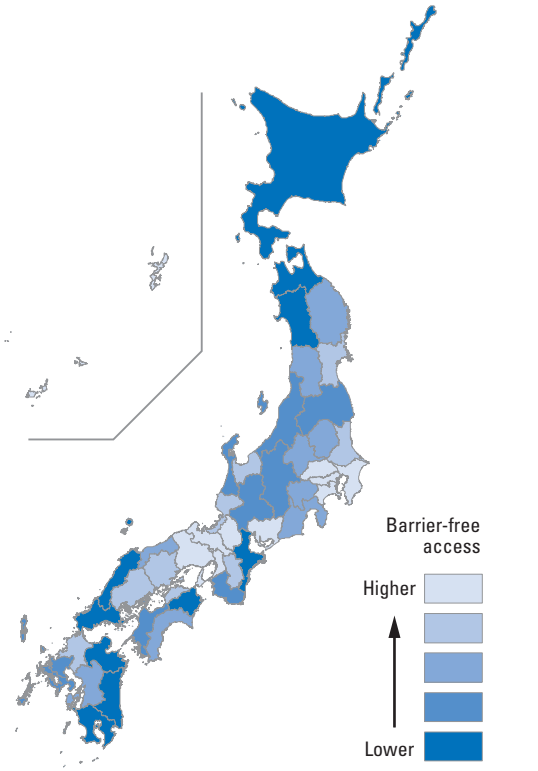
(5) Universal Design

In 2006, the new **Barrier-Free Act** (**Act on Promotion of Smooth Transportation, etc. of Elderly Persons, Disabled Persons**, etc.) came into effect. This was a consolidation of the earlier **Barrier-Free Buildings Act** and the **Barrier-Free Transportation Act** for public transportation. Over this period, meanwhile, the term "universal design" has come into frequent use. The difference is that while barrier-free design aims to eliminate barriers for certain people, such as those with disabilities, universal design is a design method that makes things easy to use for many users to begin with.

In terms of rates of barrier-free access (at railway stations) by prefecture, Oita (10.3%) has the lowest rate, followed in order by Miyazaki (11.8%), Kagoshima (12.9%), Yamaguchi (13.2%), Aomori (15.0%), Akita (15.2%), and Hokkaido (18.7%). Okinawa, which has a very limited number of railway facilities, has the highest rate (100%), followed by Kanagawa (87.1%), Tokyo (86.9%), Osaka (80.5%), Saitama (76.5%), Aichi (70.3%) and Chiba (69.1%) (**Indicator F3**, Figure 5).

The idea of universal design is used to describe the need for people with disabilities to be supported in intangible terms as well as tangible ones. It expresses the importance of guaranteeing information (guaranteeing the right to know) through sign language, written summaries, and subtitles for people with hearing impairments. Universal design has become a concept used not only by people with disabilities, but also by social minorities such as non-native speakers of Japanese and sexual minorities.

Figure 5 : **Rates of barrier-free transportation facilities (at train stations)**



Source: Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT), *Situation on the Elimination of Steps at Railways Stations* (2018)

3. Prohibition of Unfair and Discriminatory Treatment

(1) Discrimination and Prejudice

Under the **Basic Policy on Promoting the Elimination of Discrimination** (2015), the government has worked to eliminate unfair discrimination against persons with disabilities

through initiatives such as holding local forums. As a legal basis for prohibiting discrimination against people with disabilities, the **Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities** (effective April 2016) was an essential part of the ratification of the Convention on Rights. The social model of disability extends social barriers not only to tangible aspects but also to intangible aspects such as prejudice and customs, and since the implementation of the Act, specific cases of discrimination have been reported in many places.

The fact that not making reasonable accommodations at work is now considered discrimination against people with disabilities, and that employers are obliged to eliminate it, is a major step forward for employment policies for people with disabilities. However, reality is that it is not possible to deal with this issue in an integrated manner, because the work that people with disabilities do is not only work governed by labor law, but also sheltered employment, which comes under welfare. No minimum wage is applied to sheltered employment, and most of it pays just a few thousand yen per month.

According to the Cabinet Office's *Public Opinion Survey on People with Disabilities* (data released in September 2017), 83.9% of the respondents said that they recognized some kinds of prejudice or discrimination against people with disabilities. Although this represents a slight improvement from the figure of 89.2% five years ago, it is still extremely high. Given that the Convention on Rights was designed to guarantee the human rights of persons with disabilities, the citizens of the ratifying countries must become able to recognize discrimination and prejudice against persons with disabilities as a human rights issue. It is still often said that despite the passage of the **Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities**, deaf people's suffering remains unchanged. The legal system still includes restrictions of rights on the basis of disability and disqualification clauses (gatekeeping on the basis of qualifications and licenses). Accordingly, issues to address include efforts to reduce or remove the relevant laws and regulations, as well as investigating amendment of the law to prohibit discrimination against people with disabilities on the basis of gender (compound discrimination).

The **Act on the Prevention of Abuse of Persons with Disabilities and Support for Caregivers** came into effect in October 2012. This act states that "the abuse of persons with disabilities undermines their dignity," and aims to "contribute to the protection of the rights and interests of persons with disabilities." It holds that caregivers, welfare facility workers, and employers can be perpetrators of abuse, and sets out an obligation for people to report it. This is exactly the kind of law that ensures the basics of human rights protection. Since this law was enacted, there has been a steady increase in the number of reports of abuse against people with disabilities, and there is a growing awareness in society that abuse constitutes a violation of human rights.

(2) The Eugenic Protection Act (1948–96) and Sterilization

In March 2018, a woman in her 70s filed a lawsuit in Sendai District Court, seeking a state apology and compensation for being forcibly sterilized under the now-defunct Eugenic Protection Act. Since then, men and women with various disabilities have filed similar complaints across Japan. The Eugenic Protection Act (1948–96) was enacted during the post-war baby boom, with the dual purposes of "preventing the birth of defective offspring from the perspective of eugenics" (i.e., preventing the birth of sick or disabled children) and "protecting the life and health of mothers" (i.e., protecting women's ability to conceive and give birth). According to the Japan Federation of Bar Associations, 25,000 people across the country had undergone sterilization, of which 16,500 are said to have been forced to do so. The UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against

Women had recommended that the Japanese government conduct an investigation into forced sterilization, but the government has refused to do so, claiming it was legal under the old law. However, the Sendai lawsuit triggered a flurry of calls for local governments to investigate the situation regarding forced sterilization, and a coalition of ruling and opposition legislators was established in the Diet. In April 2019, a law to provide lump-sum payments to victims was passed by lawmakers and enacted into law.

Between 1966 and 1972 in Hyogo Prefecture, the "Campaign to Prevent the Birth of Unhappy Children" was promoted by the prefecture, making recommendations for prenatal diagnoses. However, it was later discontinued after coming under criticism as a gross violation of the human rights of people with disabilities. The former Eugenic Protection Act was revised in 1996 as the **Maternal Health Act**. However, the prejudice that having a child with a disability is a misfortune remains strong among the population, and in recent years, it has been linked to an increase in abortions resulting from new types of prenatal testing. Deep-seated prejudice will not disappear without increased acceptance of consultation and support for parents who have had disabled children.

(3) People with Mental Disabilities under Long-term Hospitalization

A MHLW study group estimated that there are 200,000 people with mental disabilities who have been hospitalized for a year or more (March 2014). According to *Research on the Social Rehabilitation Needs of People with Mental Disabilities* (October 2003), a survey conducted by the Japan Psychiatric Hospitals Association on behalf of the MHLW, 14.8% were hospitalized for a cumulative total of 5–9 years, 18.8% for 10–19 years, and 29.8% for 20 years or more. According to OECD health data (2012) the average hospital stay in Japan is exceptionally long, at 54.4–79.7 days. The main reason for this is the presence of mentally disabled people who are hospitalized for long periods of time. The OECD also reports that in terms of the number of psychiatric beds per 100,000 people, Japan's figure of 269 is about four times the OECD average of 68. In its analysis of the situation, the OECD states that there has been little progress in the transition to deinstitutionalization in Japanese psychiatric care. It says further reductions in length of stay and inpatient beds should be made so that long-term hospital patients can return to their homes and communities to continue effective treatment. The current lack of progress in social welfare for people with mental disabilities demonstrate the prejudice and closed-off attitude that Japanese society holds towards those with mental disabilities.

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

In terms of the measures relating to people with disabilities, systems and services have been expanded in accordance with the principles of the **Basic Act for Persons with Disabilities**. Under Article 11 of said act, plans for measures targeting people with disabilities are to be established by national and local (prefectural and municipal) governments respectively. The national government is currently implementing the **Fourth Basic Plan for Persons with Disabilities** (2018–2022), with prefectures setting directions and guidelines for overall disability policy, and municipalities defining plans for specific measures for people with disabilities. Following a comprehensive revision of the Basic Law in 2013, efforts have been made to enhance information security, as well as to support people living at home, promote employment, and implement barrier-free services. Municipalities, which are at the forefront of disability policies, have drawn up plans under a variety of names.

The key laws and regulations are as follows:

Act on Employment Promotion etc. of Persons with Disabilities (enacted April 1960)

Act on Promotion of Smooth Transportation, etc. of Elderly Persons, Disabled Persons, etc. ("New Barrier-free Act", enacted October 2006)

Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (signed 2007, ratified February 2014)

Act on the Prevention of Abuse of Persons with Disabilities and Support for Caregivers (enacted October 2012)

Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (revised June 2013)

Act on the Comprehensive Support for the Daily and Social Life of Persons with Disabilities (enacted April 2013)

Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (enacted April 2016)

Act on Lump-sum Payment to Persons Who Underwent Eugenics Surgery, etc. under the Former Eugenic Protection Act (enacted April 2019)

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Japan Council on Independent Living Centers

Since its inception in 1986 as an independent Japan-based movement for people with disabilities to promote independent living, it has grown to 124 member organizations across the country. All branches must meet the following requirements: the representative and executive director must be a person with a disability, at least 51% of the management committee members must be people with disabilities, services must be provided across disability types, and information and rights advocacy must be provided as a basic service.

Its member organizations offer both services and advocacy activities. Services include training and counseling to support independent living for people with disabilities, as well as the dispatch of caregivers. They offer counselling provided by disabled peer counselors and other services necessary for disabled people to live independently. Also available are independent living experience rooms for people living on their own for the first time, wheelchair-accessible vehicle transportation services, and home modifications to accommodate wheelchair living. Special support and assistance are particularly essential for people with severe medical needs, and the intensive home visit care training system that has been introduced to train caregivers is based on the center's proposal. At present, the council is cooperating on spreading independent living centers not only in Japan, but also in other Asian countries. It also dispatches lecturers to international cooperation programs run by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and other organizations, promoting independent living for people with disabilities in developing countries around the world.

Recommendations

1. In order to ensure that the SDGs are fully implemented, we recommend that specific numerical targets be set in addition to those for the employment of people with disabilities, such as for the creation of barrier-free environments.

2. National and local governments must make use of a variety of statistical data for fact-based policy-making and ex-post evaluation. However, the lack of survey data for doing so poses a problem. There is no disability-specific indicator in the SDG indicators, and people with disabilities are mentioned when comparing people in different situations. SDGs Indicator 1.3.1, the "proportion of population covered by social protection systems" calls for comparing subdivided groups such as people with disabilities, women, foreign nationals, etc. To compare people with and without disabilities requires a question in a national survey that identifies people with disabilities. A group of researchers set up by the United Nations (the WG) has adopted a questionnaire in such a manner.

   We recommend that Japan include the WG's questions in the MHLW's Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions, which is carried out every three years. In addition, upgrading the Survey of Difficulties in Daily Activities (Survey on Persons with Disabilities at Home), from its current status as a public opinion survey to a fundamental statistical survey will enable secondary use of individual data based on the **Statistics Act** (Articles 32 and 33). This will open the way for re-aggregation and analysis by government officials and researchers who are involved in policy making.

3. In order to help eliminate compound discrimination, it is necessary to include gender in the questionnaire. Although some business statistics, such as the Survey on the Employment Situation of Persons with Disabilities, do not ask about gender, we recommend that it be included because comparisons within the same survey are important.

(Yukiko Katsumata)

9-2: Persons Affected by Leprosy (Hansen's Disease)

The Current Situation

1. The History and Present of Hansen's Disease

Hansen's Disease (Leprosy) is an infectious disease that causes lesions in the peripheral nerves and skin. It has a long history as a disease, and there are many descriptions in the Old Testament (Leviticus 13:45–46) and other ancient documents that appear to refer to it. However, it has long been difficult to precisely identify the origin of the disease, as all of the references in the ancient literature describe an intractable skin disease that may not necessarily be Hansen's Disease. However, recent findings in molecular biology have shown that its origins can be found in East Africa or the Near East, and that it gradually spread to other regions through population movements associated with migration, colonization, and the slave trade. Since Hansen's Disease was identified with other skin diseases, there are many theories as to the date of its spread to various regions, but it is generally believed to have spread to Europe by 300 BCE, to Japan around the sixth century, and to North and South America within the last 500 years (Shuichi Mori, *Leprosy and Medicine — Part 1, The Spread of Leprosy to Europe*, Leprosy Research Center. National Institute of Infectious Diseases, 2014).

Today, around 210,000 people worldwide are newly diagnosed with the disease each year. The treatment period recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) lasts a maximum of 12 months, so the cases discovered each year represent a new population (**Table 3**). The number of new cases in Japan has been less than 10 per year for the past decade, with the majority being foreign nationals or elderly people (**Table 4**). In addition, as of May 2018, there are 1,338 residents in the 13 sanatoriums across the country that were established nationwide as a result of past segregation policies. All of the residents are cured, and their average age is over 85 years old.

2. Development of Policies for Patients' Livelihoods and Social Participation

At the International Leprosy Conference held in 1897, it was agreed that segregation was the best way to prevent this infectious disease. Then, with the revisions to treaties with Western countries in Meiji era, foreign residents began to live outside of restricted areas in Japan. The existence at the time of more than 30,000 persons affected by leprosy (Hansen's disease) was considered a national disgrace, and it was in this context that policy debate began. This led to the promulgation of Law No. 11, "Matter Concerning the Prevention of Leprosy" in 1907. Initially, the law targeted itinerant patients without financial resources, but with the enactment of the Leprosy Prevention Law of 1931, the policy shifted to one of forced segregation. The implementation of the Law was carried out alongside the joint government and popular movement to isolate all persons affected by leprosy from society, as exemplified by the Leprosy-free Prefectures movement, and eugenics-based measures to "cut off the transmission of undesirable characteristics to the offspring" through sterilization and forced abortion. As such, it can be considered a major turning point towards the denial of subjective rights.

This segregation policy was further strengthened by the passage of the New Leprosy Prevention Act of 1953. During this time, drug therapy trials were underway, and Hansen's Disease was becoming curable. However, the law continued to be in force even after the introduction of drugs that were developed in the 1980s and are still in

Table 3 : Trends in the Detection of New Cases of Leprosy, by WHO Region, 2008–2017

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Africa	29,814	28,935	25,345	20,213	20,599	20,911	18,597	20,004	19,384	20,416
Americas	41,891	40,474	37,740	36,832	36,178	33,084	33,789	28,806	27,356	29,101
Eastern Mediterranean	3,938	4,029	4,080	4,357	4,235	1,680	2,342	2,167	2,834	3,550
South-East Asia	167,505	166,115	156,254	160,132	166,445	155,385	154,834	156,118	163,095	153,487
Western Pacific	5,859	5,243	5,055	5,092	5,400	4,596	4,337	3,645	3,914	4,084
Europe								18	32	33
Total	249,007	244,796	228,474	226,626	232,857	215,656	213,899	210,758	216,615	210,671

Source: WHO, *Weekly Epidemiological Record*, Vol.93, No.35, p.448 (August 2018)

Table 4 : Number of Hansen's Disease Patients in Japan (1993–2019).

	Japanese Nationals		Foreign Nationals		Total
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
1993	7	1	9	1	18
1994	2	7	4	2	15
1995	5	3	9	1	18
1996	4	2	14	4	24
1997	3	3	6	2	14
1998	3	2	2	3	10
1999	6	2	7	4	19
2000	2	4	5	3	14
2001	3	2	5	3	13
2002	4	3	6	3	16
2003	1	0	6	1	8
2004	2	2	7	1	12
2005	0	0	5	1	6
2006	1	0	6	0	7
2007	1	0	10	1	12
2008	2	1	1	3	7
2009	0	0	1	1	2
2010	0	0	4	0	4
2011	1	1	2	1	5
2012	0	0	3	0	3
2013	0	1	2	0	3
2014	1	0	1	3	5
2015	1	0	4	2	7
2016	0	0	3	0	3
2017	0	1	1	0	2

Source: National Institute of Infectious Diseases, *For Hansen's Disease Medical Professionals* (April 12, 2018)

use today. Its repeal had to wait until 1996.

After the repeal of the Leprosy Prevention Law, the **Act on Payment of Compensation to Inmates of Hansen's Disease Sanatorium** was enacted in 2001, followed by the **Act on Promotion of Resolution of Issues Related to Hansen's Disease** in 2009. The former provides for the payment of compensation for mental distress suffered by residents of Hansen's disease sanatoria, while the latter provides for measures including guarantees of housing, medical and nursing care services for residents, the establishment of the National Hansen's Disease Museum for rehabilitating their reputations, the preservation of historical buildings, and awareness-raising activities.

3 Damage Caused by Discrimination and Prejudice

There is no denying that the promotion of segregation policies from the pre-war period fostered a sense of fear and aversion to Hansen's Disease in society. As a result, not only Hansen's Disease patients, but also recovered "ex-patients" and their families were greatly affected in terms of their social life, including schooling, employment, and marriage. In addition, their forced isolation in sanatoria posed an obstacle to their reintegration into the outside world. According to a survey of Hansen's Disease sanatorium residents conducted by the Japan Law Foundation, life satisfaction is lower than that of the general elderly in Japan (Life Satisfaction Index K (LSI-K) score 2.3), rates of treatment for depression (4.3%, average for 77-year-olds surveyed is 3.0%) and insomnia (24.1%, average for those aged 70 and over is 7.8%) are significantly higher, as is the suicide rate (45.2 suicides per 100,000 population; overall average is 20) (Verification Committee Concerning Hansen's Disease Problem, *Report on the Damage Caused by Leprosy Issues*, March 2005). Also, in a survey of residents and discharged residents conducted in March 2016, 77% replied that there is still discrimination and prejudice against the disease (Mainichi Shimbun, *Hansen's Disease 77% of Current and Former Sanitorium Inmates say they "Still Suffer" Discrimination*, March 27 2016).

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

Act on the Abolition of the Leprosy Prevention Law of 1954 (1996)

Supplementary Resolution regarding the Act on the Abolition of the Leprosy Prevention Law (March 1996, Committee on Health and Welfare)

Outline of the Judgment of Unconstitutionality regarding the Hansen's Disease Government Liability Lawsuits (May 2001)

Prime Minister's Statement for Early and Full Resolution of the Hansen's Disease Problem, Government Statement (May 2001)

Enforcement Ordinances for the **Act on Payment of Compensation to Inmates of Hansen's Disease Sanatorium** (MHLW Ministerial Ordinance No. 133 of 2001)

Matters to be confirmed by the Council on Hansen's Disease Issues (December 2001)

Act on Promotion of Resolution of Issues Related to Hansen's Disease (2008)

Prime Minister's Statement (July 2019) on Kumamoto District Court Decision (June 20, 2019) on the Hansen's Disease Government Liability Lawsuits

Recommendations

1. In order to avoid repeating the history of discriminatory legislation unsupported by medical science, there is a need to set out systematically the rights of those affected and conduct awareness-raising activities to reduce discrimination and prejudice on the basis of illness.

2. In Japan, where the average age of the sanatorium residents is over 85, there is an urgent need to preserve history so that the lessons learned can be passed on to the next generation. The history in need of preservation includes not only written records, art, and literary works as "living proof", but also "memory" as represented by oral histories. The average age of the residents suggests that collection of these oral histories will become more difficult with each passing year.

(Masato Seko)

Chapter 10

LGBT People

The 2030 Agenda aims to ensure that the human rights of all people, including LGBT people, are respected and that they are able to achieve their potential in a healthy environment, in dignity and equality. The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

Goal 3 (Health and well-being) aims to achieve universal health coverage (UHC), including access to quality healthcare services and effective essential medicines (Target 3.8). Goal 4 (Education) sets out to substantially increase the proportion of people with the necessary skills for decent jobs (Target 4.4), and also to ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training (Target 4.5). Goal 5 (Gender Equality) involves securing universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights (Target 5.6). Goal 8 (Work) aims to achieve full and productive employment, decent work for all women and men, and equal pay for work of equal value (Target 8.5). Goal 10 (Reducing inequality) aims to achieve the empowerment and inclusion of all (Target 10.2), to secure equal opportunity by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard (Target 10.3), and to introduce social protection and other policies to progressively achieve greater equality (Target 10.4). Goal 16 (Just societies) involves promoting and enforcing non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development (Target 16.b).

"What exists in every corner of the world - embraced and celebrated in some countries - but is illegal in 76?" This question appears in a 2013 video produced by the United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. The answer is being gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT). The previous year, then-Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon delivered the following speech to the Human Rights Council on LGBT issues. "Some say that sexual orientation and gender identity is a sensitive subject. I understand. Like many of my generation, I did not grow up talking about these issues. But I learned to speak out, because lives are at stake."

These days, the debate over LGBT issues in the international community has been heating up. Although the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that all people are born free and equal, LGBT people face great persecution in many countries, including being deprived of homes to live in, jobs, and access to hospitals. Although there are differences in degrees from country to country, LGBT people also face various difficulties in Japan.

Let us address the situation of LGBT people in Japan in relation to SDG Goals 3 (health and well-being), 4 (Education), 8 (Work), and 10/16 (Anti-discrimination laws and regulations) from the perspective of how to ensure that LGBT people are not left out of the "no one left behind" agenda.

The Current Situation

1. What does LGBT Mean?

There are four major components of human sexuality: (1) biological sex, (2) sexual orientation, (3) gender identity, and (4) gender expression.

Four elements of human sexuality:
(1) biological sex
(2) sexual orientation
(3) gender identity
(4) gender expression

To explain each, (1) biological sex represents a chromosomal, gonadal, or anatomical phenomenon that indicates whether a person is biologically "male" or "female." (2) Sexual orientation refers to what gender(s) a person is attracted to. (3) Gender identity is the internal sense of what gender a person is. (4) Gender expression is the expression of "masculinity" or "femininity" as perceived in a person's dress, gestures, and appearance. These four factors combine in different ways for different people, and those differences are sometimes tolerated by society and sometimes made into grounds for exclusion. LGBT refers to people who prone to being marginalized over (2) their sexual orientation and (3) their gender identity.

Sexual Orientation

Regarding sexual orientation, it is tempting to conclude that all humans are attracted to people of the opposite gender. In fact, however, some people are attracted to the same gender, while others are attracted to both genders (or the other person's gender is not important in terms of attraction). Like blood types, these preferences cannot be changed or chosen at will by the individual. The World Health Organization (WHO) declared in 1993 that same-sex love or sexuality "is a natural part of human sexuality and is not, in any sense, something to be treated or corrected." In general, men who are attracted to men are known as "gay," while women who are attracted to women are called "lesbian." The term "bisexual" is used for people who are attracted to both men and women or to whom gender is not important in determining attraction. There are also "asexuals" who do not develop sexual attraction to anyone. The majority of people, who are attracted to the opposite gender, are known as "heterosexual." According to the prevailing theory, people attracted to the same gender (gays, lesbians, and bisexuals, etc.) form roughly 3–5% of the population in any society.

Gender Identity

Most people are "cisgender," meaning that their gender identity is consistent with their biological sex, but there are also "transgender" people, whose gender identity is not consistent with their biological sex. A UN Development Programme report (Discussion Paper: Transgender Health and Human Rights, 2013) estimates the transgender population to be about 0.3% of the adult population (an estimate for the United States). A person who is born as a male and has female gender identity is called a trans woman, while a person who is born as a woman and has male gender identity is called a trans man. Some people have intermediate or fluid gender identity, not either male or female. Trans people are diverse in terms of how they live, with some requiring their hairstyle, clothing, and the way others treat them to be consistent with their gender identity, while others also require a physical gender transition (e.g., hormone therapy or surgery to bring them closer to their desired gender). In Japan, the guidelines for physical gender transition require a diagnosis of "gender identity disorder", but this has drawn criticism for viewing gender transition of a pathology. In 2018, the WHO removed gender identity disorder from the classification of psychiatric disorders in the International Classification of Diseases, renaming it "gender incongruence." It is possible that its medical category will change again in the future.

The term LGBT in this context is an acronym for lesbian, gay and bisexual minorities in terms of sexual orientation and transgender people in terms of gender identity, and is used synonymously with sexual minorities in a narrow sense. However, even if we make the distinction between majority and minority for the sake of convenience, the nature of human sexuality is as diverse as humanity itself.

LGBT people face challenges in relation to the SDGs, including the topics of healthcare and welfare, education, work, and discrimination, but these issues are not necessarily limited to LGBT people.

2. Healthcare and Welfare

Healthcare and welfare services are often difficult for LGBT people to access. Transgender people whose gender or name on their insurance card has not been changed since birth are more likely to be asked to explain their circumstances when they have a medical examination. If they tell the person at the front desk about their gender, anxious to be understood, and are then called in by their full name as listed on the family register, they may be looked at strangely by those around them, as if to say "why is that man wearing women's clothes?" They inevitably become more likely to reduce their medical visits and find clinics outside the areas where they live. Gynecological consultations for trans men and urological consultations for trans women are even more difficult, and without access to screening, their symptoms are prone to progressing. There are also issues such as being placed in wards of the incorrect gender on admission, or being unable to receive aftercare for gender reassignment surgery performed abroad due to the lack of medical resources available in Japan.

People with same-gender partners also endure various anxieties. They may be refused when they ask a doctor to explain their medical condition or treatment plan to their partner, who is to all intents and purposes a family member, or when they ask to have their partner allowed to sign surgery consent forms. They may also be shut out when their partner dies, with legal relatives given priority. The grief caused can be immeasurable.

LGBT people can also be uneasy about accessing welfare services. Many transgender people face employment difficulties and fall into poverty, but even if they become homeless, it is difficult for them to use gender-specific shelters. The domestic and sexual violence that occurs in heterosexual couples also occurs among LGBT people, but the hurdles to receiving counselling are even higher, as they are often not imagined as victims. For those who have not "come out" for fear of prejudice or a lack of understanding, it is not easy to self-disclose and seek support when something goes wrong.

New movements have arisen to change the current situation. In 2017, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) issued a notice stating that trans people's insurance cards may have their commonly used name written on them, with the gender listed on the family register shown on the reverse side. There are also hospitals, clinics, etc. that issue patient identification cards based on the name the patient goes by, and where patients are called in from the waiting room using numbers. A municipal hospital in Yokosuka City has announced a policy that gives same-sex partners visiting rights and the ability to consent to surgery in the same way as legal relatives. In healthcare and welfare, the most important thing should be the will of the individual concerned, and it should be possible to accommodate this. There is a need for these fields to review the way they operate day-to-day operations and to share best practices in anticipation of LGBT needs. The situation of LGBT people in healthcare and welfare is detailed in the booklet "LGBT People, Healthcare and Welfare (Revised Edition)," which is published by the NPO Queer and Women's Resource Center (QWRC) and can be downloaded for free online (http://qwrc.org/2016iryoufukushicmyk.pdf (in Japanese)).

3. Education

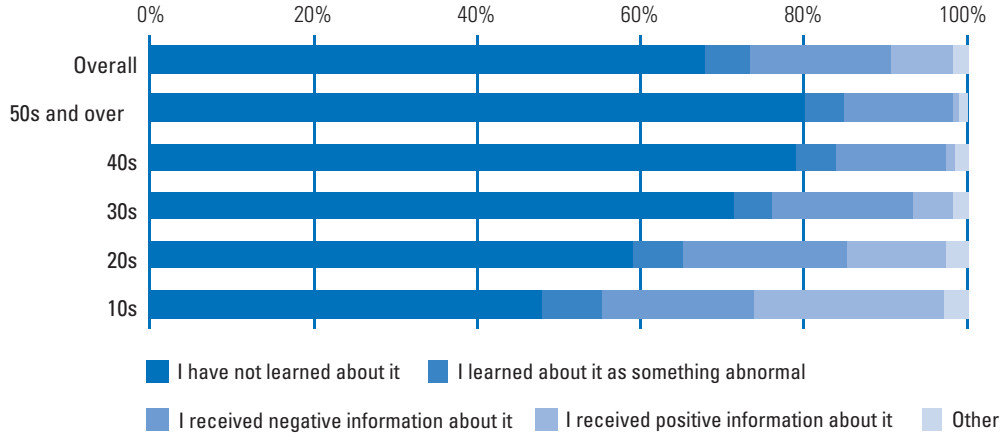
Schools often divide children according to their biological sex, as symbolized by the school uniform of trousers for boys and skirts for girls. Due to not feeling safe in school, LGBT people can miss out on educational opportunities which can lead to lifetimes of low wages and inequality of opportunity. Of the 1,167 people (including adults) diagnosed with gender identity disorder who visited the Gender Clinic at Okayama University Hospital between 1999 and 2010, about 30% of them had been absent from school. The reasons given for this included wearing of school clothes that differed from their gender identity. In addition, a 2013 survey by the private organization "Inochi (Life) Respect White Ribbon Campaign," 80% of trans people assigned male at birth had experience of bullying and violence.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has been working on individualized measures for children with gender identity disorder, by summarizing the content of a nationwide survey of children with gender identity disorder in 2014, issuing a notice in 2015 calling for attentive treatment of children with gender dysphoria, and creating materials on sexual minorities for teachers and staff in 2016. Although still a way off, gradual progress is being made in this field. Students with gender dysphoria are allowed to wear school uniforms and tracksuits of their preferred gender, receive individualized treatment in situations where distinctions between men and women are often made, including toilets, locker rooms, swimming pool classes, and medical examinations.

On the other hand, the diversity of human sexuality is barely taught in schools at all. According to a survey of LGBT people's attitudes (about 15,000 valid respondents, 2016) conducted by Takarazuka University Professor Yasuharu Hidaka, 68% said they had not learned anything about homosexuality in their school education. The rate of those who had not learned anything at all dropped to 48% among LGBT people in their teens, but only 23% had "received positive information" about homosexuality at school (**Figure 1**).

With regard to sexual orientation, the National Curriculum Standards, which were revised in 2016 for the first time in a decade, state only that "at puberty, people become attracted to the opposite sex." In this kind of environment, many LGBT people go through an isolated adolescence without appropriate role models or

Figure 1 : Homosexuality in school education



Source: Yasuharu Hidaka, *Survey on the Self-awareness of LGBT people: REACH Online 2016 for Sexual Minorities* (2016)

empathy from those around them with regard to loving people of the same gender. According to a 2005 survey of 5,731 gay and bisexual men by the above-mentioned Professor Hidaka and others, 65.9% had considered suicide, and 14% reported that they had actually attempted suicide. The authors of this chapter have been working to support LGBT children and young people for more than a decade, and often heard people say that when they realized they were gay, they felt as though they had been plunged into darkness. In a community that recognizes gay and lesbian people only as the butt of jokes and outcasts, it takes quite some time to realize that you yourself are one, to accept it, and live your life. It is not uncommon for adolescents to talk excitedly about love during recess and after school, but children whose sexual orientation differs from the majority are unable to say how they really feel and are isolated in classes where jokes are made about LGBT people.

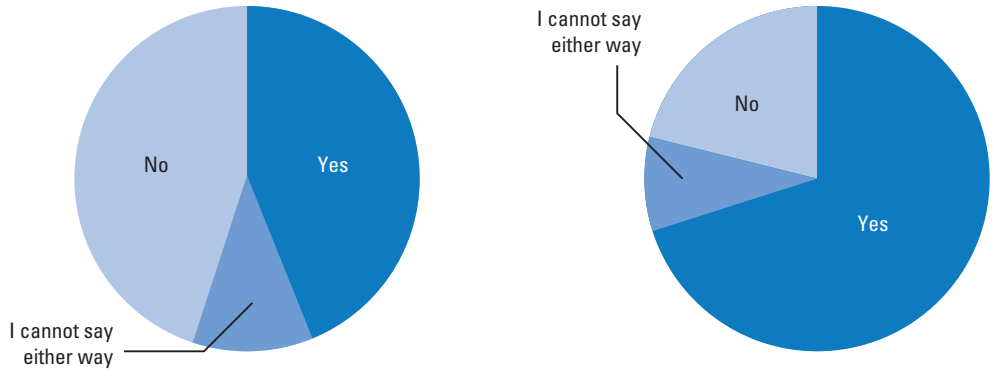
Local governments are making more proactive efforts than the national government. In 2016, the Yodogawa, Abeno, and Miyakojima Wards of Osaka City jointly produced a document for teachers and staff called "Sex is a Gradation," making it available online for free. It also includes ways to create a safe environment for children, such as putting books about LGBT issues in school libraries and putting up posters. In 2018, Oita Prefecture produced and distributed an awareness-raising comic called "The Color of an Apple: Do you know about LGBT?" It is not only LGBT students themselves who require information. Responses from students who have taken classes on the diversity of sexuality have included things like "This class has kept me from hurting my friends." We cannot protect human rights that we do not know about. Education has an important role to play, not only in stopping LGBT people themselves becoming isolated, but also in creating a society where diversity can be transformed into well-being.

4. Work

In employment, LGBT people face many difficulties because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. According to a survey by the NPO Nijiiro (Rainbow) Diversity (2016), about 40% of LGB (lesbian, gay, and bisexual) and about 70% of T (transgender) people encounter difficulties when looking for a job (Figure 2).

Transgender people, for example, have difficulties with the gender section of their resumes and their choice of suits when their self-identified gender does not match that on their family register. There are many cases where the interview

Figure 2 : Have you encountered difficulties when looking for work?



LGB (lesbian, gay, bisexual) and others

T (transgender)

Source: Nijiiro (Rainbow) Diversity Survey (2016)

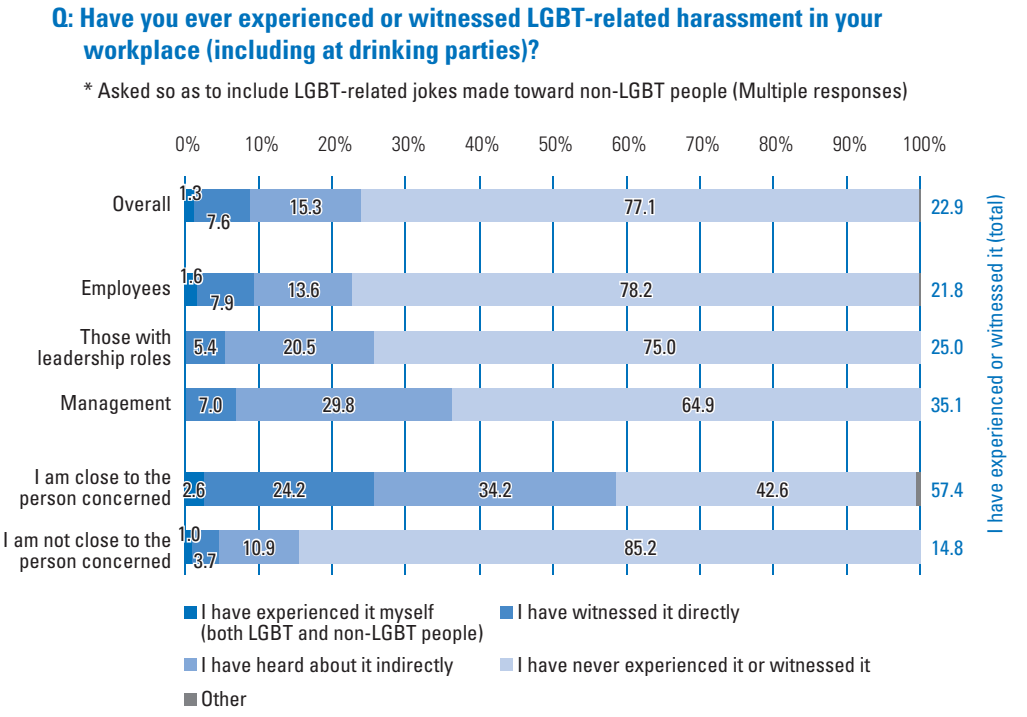
is terminated on the spot when the interviewer points out the discrepancy and are told that the individual is transgender. Even after joining the company, difficulties may arise as to whether trans employees can use gender-segregated facilities and equipment such as bathrooms, uniforms, and changing rooms according to their identified gender, whether they can receive individualized treatment, whether the company understands the financial and physical burdens of hormone treatment and gender reassignment surgery, and whether they can use their paid leave for such.

Meanwhile, difficulties for lesbian, gay, and bisexual people arise due to the fact that, even if their sexual orientation is not disclosed during the interview, they are assumed to be heterosexuals after they join the company. For example, if they have a same-gender partner, they are forced to conceal their existence. This makes them uncomfortable in the workplace due to communication conflicts, they are unable to provide the company with a reason if their partner has an emergency, and their relationship will not be taken into account when transfers are made. They may also face harassment such as homophobic jokes at drinking parties. In addition, there are cases where employees are forced into dismissal after their sexuality becomes known to the company due to "outing," the public exposure of someone's sexuality by a third party.

In a 2016 survey conducted by the Japanese Trade Union Confederation, about 15% of respondents said they had seen or heard of LGBT-related harassment in the workplace, rising to about 60% when the survey was narrowed down to those who considered themselves close to an LGBT person (Figure 3).

The results of this study show that discrimination and harassment regarding LGBT people is taking place unconsciously. In recent years, harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity has come to be known as

Figure 3 : **LGBT harassment in the workplace**



Source: Japanese Trade Union Confederation LGBT Survey (2016)

"SOGI harassment," and there has been a movement underway to eliminate it.

The Olympic Charter prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation. Accordingly, the sourcing code drawn up by the Japanese Olympic Committee in 2017 for the 2020 Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics included a ban on discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity. In the corporate world, LGBT-related measures are making progress. These include explicitly prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity in the work rules, establishing consultation services, reviewing benefits, reconsidering gender-differentiated systems and facilities, and providing internal LGBT-related training. However, the number of companies addressing the issues is still limited. Meanwhile, under the guidelines for the **Law on Power Harassment** (a proposed revision to the **Act on Comprehensive Promotion of Labor Policy Measures**), which was passed in May 2019, companies will be required to take measures against "SOGI harassment" and "outing." It is hoped that efforts to create a workplace environment free of discrimination and harassment will expand further in the future.

5. Non-Discriminatory Laws and Regulations

Article 14 of the Japanese Constitution states that "all of the people are equal under the law and there shall be no discrimination in political, economic or social relations because of race, creed, sex, social status or family origin." However, the Japanese legal system does not consider the existence of LGBT people. For example, there have been cases where people have been unfairly transferred or encouraged to leave their jobs when they told someone at work that they were gay, or where transgender people have been denied access to public services on the grounds that, as their appearance differs from their gender as listed on official documents, they cannot prove their identity. There is no law that provides a basis for redress for such unfair and discriminatory treatment on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity. In 2015, the Parliamentary Group for LGBT Issues was established, and cross-party legislative work began on LGBT-related legislation. However, in 2016, the Liberal Democratic Party established its own "Special Commission on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity," seeking to "promote understanding" rather than prohibit discrimination. As the ruling and opposition parties have been unable to come to an agreement, none has yet been enacted. Effective legislation to prohibit discrimination is still urgently needed.

While same-sex marriage is legal in about 24 countries around the world, this is not the case in Japan, and there are no laws guaranteeing same-sex partnerships. The fact that same-sex couples cannot be legal spouses gives rise to various difficulties. For example, if someone undergoes emergency surgery in a hospital, their partner may be denied access or unable to give consent for surgery because they are not family members. They may also be unable to designate a same-sex partner as a beneficiary of a life insurance policy. Various lawsuits have also arisen. In Osaka Prefecture a man sued when, after the death of his partner of over 40 years, he was denied permission to attend the cremation by the deceased's relatives, and the business that the two of them ran together was forced to close. In Aichi Prefecture, meanwhile, a lawsuit was filed against the fact that same-sex couples cannot receive bereavement benefits under the Benefit System for Crime Victims, which can be received by people who were in *de facto* marital relationships with the deceased so long as they are of the opposite sex.

In this way, same-sex couples are not entitled to the rights that they would naturally receive as legal spouses through marriage if they were heterosexual. And although there are moves to allow same-sex partners to move into public housing, discrimination remains strong. On February 14, 2019, several same-sex couples filed

simultaneous lawsuits against the government in Sapporo, Osaka, Tokyo, and Nagoya, claiming that it is against the Constitution that same-sex couples cannot marry. The "partnership system," which began in Shibuya and Setagaya Wards in Tokyo in 2015, and is in effect in 24 municipalities across the country as of August 2019, is expanding every year (**Table 1**). However, it has no legal force, and a system to legally guarantee same-sex partnerships at the national level is required.

Table 1 : List of municipalities that have introduced a partnership system (as of August 2019)

Prefecture	Municipality (date of introduction)	
Hokkaido	Sapporo	(June 2017)
Ibaraki	Introduced prefecture-wide	(July 2019)
Tochigi	Kanuma	(June 2019)
Gunma	Oizumi	(January 2019)
Chiba	Chiba	(January 2019)
Tokyo	Shibuya	(April 2015)
	Setagaya	(November 2015)
	Nakano	(August 2018)
	Toshima	(April 2019)
	Edogawa	(April 2019)
	Fuchu	(April 2019)
Kanagawa	Yokosuka	(April 2019)
	Odawara	(April 2019)
Mie	Iga	(April 2016)
Osaka	Osaka	(July 2018)
	Sakai	(April 2019)
	Hirakata	(April 2019)
Hyogo	Takarazuka	(June 2016)
Okayama	Soja	(April 2019)
Fukuoka	Fukuoka	(April 2018)
	Kitakyushu	(July 2019)
Kumamoto	Kumamoto	(April 2019)
Miyazaki	Miyazaki	(June 2019)
Okinawa	Naha	(July 2016)

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

With regard to trans people, the 2003 passage of the **Act on Special Cases in Handling Gender for People with Gender Identity Disorder** made it possible for people to change the gender listed in their family register. The five conditions are: "being twenty years of age or older", "not currently married", "not currently having any children who are minors", "having no reproductive glands or a permanent lack of reproductive gland function", and "having a body which appears to have parts that resemble the genital organs of those of opposite sex." Especially since some trans people wish to have surgery and some do not, these can be very difficult conditions for some. In addition, a movement toward de-pathologization is proceeding internationally, so this issue, including the relaxation of these requirements, will be a point of contention in the future.

As regards to the human rights situation of LGBT people in Japan, the number of recommendations that the UN Human Rights Council's periodic reviews issues for Japan increases on each occasion. What is needed first of all is legislation to protect and recognize LGBT people's existence.

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

LGBT people face many difficulties in all areas, including healthcare, welfare, education, and work. The efforts of private organizations are playing an important role in solving these problems.

In education, the NPO ReBit holds classes at educational institutions, municipalities, and businesses across the country to communicate about LGBT issues and the diversity of sexuality.

In the field of work, the NPO Nijiiro Diversity conducts research on the difficulties that LGBT people experience in the workplace and provides training on LGBT issues to companies nationwide. In addition, the voluntary organization "work with Pride" has been evaluating and giving awards to LGBT initiatives since 2016. This includes the PRIDE index, which evaluates the LGBT measures enacted by companies.

The Japan Alliance for LGBT legislation, a coalition of about 80 organizations made up of LGBT people, supporters, and experts from across the country, has compiled a list of difficulties that LGBT people face in various areas, and is working across parties to enact legislation to end discrimination. Various other organizations, such as Good Aging Yells, an NPO that promotes LGBT understanding by building communities and safe spaces, are also active in this area.

Recommendations

In recent years, LGBT awareness has increased, and the visibility of LGBT people in the media has led to greater diversity in the way LGBT and other sexualities are perceived, especially among younger generations. Tokyo Rainbow Pride, one of Japan's largest LGBT-related events, held every year in Tokyo's Shibuya Ward, has seen attendance increase every year, reaching a record 200,000 people in 2019. While there is progress in terms of increased visibility and social acceptance of LGBT people, bullying and harassment of LGBT people in schools and workplaces are still common, and discrimination and prejudice make it difficult for LGBT people to come out, making them a high-risk group for suicide and depression.

In accordance with the SDGs core objective of "no one left behind," we need to attain a society that is inclusive of LGBT people and diverse sexualities, from a human rights perspective. To that end, we would like to make the following recommendations.

1. In education, it is imperative to include LGBT issues in the curriculum guidelines and create venues for learning that recognize diversity.

2. There is a need to implement healthcare and welfare that truly "respects the wishes of the individual" by incorporating the perspectives of gender identity and sexual orientation.

3. For work, it is hoped that the expansion of LGBT-related corporate initiatives will lead to the early establishment of a safe work environment in which people can safely work as themselves.

4. As a foundation for these efforts, it is necessary to put in place a law that provides a basic rule that discrimination against LGBT people is unacceptable, thereby providing relief for those subject to discriminatory treatment, and broadening the common understanding in society that unfair discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity is not allowed.

5. Furthermore, we hope to see the development of a system that provides legal guarantees for same-sex partners and the relaxation of requirements for trans people's gender transition on the family register as soon as possible.

(Soshi Matsuoka, Mameta Endo)

Chapter 11

Disaster Victims

The SDGs regard the increasing frequency and severity of disasters as a challenge to sustainable development. Accordingly, they call on countries to bolster their efforts to improve the resilience of people and human settlements in vulnerable situations, and to reduce the risk of disasters. Goals 11 and 13 relate directly to this chapter, with target 13.1 calling for improved resilience and adaptive capacity to natural disasters. Indicator 13.1.1 measures the number of deaths, missing persons, and direct injuries due to disasters per 100,000 people. Indicators 13.1.2 and 13.1.3 represent number of disaster management strategies adopted at the national and local level, respectively.

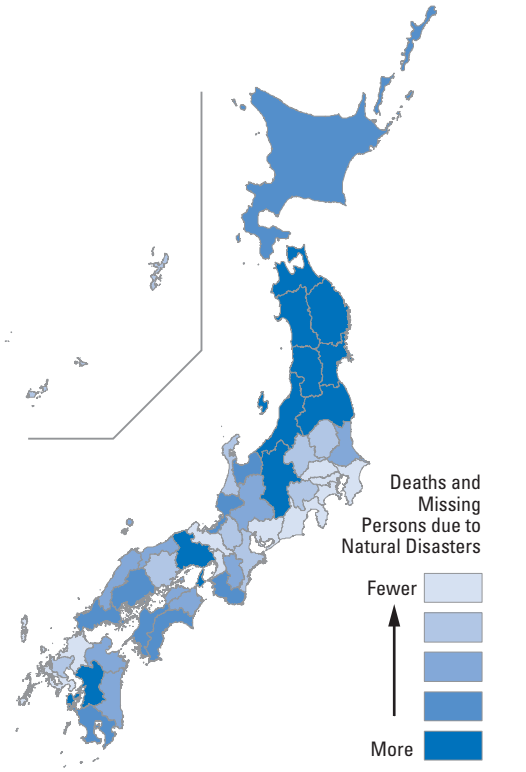
The Current Situation

Disasters and Japan

The term "disaster" refers to the damage done to humans and society by a hazard, such as an earthquake or a fire. Disasters can be broadly divided into two categories according to the nature of the hazard: those caused by natural phenomena and those caused by human activity. This chapter will mainly focus on the victims of recent natural disasters in Japan.

Located in the "Ring of Fire" (the circum-Pacific earthquake belt), as well as a climatic zone marked by heavy rain and snowfall, Japan is one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world. Even looking only at the years since the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake Disaster (the earthquake off the Pacific coast of Tohoku and its accompanying tsunami and nuclear accident), the country has suffered numerous disasters, including the eruption of Mt. Ontake (2014), the Kumamoto earthquake (2016), the Northern Kyushu floods (2017), the Western Japan floods (2018), and the Hokkaido Eastern Iburi earthquake (2018).

Figure 1 : **Number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters (per 100,000 people)**



Source: Cabinet Office, *White Paper on Disaster Management* (1995-2007)

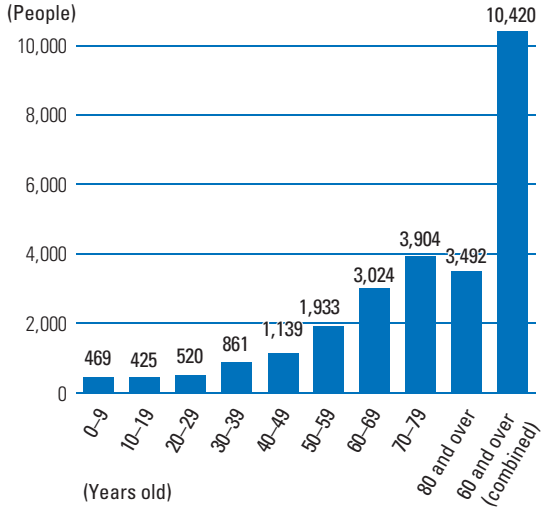
Indicator A10 shows the number of deaths and missing persons (per 100,000 people) due to natural disasters in each prefecture between 1995 and 2016 (**Figure 1**). By prefecture, Miyagi (508.0 people) has the highest figure, followed by Iwate (498.9), Fukushima (216.8), Hyogo (117.1), Akita (19.6), Kumamoto (16.5) and Niigata (14.5). The lowest is Saitama (0.2 people), followed by Aichi (0.3), Osaka (0.4), Kanagawa (0.5), and Tokyo (0.5). Naturally, the areas that have been hit by major disasters in recent years have a high number of victims, but there are also other areas with many victims too. Many disasters are also considered to be cyclical in nature. This is demonstrated by the low number of victims during this period in areas where a Nankai Trough mega-earthquake or Tokyo inland earthquake are predicted to cause extensive damage. Disasters are an issue that needs to be addressed in the long term and with a national perspective that goes beyond the framework of the prefectures.

1. People Requiring Assistance in Disasters and the Uneven Distribution of Disaster Damage

Disasters occur in combination with existing vulnerabilities in society and the place where the hazard arose. Although anyone can be affected by a disaster, the damage tends to be concentrated among certain social groups, such as elderly people and people with disabilities.

The Great East Japan Earthquake caused a great deal of casualties among the elderly for reasons such as the large number of hospitals and care facilities for the elderly located on the coast and the difficulty they had in evacuating on their own. The proportion of elderly people in coastal municipalities in Iwate, Miyagi and Fukushima prefectures was around 20–30% at the time of the disaster, but out of the 15,767 people whose bodies were recovered and age determined, about two-thirds (66.1%, or 10,420) were aged 60 or older (Cabinet Office, *2019 Annual Report on the Ageing Society*, **Figure 2**).

Figure 2 : Number of fatalities by age group in the earthquake off the Pacific coast of Tohoku



Source: Cabinet Office, *2019 Annual Report on the Ageing Society*

Relative to the proportion of the population they make up, casualties were 1.5 times greater for men and 1.3 times greater for women in their 60s, 2.6 times greater for men and 2.0 times greater for women in their 70s, and 3.4 times greater for men and 2.6 times greater for women in their 80s, indicating that casualties rose in each successively higher age group (Cabinet Office, *2012 White Paper on Gender Equality*). In addition, of the 3,701 deaths (as of September 30, 2018) caused by fatigue from living as evacuees or by the aggravation of pre-existing conditions, those aged 66 years and older accounted for 3,279, or 88.6%, of the total number (Cabinet Office, *2019 Annual Report on the Ageing Society*). As shown in **Table 1**, this trend also holds true for victims of recent major disasters.

An uneven distribution of harm can also be identified for people with disabilities. According to a 2011 NHK survey of municipalities affected by the Great East Japan Earthquake, in 27

coastal municipalities in the three prefectures of Iwate, Miyagi and Fukushima, the fatality rate for people with disabilities was 2.06%, compared to 1.03% for all residents. It also reported that 3.5% (1,027) of the disability certificate holders in 13 coastal municipalities in Miyagi Prefecture died, a fatality rate 2.5 times higher than the average for all residents. It is said that people with physical disabilities were particularly severely affected.

Furthermore, there are also differences in casualties between men and women, especially in earthquakes. Women accounted 3,680 of the 6,402 deaths in the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, about 1,000 more than the number of men. In the Great East Japan Earthquake, too, 7,036 (53.6%) of the 13,135 victims were women and 5,971 (45.5%) were men (Cabinet Office, *2011 White Paper on Disaster Management*). Although it has also been noted that women are more likely to die in disasters in other countries, it is necessary to take into account that women make up a high percentage of the elderly population in Japan.

The 1991 *White Paper on Disaster Management* defines people who are most likely to be casualties in a disaster comprehensively as "persons requiring assistance during disasters." In addition to elderly people and people with disabilities, "persons requiring assistance during disasters" include pregnant and nursing mothers, infants (and parents with infants), the sick and injured, and the infirm. In recent years, it has been pointed out that, without proper support, foreign nationals with limited Japanese language skills and tourists with little geographical knowledge are also at high risk of harm in disasters. A private-sector survey highlighted the confusion of foreign nationals staying in Kumamoto and Oita prefectures in dealing with the situation when the Kumamoto earthquake struck, citing the following problems: "There was no earthquake evacuation manual for foreigners" (47.1%) and "I could not figure out where I was supposed to go because I do not understand the language" (41.2%) (Survey Research Center, *Survey on Evacuation Actions Taken by Inbound Foreign Travelers to Japan during the Kumamoto Earthquake*, 2016).

Meanwhile, the **Basic Act on Disaster Management** defines elderly people, people with disabilities, infants, and others as "residents in need of assistance during evacuation," mandating that each municipality prepare a list of these people. According to the Fire and Disaster Management Agency's *Survey of Efforts to Produce Lists of Residents in Need of Assistance during Evacuation* (November 2018), 97.0% (1,687) of the 1,739 municipalities have already drawn up these lists

Table 1 : Casualties among Elderly People (65 and over) in Recent Disasters with more than 100 Deaths and Missing Persons, excluding the Great East Japan Earthquake

Disaster	Number of Deaths and Missing Persons	Number of Elderly People (Aged 65 and over)	Proportion Accounted for by Elderly People (%)
Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake (1995) *1	6,402	3,172	49.5
2006 Heavy Snows	152	99	65.1
2010 Heavy Snows	128	84	65.6
2011 Heavy Snows	132	85	64.4
2012 Heavy Snows	103	69	67.0
Kumamoto Earthquake (2016) *2	249	208 *3	83.5
July 2018 Floods *4	231	136	58.9

*1 In Hyogo Prefecture *2 As of end August 2017. There were 273 people dead or missing as of April 12, 2019, with 24 deaths newly identified as related, but as this number includes those whose ages have not been disclosed, the figures given here are as of the end of August 2017. *3 The 174 disaster-related deaths for Kumamoto Prefecture are of those aged 60 and over (Source: Kumamoto Prefecture). *4 As of September 10, 2018. There were 245 people dead or missing as of January 9, 2019, with 14 deaths newly identified as related, but as this number includes those whose ages have not been disclosed, the figures given here are as of September 10, 2018 (Source: Cabinet Office, Hyogo, Kumamoto, and Oita Prefectures, and Motoyuki Ushiyama et al., *Characteristics of Victims of the 2016 Kumamoto Earthquake*).

(as of June 1, 2018).

However, the reality is that it is up to each local government whether or not to make use of these lists in the event of a disaster. 5 of the 13 cities and towns covered by the **Disaster Relief Act** after the 2018 Northern Osaka Earthquake (including Takatsuki City, where three people died), did not make use of the list at all until the third day after the disaster (*Asahi Shimbun*, June 22, 2018). The national government is also encouraging municipalities to hold discussions on specifics with individuals in need of support and prepare individual evacuation plans, but only about 9.3% (about 670,000) of the approximately 7.14 million people in need of assistance in evacuation nationwide have plans in place. The rate of plan formulation by prefecture (April 2016–November 2017) is also low, with the highest being 33.2% in Niigata (as of April 2016) and the lowest being 0.3% in Okinawa (as of April 2016) (*Asahi Shimbun*, January 1, 2018). In the Mabicho area of Kurashiki City in Okayama Prefecture, which was severely damaged in the Western Japan floods of 2018, 42 of the 51 people who died were in need of assistance, but no individual plans had been formulated (*Asahi Shimbun*, August 8, 2018).

2. Who is Left Behind while Living as Evacuees?

(1) Public Evacuation Centers and People Requiring Assistance during Disasters

When a disaster strikes, evacuation centers are set up and operated by local government employees and others, but those requiring assistance during disasters find themselves in difficult situations even when staying at these centers. For example, evacuation centers are often located in school gymnasiums and classrooms. In such places, the lack of a barrier-free physical environment, sharing living space, and the difficulty of regulating the temperature place a strain on the elderly and other vulnerable groups. Although problems such as unbalanced nutritional value had been pointed out with regard to meals in evacuation centers, at the time of the Kumamoto earthquake, only 15.7% of local governments in Kumamoto Prefecture had taken steps to accommodate elderly people's special dietary needs (Cabinet Office, *FY 2016 Case Study Report on Support for Evacuees in Evacuation Centers*, below referred to as the "Case Study Report"). In addition, evacuation center toilets are often located outside or crowded, making elderly people likely to drink less water and increasing the risk of dehydration. Sanitation is poorly managed, presenting a high risk of infection. It has also been noted that pre-existing diseases can worsen, and dementia can progress. The percentage of people whose health condition worsened during their stay in evacuation centers after the Great East Japan Earthquake is higher among those people requiring assistance during disasters (50%) than among those who do not require assistance (25%) (Cabinet Office, *Report on the Results of the Survey on the Promotion of Comprehensive Measures for Evacuation* (2013), below referred to as the "Report on Survey Results"). Some studies have found that stress during life as an evacuee increases linearly with age.

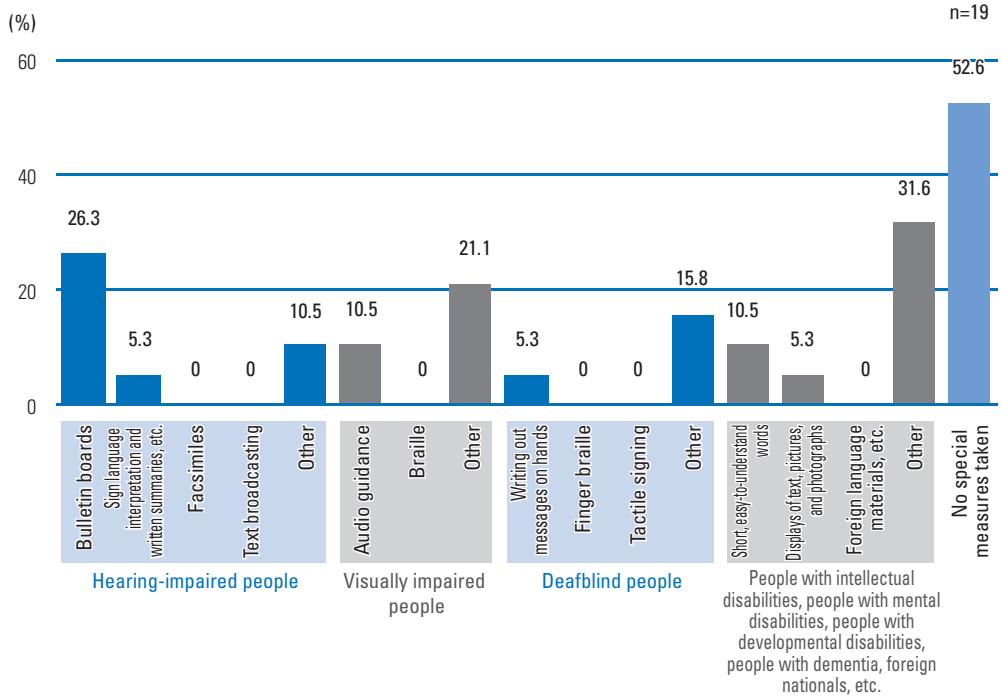
For elderly people with dementia (as well as those people (including children) with mental or intellectual disabilities, autism, etc.) sharing living space often gives rise to friction with those around them. In addition, the visually impaired and hearing impaired may not receive sufficient information about supplies, food, and other assistance. A survey of Kumamoto Prefecture municipalities conducted by the Cabinet Office following the Kumamoto earthquake cited bulletin boards (26.3%), sign language interpreters, written summaries, etc. (5.3%), audio guidance (10.5%), and handwritten text (5.3%) as ways of providing information to people with disabilities in evacuation centers, but as can be seen, such provision was limited. (**Figure 3**). On the other hand, some evacuation centers successfully responded to the needs of the hearing impaired by providing support through volunteer sign language inter-

preters and by sharing information in writing.

After the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, "welfare evacuation centers" were systematically established as evacuation centers that can provide special care to people requiring assistance during disasters, but many issues with these have been identified. According to the Cabinet Office survey, 66.9% of municipalities across the country reported that they had informed their residents about welfare evacuation centers during normal times. However, It has been noted that awareness of welfare shelters is low: at the time of the Great East Japan Earthquake, approximately 70% of the victims did not know about the establishment of welfare evacuation centers or where they were located, and only 6% of the people in need of assistance in evacuation went to one (*Report on Survey Results*). After the Kumamoto earthquake, 55.2% of municipalities in the prefecture "did not specifically call for" people to move from evacuation shelters to welfare evacuation shelters (*Case Study Report*). Furthermore, although more than 90% of municipalities across the country have designated one or more welfare evacuation centers within their jurisdiction, it has been pointed out that only a little more than 10% of the target population can be accommodated, which presents challenges in terms of capacity (*Asahi Shimbun*, October 28, 2018).

It has also been noted that living in evacuation centers places a heavy burden on women. Most of the evacuation centers are run by men, and while women are assigned to prepare meals and clean up as a matter of course "because they are women," their views are not readily represented, and their needs in terms of childcare and nursing care are often overlooked. Some people also said that it was difficult to make requests to the men in charge of distributing supplies for products that meet the specific needs of women, such as sanitary napkins, etc. In many cases, there are no partitions, changing rooms, or nursing rooms, making it difficult to maintain privacy. Further-

Figure 3 : Methods of providing information to people in need of assistance in evacuation centers (multiple responses, survey of municipalities in Kumamoto prefecture)



Source: Cabinet Office, *FY 2016 Report on Support for Evacuees in Evacuation Centers*

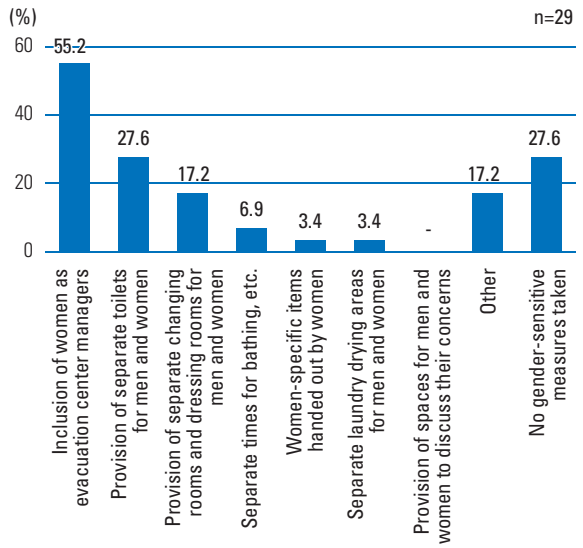
more, while increased violence towards women and children during disasters is known to be a global trend, Japan's evacuation centers often see incidents of sexual violence, especially in the toilets. Out the 82 cases reported following the Great East Japan Earthquake, 10 cases involved "forced sexual intercourse without consent (rape or attempted rape)," and 19 involved "other indecent behavior or sexual harassment," with 27 of the total cases taking place at evacuation centers (according to a survey by the by the support group Women's Network for East Japan Disaster (Rise Together)).

In response to the emergence of these issues, the Cabinet Office produced and released *Guidelines for Disaster Planning, Response and Reconstruction from a Gender-equal Perspective* (May 2013), which outlines the basic measures to be taken by local governments. According to a survey of Kumamoto Prefecture municipalities conducted by the Cabinet Office following the Kumamoto earthquake, some specific gender-sensitive measures were taken at evacuation centers, such as "including women as evacuation center managers" (55.2%) and "installing separate toilets for men and women" (27.6%), but overall, the proportion of municipalities that said they took "sufficient measures" was only 9.4% (**Figure 4**). When the same question was asked to the evacuees themselves, 63.1% replied that "no gender-sensitive measures were taken," indicating that the efforts made by local governments were felt by evacuees to be insufficient (**Figure 5**). On the other hand, there are some new developments, such as five municipalities (15%) establishing and operating evacuation centers for mothers and children, or for women only.

(2) Issues at Other Evacuation Locations

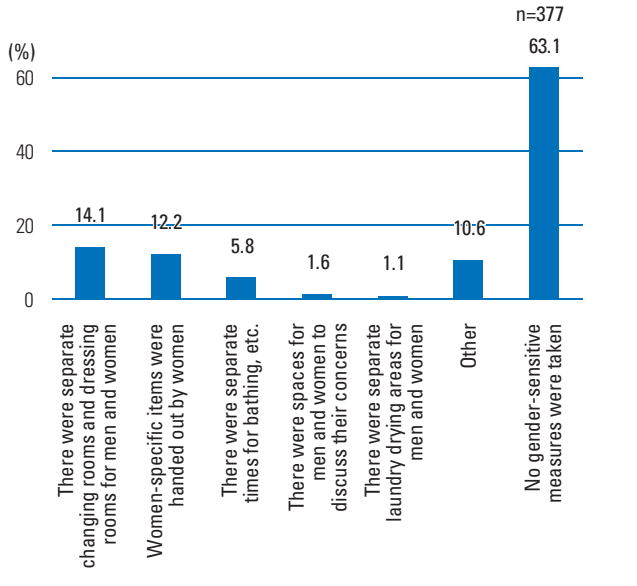
For a variety of reasons, such as privacy, the capacity of shelters, warnings of aftershocks, and the presence of family members who are requiring assistance during disasters, many people evacuate to places other than public evacuation centers, such as private cars or the homes of relatives or friends, or are forced to return to their damaged homes after the disaster. Of

Figure 4 : Gender-sensitive measures in evacuation centers (multiple responses, survey of Kumamoto prefecture municipalities)



Source: Cabinet Office, *FY 2016 Report on Support for Evacuees in Evacuation Centers*

Figure 5 : Gender-sensitive measures in evacuation centers (multiple responses, survey of evacuees)



Source: Cabinet Office, *FY 2016 Report on Support for Evacuees in Evacuation Centers*

those affected by the Kumamoto earthquake, the number of people who evacuated to places other than evacuation centers from the outset was 52.9% (*Case Study Report*).

These victims face challenges in accessing the distribution of food and relief supplies and posted information, which is often done on a shelter-by-shelter basis. For example, the proportion of municipalities nationwide that have specific systems and activities planned to monitor the situation of victims who remain in their homes is 7%, with 90% of municipalities having no plan in place (*Report on Survey* Results). In a survey conducted after the Kumamoto earthquake, about 85% of victims outside the evacuation centers replied that they did not receive house calls or visits for health counseling and other purposes, showing a disparity between them and those in the evacuation centers (54.9%) (*Case Study Report*).

In addition, staying in a car has been noted to induce economy class syndrome. As many as 74.5% of the Kumamoto earthquake victims stayed in their cars at some point (**Figure 6**). Although the relationship between cause and effect is not clear, it is reported that 59 (30%) of the 200 deaths certified as disaster-related were of people who had stayed in their cars (*Mainichi Shimbun*, January 4, 2018).

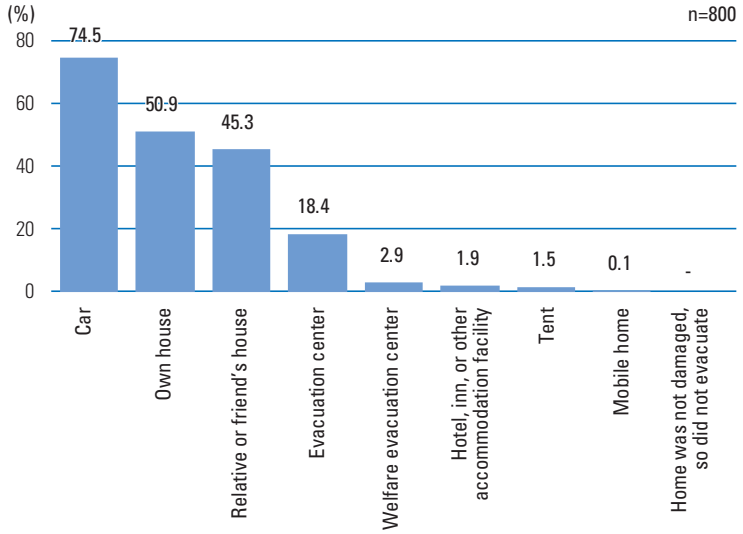
3. Who is Left Behind during Recovery and Reconstruction?

(1) Isolation and Loneliness in Prefabricated Temporary Housing and Public Disaster Housing

The disparities in vulnerability to disasters is also evident at the stage when the long process of recovery gets properly underway. The **Disaster Relief Act** requires local governments to build or rent emergency temporary housing (prefabricated housing and private housing used as temporary accommodation) to people who have lost their homes due to natural disasters or other causes and are unable to find new housing on their own.

According to a survey of temporary housing residents conducted in December 1995 after the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, the proportion of those aged 65 and over among the residents was 31.2%, extremely high compared to the overall rate at that time (13.5% in Kobe City, according

Figure 6 : Evacuation locations after the Kumamoto Earthquake (multiple responses)



Source: Cabinet Office, *FY 2016 Report on Support for Evacuees in Evacuation Centers*

to the 1995 Population Census). According to the Cabinet Office's *Collection of Materials on Lessons Learned from the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake* (2018 augmented edition), 233 people died "solitary deaths" in temporary housing due to excessive alcohol consumption, inadequate nutrition, and neglect of chronic illnesses caused by the confinement to their homes and the severing of interpersonal relationships. Most of these people were unemployed or in irregular employment with low incomes. The distribution by age group and gender follows the overall trends for solitary deaths, with more men than women, and the largest number of cases in the 50s to 70s age group. The public disaster housing built subsequently is still heavily populated by elderly and low-income residents, with a total of 1,097 solitary deaths in said housing (as of the end of 2018, *Mainichi Shimbun*, January 11, 2019).

One of the reasons that has been identified for the high incidence of solitary deaths among people in this kind of vulnerable situation is a lack of community. The temporary housing complexes at that time were disproportionately located on the coast and in the suburbs, far from the former residential areas, and the communities that previously existed there were dismantled. Initially, elderly people and those with disabilities were given priority in moving in, after which lotteries were held, which resulted in the creation of housing complexes with higher proportions of these people. Furthermore, many of the early complexes did not have shops, meeting facilities, etc., so there was a lack of venues for communication.

In subsequent disasters, various measures have been taken to promote the formation of new communities among disaster victims, including the introduction of resident selection methods that preserve existing communities (e.g., moving in entire settlements together), promoting the establishment of shops and meeting spaces within housing complexes, and improved monitoring of elderly people by community associations. In recent years, however, as the victims of the Great East Japan Earthquake have moved from temporary housing complexes to public disaster housing, most municipalities chose the tenants by lottery, resulting the dismantling once again of the communities that had been formed in the temporary housing complexes. The number of solitary deaths in public disaster housing in the two prefectures of Iwate and Miyagi was reported to be 154 over the six-year period from 2013 to 2018 (34 in Iwate, and 120 in Miyagi) (*Asahi Shimbun*, March 11, 2019), and there are fears that more such deaths may occur in the future.

(2) Private Housing used as Temporary Accommodation

Against the backdrop of the increasing scale of disaster damage, a shortage of land to build prefabricated housing, an increasing cost burden, and the increase in the number of vacant houses, the quasi-temporary housing ("*minashi-kasetsu*") system, in which prefectural governments rent out private housing for use by disaster victims, has been attracting attention. If a disaster victim finds a vacant property and signs a lease, that too is considered temporary housing, so they can choose a property that fits their needs in terms of their workplace, school, etc. The system is also attractive to victims and its use has seen a rapid increase in recent disasters (**Table 2**).

However, in contrast to the prefabricated housing where disaster victims live alongside each other, those in quasi-temporary housing tend to be dispersed and scattered, making it difficult to maintain interaction with their original community and to build relationships with the local communities in the places they are evacuated to. As such, they tend to become isolated. According to Kumamoto Prefecture, the number of disaster victims living in quasi-temporary housing after the Kumamoto earthquake who died solitary deaths in the prefecture within three years of the disaster has reached 22 (in contrast with only 6 cases in prefabricated housing).

In addition, while it is easier to communicate and share information in prefabricated housing,

residents in quasi-temporary housing may be less likely to get the information and government support they need. It is also possible to gather information and apply for assistance online, but this is difficult for elderly people. Laws and regulations related to the protection of personal information have also been identified as barriers, making it difficult for volunteers and NPOs to reach out to provide support.

(3) Disparities in Recovery between Victims

There are various ways of looking at the progress of disaster recovery, such as the recovery of disaster victims' livelihoods, the restoration of infrastructure, and the reconstruction of housing. For example, in terms of recovery from the Great East Japan Earthquake, as of the end of September 2018, the rate of completion for construction work on public disaster housing (as a percentage of planned housing units) was 98%, and the rate of completion for construction work on land for private housing and other purposes was 93%. From these figures, it seems that reconstruction is in its final stages as far as infrastructure and housing are concerned (Reconstruction Agency, *Progress of Full-Scale Restoration and Reconstruction of Public Infrastructure*, 2018). However, when asked, some victims rated their own assessment of "degree of recovery" for the same period as "18%" or "50%" (*Kahoku Shimpo*, September 11 and 12, 2018).

In addition, it has been noted that the degree of recovery varies according to the social characteristics of the affected population. In terms of housing reconstruction for those who have lost their homes, those with high household incomes tend to rebuild on their own as soon as possible, while the elderly and those with low incomes tend to be left behind, such as by delays in moving out of temporary housing. It has also been noted that the process of evacuation and reconstruction, such as moving into temporary housing, has led to the splitting up of households and an increase in the number of households consisting of only an elderly married couple or an elderly person living alone.

Further, many cases have been reported of victims who were forced to leave their jobs, were dismissed, or had to take a leave of absence in the aftermath of the disaster. The resulting problems of unemployment and loss of income are reportedly more severe among those in non-regular employment, especially women.

(4) People left out of the Policy-making Process for Recovery

After a disaster occurs, the local public bodies of the affected areas set up a disaster countermeasures office to respond to the disaster, and then draw up a recovery plan that illustrates the roadmap for future recovery. It cannot be said that women, elderly people, people with disabilities, and foreign nationals have sufficient opportunities to participate in the decision-making process for reconstruction.

As an example, the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake Reconstruction Planning and

Table 2 : Breakdown of temporary housing for victims of recent major disasters (number of housing units)

	Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake	Niigata Chuetsu Earthquake	Great East Japan Earthquake	Kumamoto Earthquake
Prefabricated housing	48,300	3,460	53,194 (*1)	4,303 (*3)
Quasi-temporary housing (a)	139	174	68,645 (*2)	14,447 (*4)
Total (b)	48,439	3,634	121,839	18,750
a/b	0.3	4.8	56.3	77.1

(*1) March 1, 2014; (*2) March 30, 2012; (*3) August 31, 2017; (*4) 2016

Source: Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT), Cabinet Office, and Kumamoto Prefecture Announcements

Research Committee had about 5 women out of 50 members, and the Kobe City Council for Recovery Planning had less than 10 women out of 100 members. In the wake of the Great East Japan Earthquake, the percentage of women on committees for the development and facilitation of recovery plans in all municipalities in the three prefectures of Iwate, Miyagi, and Fukushima was 14.4% (2015). Moreover, out of the 83 committees, etc. that were established, as many as 15 (17.2%) had no women members at all (Reconstruction Agency, *Report of the Survey on Reconstruction and Gender Equality*).

In Kumamoto, 10 municipal and 1 prefectural reconstruction offices and headquarter were established after the earthquake. The maximum average number of full-time members of the prefectural headquarter (16.0 in total) was 15.0 (94%) men and 1.0 (6%) women. For the municipal offices (20.1 in average), the average figures were 19.1 (95%) men and 1.1 (5%) women. As this shows, the number of women members of disaster response offices is equally low at both the prefectural and municipal levels (Cabinet Office Bureau for Gender Equality, *Report on the Response to the 2016 Kumamoto Earthquake*).

4. Isolation among Nuclear Disaster Evacuees

(1) The Nuclear Power Plant Accident

Delays in recovery and reconstruction in the wake of the Great East Japan Earthquake have been frequently pointed out. In Fukushima in particular, more than 30,000 people remain evacuated from the prefecture as of July 2019 due to the effects of the nuclear disaster — the accident at the Tokyo Electric Power Company (TEPCO)'s Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Station, which released large amounts of radioactive material. According to the Support Team for livelihood of the nuclear accident victims, at the peak in June 2012, about 164,000 people from the prefecture were evacuated across the country, a figure significantly higher than the population (about 81,000 people) of the three mandatory evacuation zones (the "Difficult-to-Return Zones", "Restricted Residence Zones", and "Evacuation Order Cancellation Preparation Zones"). As such, it is clear that a significant number of people evacuated voluntarily, as described below.

Many of the evacuees who were living near the plant at the time of the disaster boarded buses and other vehicles prepared for them "without knowing where they were going," "with only the clothes they were wearing," and "under the impression they would be evacuating for a few days." They were then forced to live as evacuees with no end in sight. The nuclear accident was a "man-made" disaster caused by overconfidence in modern science and technology, and the victims' lives as evacuees differed from those of the tsunami evacuees, in that it was difficult to see how they would ever be able to return home, they reached compensation deals with TEPCO, and the evacuation covered a wide area.

(2) Discrimination and Harassment

The public response to nuclear disasters has been in the form of compensation and decontamination. However, evacuees have been forced to deal with the problems associated with evacuation (e.g., household financial pressures brought about by household separation and living double lives, and the transfer of children to new schools) as a private matter. Another such problem is the discrimination and harassment the evacuees faced at their new locations.

Directly after the disaster, there were reports of various cases of discrimination against nuclear evacuees on the grounds of "radioactive contamination," including cars with Fukushima number plates being turned back, and people from Fukushima refused rides in taxis, examinations at hospitals, and accommodation in hotels. There were also a number of cases where people were subject to unkind remarks on account of receiving compensation. Particularly in Iwaki

City, Fukushima Prefecture, a city that hosted many evacuees from the nuclear disaster despite itself being a disaster zone, friction arose between the evacuees and local residents, including graffiti on the city hall reading "Disaster victims go home!" in black spray paint.

Such discrimination was often pointed out by media organizations and researchers, but when the issue of bullying of evacuee students in faraway areas such as Yokohama, Kawasaki, Niigata, and Yamagata was reported in 2016–2017, it caused a huge reaction across the country. In April 2017, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) conducted a survey of the (approximately 12,000) children who had been evacuated from Fukushima to other areas both within and outside the prefecture. It reported that, as of March of the same year, there had been a total of 199 cases of bullying. In a separate survey conducted around the same time, when asked if they had experienced discrimination or harassment as a result of evacuating due to the nuclear accident, 81 of 174 respondents (46.6%) said they had seen or heard of it, and 33 (19.0%) said that they or a family member had been affected. In addition, 44.5% of respondents said that they sometimes felt reluctant to tell their neighbors that they had been evacuated, suggesting that discrimination and harassment are deeply rooted and widespread in society (Asahi Shimbun and the Akira Imai Research Group at Fukushima University, *Sixth Survey of Nuclear Disaster Evacuees*).

(3) "Voluntary" Evacuation and Forced Return

It should also be noted that the evacuation situation is becoming more complex and diverse. This is a result of a variety of factors, such as the situation in the municipalities that residents were evacuated from, relationships with support groups, and different stances regarding nuclear power. As an example, nuclear evacuees can be broadly divided into two categories: those who evacuated from the evacuation order zones (mandatory evacuees) and those who evacuated from outside the zone (voluntary, or out-of-area evacuees). The voluntary evacuees do not receive regular compensation from TEPCO. In addition, there are many households that lead a "dual life," where mothers and children evacuate to distant locations while their husbands remain within the prefecture, and these tend to face more financial hardship than the mandatory evacuees. A questionnaire survey conducted between January and March 2015 found that 40.7% of voluntary evacuees had loans or debts, and 74.6% had worries about living expenses (compared to 19.8% and 56.6% of mandatory evacuees, respectively) (study by NHK Sendai Broadcasting Station and Waseda University Institute of Medical Anthropology on Disaster Reconstruction).

On the other hand, in the midst of the ongoing reorganization and lifting of the evacuation order zones, the number of residents who have returned to their homes is still less than 30% (**Figure 7**), and this proportion is still skewed toward the elderly who receive pensions. The reasons for this low rate of return include people's former residences being in an unfit state for living in, an underdeveloped environment for daily activities, and concerns about the possibility of exposure to low doses of radiation. If evacuees who have had the evacuation orders for their former residences lifted are deemed "unable" or "unwilling" to return, they are then treated as voluntary evacuees. The free provision of temporary housing to voluntary evacuees has already terminated. In principle, the plan is to end the provision of free temporary housing to the mandatory evacuees (except for the towns of Okuma and Futaba, where all-town evacuation orders remain in place) by the end of FY 2019. However, the situation is such that people who have continued to live as evacuees because of the delays in reconstruction are being talked about as if they themselves were the cause of the delays, with a senior Fukushima Prefecture official heard saying that "if people live as evacuees for prolonged periods of time, it could lead to a delay in reconstruction" (Asahi Shimbun, May 17, 2015).

Although this chapter is mainly concerned with natural disasters (so-called "acts of god"), it cannot be ignored that, as described above, the nuclear evacuees, victims of a preventable man-made disaster, have been inexcusably "left behind." In order to prevent such a situation from occurring again, it is important to communicate risk to the public by breaking down the barriers between experts and citizens in the field of nuclear power.

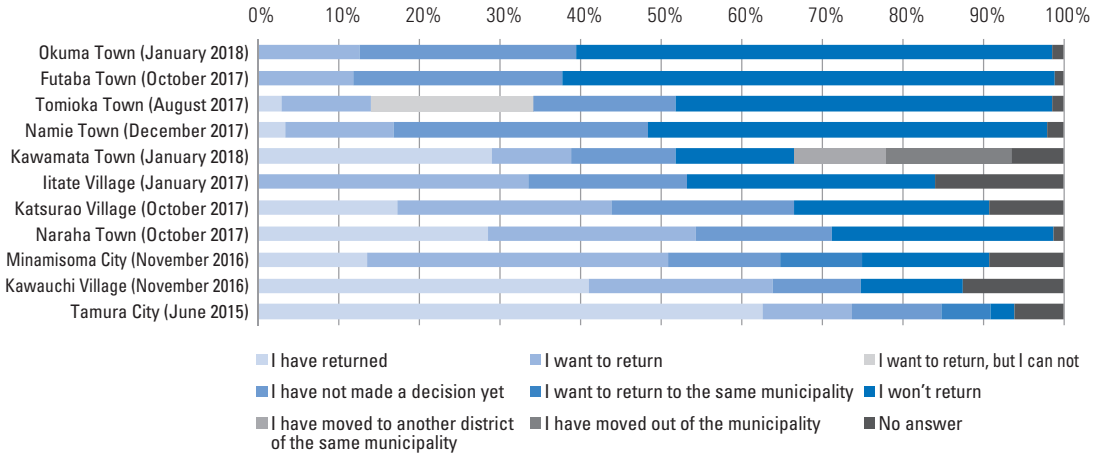
5. Disaster Volunteering

In terms of rebuilding daily life after a disaster, issues that cannot be dealt with by individuals (self-help) will require a combination of mutual aid at the community and citizen level (mutual aid) and public support based on the legal system (public assistance). In recent years, disaster relief volunteers, who respond proactively and flexibly to the needs of disaster victims, have played a major role in providing mutual aid.

In Japan, where disasters are frequent, there has been a long history of free relief activities by various private organizations, including mutual aid by relatives and people in the local community. It was not until after the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake that this became firmly established and widespread as "disaster volunteer activity," to be deployed on a large scale after each disaster (Mashiho Suga, *Disaster Volunteering — 20 Years after 1.17 and Future Challenges*). In that disaster, a total of 1,370,000 volunteers came from all over Japan after learning of the devastation through newspapers and television reports, and it was dubbed the "first year of the volunteer era." In the midst of the subsequent spate of major disasters, public awareness of disaster relief volunteers also increased significantly (**Table 3**).

Disaster relief volunteers include not only individual volunteers, but also volunteers from NPOs and other organizations, as well as vocational volunteers from the fields of medicine and nursing. The upsurge in volunteer activities after the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake was a direct impetus for the enactment of the **Act on Promotion of Specified Non-profit Activities** (1998), which led to the establishment of a large number of NPOs in each prefecture, as shown in **Indicator J7**. The role of these organizations has expanded in subsequent disasters, with the Cabinet Office reporting that an estimated 1,420 NPOs and other support groups were active after the Great East Japan Earthquake, and approximately 300 after the Kumamoto earthquake.

Figure 7 : Results of an attitude survey conducted jointly by the national government, Fukushima prefecture, and the affected municipalities



Source: Reconstruction Agency Fukushima Reconstruction Bureau, *Efforts to Accelerate Fukushima's Reconstruction*

In the aftermath of the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, there was no system in place to connect volunteers with people in the disaster area who were seeking assistance. Consequently, in subsequent disasters, disaster volunteer centers (below referred to as "DVCs") were established to identify and organize the needs of disaster victims and centralize the coordination of volunteer disaster workers' activities in the affected areas. Nowadays, manuals for setting up DVCs and organizations for supporting DVCs are becoming increasingly common. On the other hand, many NPOs that can collect funds and personnel on their own act independently. As shown in Table 3, the number of disaster relief volunteers in the Great East Japan Earthquake was approximately 1.5 million, but it is estimated that including those who did not work through the DVCs, about 5.5 million people were involved.

The mainstreaming of disaster volunteering has given a strong impression of citizens' activities as the key driver of disaster response. Local governments have positioned volunteers as the leaders of disaster relief and assistance in their regional disaster management plans, promoting efforts to seek collaboration and cooperation. In addition, after several amendments, the **Basic Act on Disaster Management** specifically states that the government should strive to work in cooperation with volunteers. Furthermore, in order to facilitate cooperation and collaboration between government and volunteers in times of disaster, and to ensure this leads to appropriate support activities, exchanges have been conducted during normal times through drills and workshops (in Niigata Prefecture in FY 2016, Hiroshima City in FY 2017, and Fukuoka Prefecture in FY 2018).

6. Initiatives to Alleviate the Pain of Future Victims

Since many disasters occur periodically, recovery from a disaster can be considered a period of preparation for the next one. In Japan, which is a highly disaster-prone country, all prefectures and municipalities have already formulated local disaster management plans. The following section looks at specific efforts in the field of disaster prevention and disaster mitigation to alleviate the pain suffered by future victims.

(1) Disaster Prevention and Disaster Mitigation

Table 3 : Major disasters and disaster relief volunteers in recent years

Major Disasters and Volunteer Activities			Government Response
Year	Name	Total Number of Participants	
1995	Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake (the "first year of the volunteer era")	Approx. 1.377 million people	• Revision of the **Basic Act on Disaster Management** (1995), stating that the government will strive to "improve the environment for disaster management activities by volunteers."
1997	Nakhodka Oil Spill	Approx. 270,000 people	
2004	Typhoon No. 23	Approx. 56,000 people	• It becomes the norm for the Council of Social Welfare to be mainly responsible for the establishment and operation of disaster volunteer centers.
2004	Niigata Prefecture Chuetsu Earthquake	Approx. 95,000 people	
2007	Noto Peninsula Earthquake	Approx. 15,000 people	
2007	Chuetsu Offshore Earthquake	Approx. 15,000 people	• Disaster Management Volunteer Activity Review Council begins in the Cabinet Office in 2004.
2009	Typhoon No. 9	Approx. 22,000 people	
2011	Great East Japan Earthquake	* Approx. 1.5 million people	• Networking arises as an issue.
2014	Hiroshima Landslides	Approx. 43,000 people	• Revision of the **Basic Act on Disaster Management** (2013), stating that "the government will endeavor cooperate with volunteers."
2015	Kanto-Tohoku Floods	Approx. 47,000 people	
2016	Kumamoto Earthquake	Approx. 118,000 people	(*) An estimated 5.5 million people including those who worked without going through disaster volunteer centers
2017	Northern Kyushu Floods	Approx. 60,000 people	

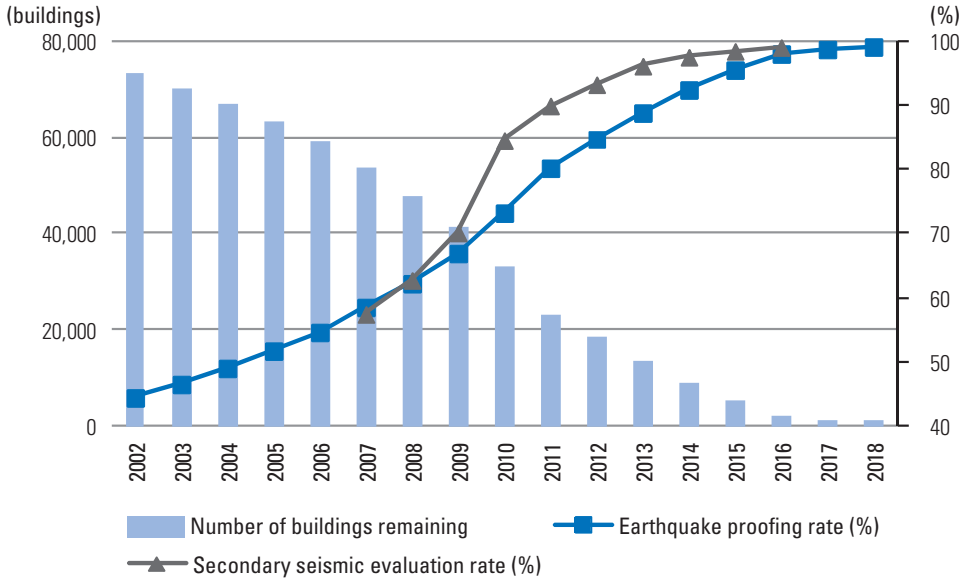
Source: Cabinet Office Documents

Disasters occur as a combination of a hazard and existing vulnerabilities in society, but when the hazard is a natural phenomenon, it is very difficult to control. Therefore, in order to prevent disasters, it is important for society to take measures to manage and mitigate damage.

For a long time following the Great Kanto Earthquake (1923), disaster prevention measures have focused on civil and structural engineering, that is, the tangible side of disaster management: preventing damage by building structures that will not collapse during earthquakes and levees that will not give way during floods. For example, **Indicator F8** refers to the rate of earthquake proofing of public facilities. Japan, having suffered extensive earthquake damage in the past, has stepped up efforts to revise seismic standards and promote seismic reinforcement after each major disaster. Earthquake proofing of public elementary and junior high school facilities has risen from 44.5% to 99.2% in the 17 years from 2002 to 2018, indicating that it is basically complete (**Figure 8**). However, looking at the earthquake proofing rates for the public facilities that serve as disaster management centers (social welfare facilities, educational facilities, government offices, etc.) shows discrepancies in progress between prefectures. Although Tokyo (99.0%), Mie (97.4%), and Shizuoka (97.3%) have high rates, such prefectures as Hokkaido (84.9%), Hiroshima (85.4%), and Yamaguchi (86.2%) fail to reach a rate of 90% (Fire and Disaster Management Agency, *Survey Results on Earthquake Proofing of Public Facilities Serving as Disaster Management Centers*, 2018).

However, "damage control" is not feasible if the hazard exceeds the external forces for which the structure was designed. The Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake of 1995, which caused devastating damage to the city of Kobe, triggered a shift in Japan away from the conventional approach of "zero damage" to one of "damage reduction," in which the goal is to withstand and then minimize the damage. The term *gensai* ("disaster mitigation") is now widely used for this purpose. What is important in disaster mitigation is the intangible side of disaster management, such as disaster management education, evacuation drills, and hazard maps. **Figure 9** shows the publication status for a variety

Figure 8 : Earthquake proofing for public elementary and junior high school facilities (buildings)



Source: Cabinet Office, *2019 White Paper on Disaster Management*

of hazard maps. It is apparent that municipalities have made progress in releasing the maps, particularly for flood and landslide disasters[*1].

The Fire and Disaster Management Agency requires local governments to hold disaster drills with the participation of local residents, and in FY 2017, prefectures conducted a total of 856 drills (428 of which involved actual practice) (Cabinet Office, *2019 White Paper on Disaster Management*). This figure is more than three times higher than that for FY 1992, before the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake (254 times in total, 121 involving actual practice).

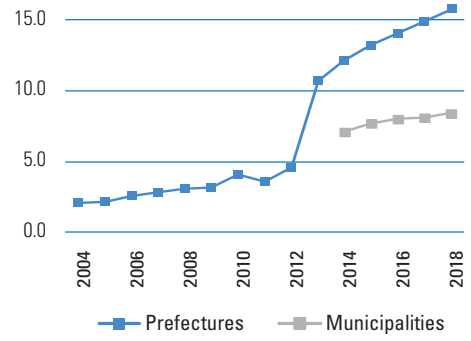
[*1] The FY 2019 White Paper on Disaster Management includes some changes in the criteria for the production of hazard maps. In FY 2019, a series of typhoons caused extensive damage throughout Japan, and hazard maps are once again in the spotlight. Local governments are being required to continue their efforts.

(2) People left out of the Policy-making Process for Disaster Prevention and Disaster Mitigation

These measures for disaster prevention and mitigation, as well as for emergency response when a disaster strikes and for recovery/restoration afterwards, are contained in regional disaster management plans prepared by local governments at local disaster management councils. However, as this chapter has shown, while the impacts of disasters and support needs differ according to gender, age, disability, and other social attributes, there has not been enough progress in ensuring participation by those who need help in policy and decision-making processes, nor in ensuring that diverse perspectives are taken into account.

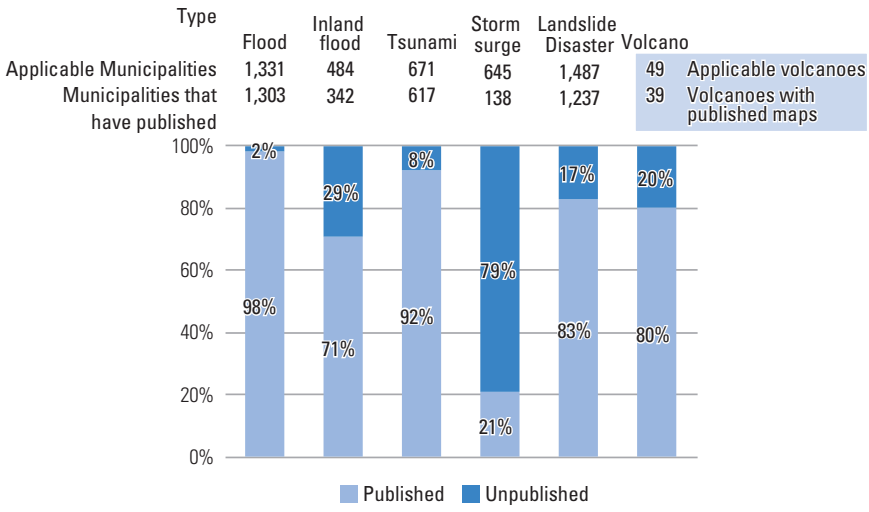
To date, the government has required local governments to put in place venues for incorporating the diverse views of women, people with disabilities, and the elderly and to promote their participation in decision-making for disaster management, recovery, and reconstruction, etc. This has been done using amendments to the **Basic Plan for Disaster Management**, revisions to

Figure 10 : Proportion of female members in local disaster management councils



Source: Cabinet Office, *2019 White Paper on Gender Equality*

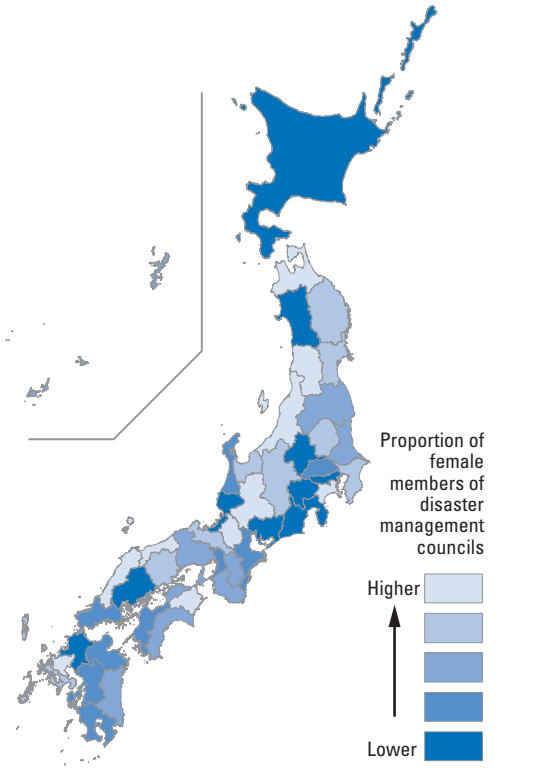
Figure 9 : Publishing of hazard maps



Source: Cabinet Office, *2018 White Paper on Disaster Management*

the **Basic Act on Disaster Management**, and the development of "**Guidelines for Disaster Management and Reconstruction from the Perspective of Gender Equality**," while the **Fourth Basic Plan for Gender Equality** (December 2015) sets out specific attainment targets and deadlines. As an example, the rate of female members of prefectural disaster management councils will be raised to 30% (by 2020). However, although there is an upward trend, as shown in **Figure 10**, women made up just 15.7% of the members of prefectural disaster management councils as of April 2018. By prefecture, the rate was highest in Tokushima (48.1%), followed by Tottori (43.3%), Shimane (40.8%) and Saga (29.4%). The lowest rate was found in Aichi (2.6%), followed by Hiroshima (3.4%), Fukui (3.6%), and Tokyo (6.0%), showing large discrepancies (**Figure 11**). It should be emphasized that further efforts are needed to reach the attainment targets. There remains a very long way to go to the broader goal of incorporating the diverse views not only of women, but people with disabilities and elderly people too.

Figure 11 : Proportion of female members in prefectural disaster management councils

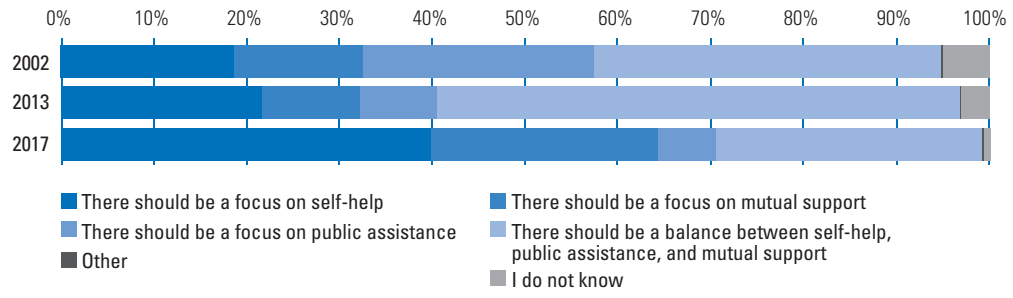


Source: Cabinet Office, *White Paper on Gender Equality 2019*

(3) Disaster Prevention and Mitigation, Self-help, Mutual Support, and Public Assistance

There is a limit to how far public assistance alone can go in responding to disasters. Since the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake, in which 60 to 90 percent of the people rescued after the disaster were rescued by local residents and others, there has been an emphasis placed on the importance of self-help and mutual support in disaster prevention and mitigation. The Cabinet Office's *Public Opinion Survey on Disaster Management* (**Figure 12**) shows that the subsequent experience of the Great East Japan Earthquake, the Kumamoto Earthquake and other large-scale disasters has led to an even higher awareness of the importance of self-help and mutual support.

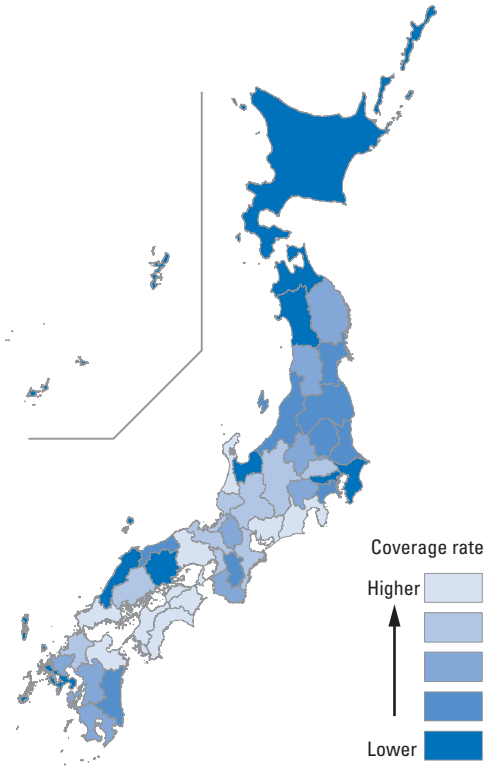
Figure 12 : Disaster management measures to be focused on (self-help, mutual support or public assistance)



Source: Cabinet Office, *Public Opinion Survey on Disaster Management*

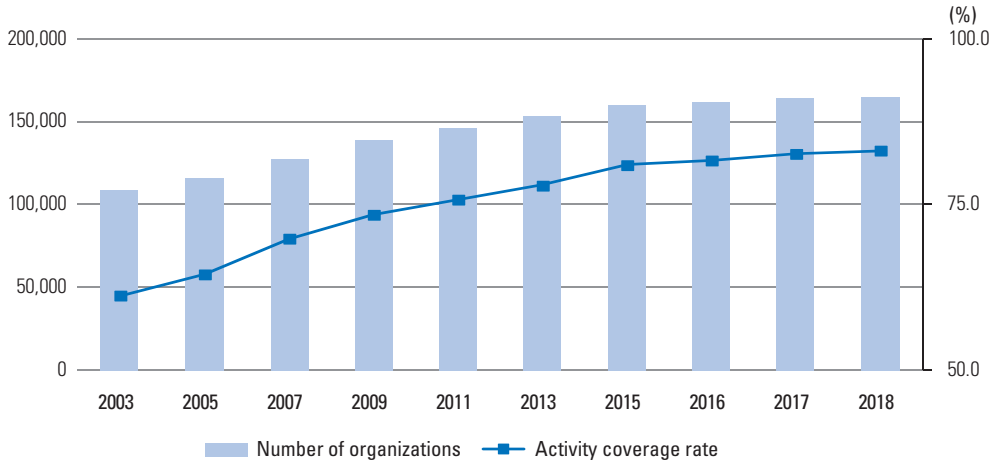
In addition to these changes in perceptions, there has been an increase in the formation of voluntary disaster management organizations (volunteer-based organizations of local residents) across the country, with the encouragement of local public bodies (**Figure 13**). As of April 1, 2018, 1,679 (96.4%) of the 1,741 municipalities had voluntary disaster management organizations in place, with the rate of coverage (the percentage of all households located in areas covered by voluntary disaster management organizations) standing at 83.2%. However, the rates of coverage for each prefecture show large discrepancies. The highest rate is in Hyogo (97.3%), followed in order by Yamaguchi (97.0%), Oita (95.8%), and Ishikawa (95.3%), while the lowest is in Okinawa (24.3%), followed by Aomori (48.7%), Hokkaido (56.2%), and Chiba (63.5%) (*Status of Regional Disaster Management Administration*, **Figure 14**). As mentioned previously, disasters and disaster management are national issues that transcend the boundaries of prefectures, so further work to improve coverage will be needed. However, it would be desirable to have an appropriate combination of self-help, mutual support, and public assistance in responding to disasters, and caution should be taken against a tendency to overemphasize self-help and mutual support.

Figure 14 : Coverage rate of voluntary disaster management organizations



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC) Fire and Disaster Management Agency, *Status of Regional Disaster Management Administration*

Figure 13 : Changes in the number of voluntary disaster management organizations



Source: Cabinet Office, *2019 White Paper on Disaster Management*

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

Disaster Relief Act

Basic Act on Disaster Management

Act Concerning Support for Reconstructing Livelihoods of Disaster Victims

Act on Reconstruction after Large-Scale Disasters

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Women's Eye

Launched as a women's support team within a volunteer organization formed to support the areas affected by the Great East Japan Earthquake, the organization was later spun off and incorporated as an independent support group. Taking a woman's perspective rooted in everyday life, they work with women involved in community recovery to address various issues facing women in disaster-affected areas. Initially, the group worked to support women living in evacuation centers with supplies and salon activities. After the women moved into temporary housing, they developed a "theme-based community development project" to prevent isolation by offering classes in knitting, cooking, calisthenics, and other subjects to create small clubs that connect people through their common interests. The project, in which a total of 5,122 people participated over a period of four years and four months (510 sessions), was selected as one of the "Global Good Practices for 2015" by the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR, renamed in 2019 as United Nations Office of Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR)). Later, the group expanded its activities to include empowerment through self-help and problem-solving groups for single mothers and their children, and is also currently engaged in training the next generation of women leaders who will carry on with the recovery efforts.

Recommendations

While disasters bring about a daily life that is far out of the ordinary, they are closely linked to existing weaknesses in society, with damage skewed towards those who are vulnerable even during normal times. Inequality is growing even in disaster recovery, as vulnerable people are more likely to face delays in rebuilding their lives and to be left behind in the recovery process. If Japan is to ensure that no one will be left behind in future disasters, it is not enough to simply aim to prevent disasters and limit the spread of damage. It is imperative to alleviate and reduce social vulnerability by reducing disparities and inequalities in normal times, to build a society that is livable for all, and to strengthen mechanisms to incorporate the diverse views of people who are prone to being left behind, especially in the fields of disaster prevention and mitigation, such as women, the elderly and people with disabilities. In the event of a disaster, we should adopt a perspective that respects people as diverse individuals rather than grouping them together as “victims,” and increase diversity in the decision-making process for recovery and reconstruction.

At present, women, elderly people, people with disabilities, and foreign nationals do not have sufficient opportunities to participate in national and local governments' efforts to draw up emergency disaster response measures, develop recovery plans, and make policy decisions. Going forward, we recommend strengthening mechanisms to incorporate the diverse opinions of these people who are often “left behind.”

As a first step, we recommend increasing women's participation in disaster response offices and committees on recovery measures.

(Maho Yamazaki)

Chapter 12

Foreigners

The SDGs Declaration refers to the potential harm that vulnerable people can suffer, such as "forced displacement" and "forced labor." The SDGs set out to achieve the following by 2030:

Goal 8 (Work) protects the rights of all migrant workers, especially women migrant workers and workers in precarious employment, including foreign nationals, and promotes safe and secure working environments (Target 8.8). Goal 10 (Reducing inequality) involves facilitating orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies (Target 10.7). It also aims to reduce the transaction costs of migrant remittances to less than 3 per cent and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent (Target 10.c).

The Current Situation

1. Rapid Increase in Foreign Residents

The percentage of foreign residents in Japan is about 2% of the population, which is still low compared to other developed countries. Low as it is, however, in recent years, the number of foreign residents has grown by more than 100,000 annually, with the number of foreign residents reaching a record high of 2,731,000 at the end of 2018 (Figure 1). Japan has entered an era in which one out of every 50 people in the country is a foreign national.

The number of working foreign nationals in particular continues to increase. According to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW)'s *Summary of Foreign National Employment Reports*, the number of foreign workers reached 1.46 million at the end of 2018, an increase of 180,000 from the previous year. In 2008, the number was less than 500,000, a clear indication of the rapid increase in recent years. This figure does not include those who are engaged in work among the "special permanent residents" (321,000), which is the legal status held by Japan-resident Koreans and others. In terms of geographical distribution, just under a quarter of all foreign workers in Japan are concentrated in Tokyo, with many also employed in the metropolitan areas of Aichi, Osaka, and Kanagawa. In the past few years, the number has risen nationwide, with high rates of increase in Hokkaido, Kyushu, and Okinawa (Figure 2).

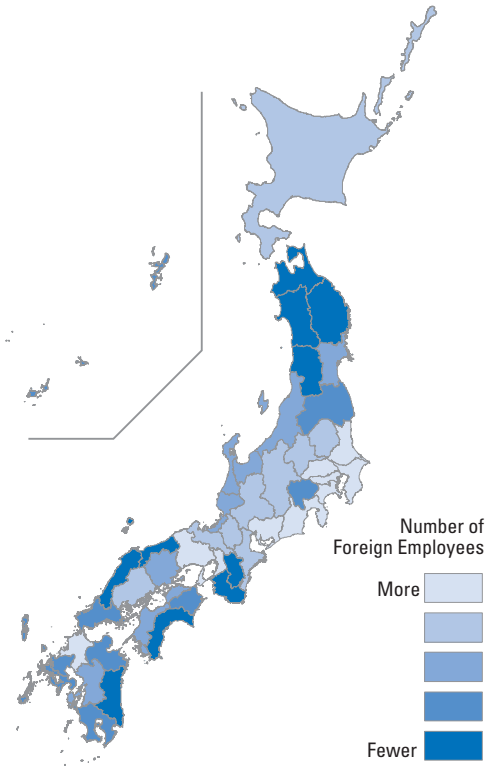
2. Role in Compensating for the Labor Shortage

The increase in the number of foreign workers can be attributed to the decline in the working-age population that began in the mid-1990s. Japan's unemployment rate fell to the 3% range in 2014 and has been in the 2% range since 2017, leaving Japan with a severe labor shortage. Foreign workers are entering industries and occupations that are not attracting Japanese workers. The

proportion of foreign workers, as calculated based on the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC)'s Labor Force Survey and the MHLW's *Summary of Foreign National Employment Reports*, was 20 per 1,000 workers in all industries in 2017, an approximately twofold increase from 2009. Sectors that are particularly reliant on foreign labor include food manufacturing (80 per 1,000 workers), textiles (67), transportation equipment (60), electrical machinery (44), and accommodation services (40) (*Nihon Keizai Shimbun*, September 2, 2018 Morning Edition). There were large rates of increase in construction, fisheries, transportation, agriculture, forestry, medical care and welfare, and retail. It is evident that the employment of foreign nationals is increasing in a variety of fields. The labor shortage in these fields is expected to become even more acute in the future due to the accelerating decline in the number of children and the aging of the population.

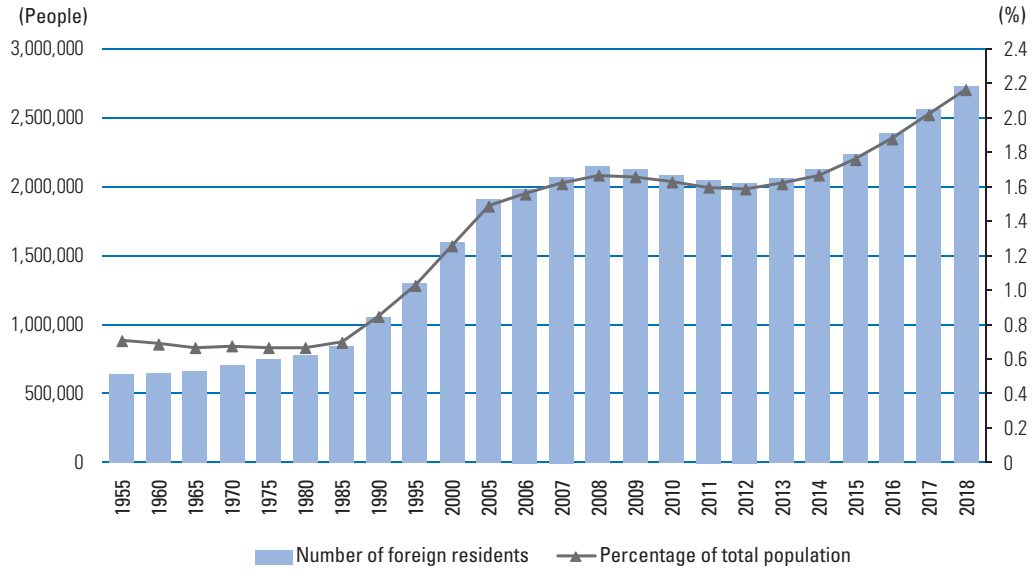
At present, there are several types of status of residence for foreign nationals who will be working, such as the "Engineer/Specialist in Humanities/International Services" status, which can be obtained by graduates of four-year universities, etc. There are many different types of residency statuses for work, but "Engineer/

Figure 2 : Number of foreign employees



Source: MHLW, *Summary of Foreign National Employment Reports*

Figure 1 : Trends in the number of foreign residents



Source: Excerpted from Ministry of Justice (MOJ), *Immigration Control* (2018)

Specialist in Humanities/International Services" is the most common (about 226,000 as of the end of 2018), followed by "Skilled Labor" (40,000). Nevertheless, only about 19% of all foreign nationals working in Japan have this kind of residence status that officially allows them to work (data from October 2018). The other statuses that account for large proportions of foreign workers are Foreign Technical Intern (21.1%), Activity other than that Permitted under the Status of Residence Previously Granted, which principally covers part-time work for foreign students (23.5%), and residency based on identity, such as permanent residents, spouses of Japanese nationals, and South Americans of Japanese descent (33.9%) (**Figure 3**).

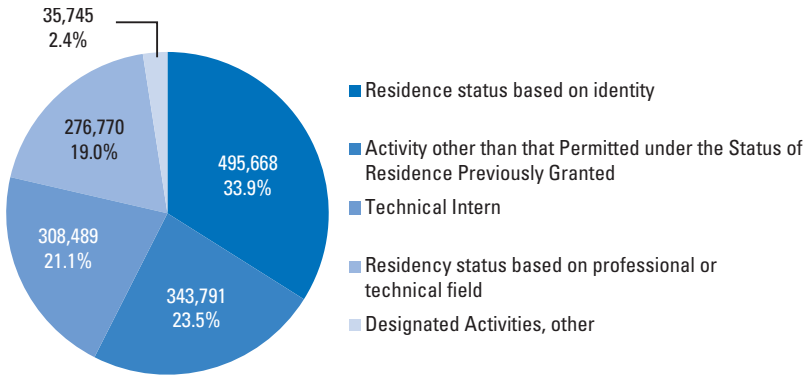
Other estimates put the number of foreigners engaged in illegal forms of labor at around 210,000, although it is difficult to gauge this accurately (*Japan's Reliance on Foreigners in the Workplace*, Nikkei Bulletin News Archive, January 13, 2018). Under measures such as the Basic Plan for Employment Measures, the government has long taken a cautious approach to the admission of front-line foreign workers, also known as "simple labor," but in 2018, the government shifted course towards being "a country open to foreign labor." In December of the same year, the **Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act** (**Immigration Act**) was amended and a new status of residence, "Specified Skilled Worker," was established, making clear a policy of wide-ranging admission of foreign nationals.

3. Problems with the Foreign Technical Intern System and the Expansion of New Residence Categories

While the purpose of the foreign technical internship system is to "contribute to the international community by transferring techniques to developing countries," the reality is that the system is being used as a low-wage, non-specialist workforce to compensate for labor shortages. The system of foreign technical internship was established in 1993, and at that time, it was meant to serve as an outlet for the second and subsequent years of the training program. Subsequently, the maximum length of internship was extended, and it was also recognized as an independent status of residence.

By prefecture, the highest number of foreign technical interns at the end of 2017 was in Aichi (28,805), followed by Ibaraki (13,841), Hiroshima (13,840), Chiba (13,362), and Saitama (12,616). The lowest number was in Akita (847), followed by Wakayama (892), Okinawa (1,330),

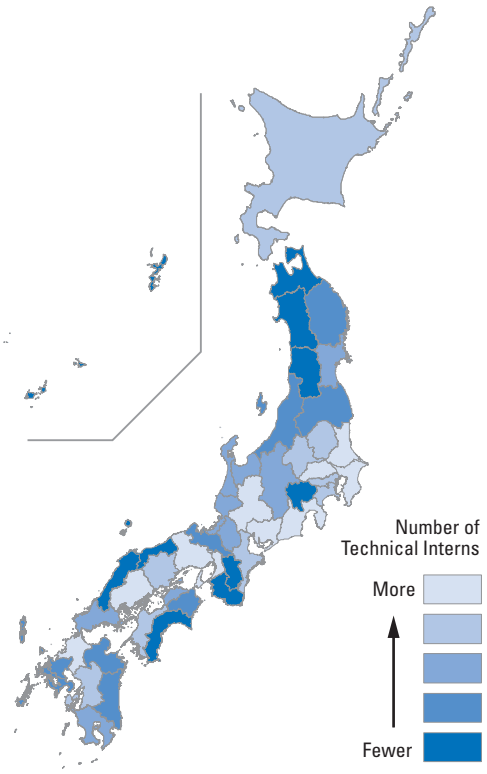
Figure 3 : Proportion of employed foreign nationals by residence status, etc.



Source: MHLW, *Summary of Foreign National Employment Reports* (As of end October 2018)

Kochi (1,355), and Tottori (1,378) (**Indicator J10**, Figure 4). Figure 4 shows the distribution of the number of foreign technical interns in order to compare the international outlook of each region, and as shown below, a higher intake of people does not necessarily mean fewer challenges.

Figure 4 : Number of foreign technical interns



Source: MOJ, *Statistics on Foreign Residents*

In 2016, the **Act on Proper Technical Intern Training and Protection of Technical Intern Trainees** (**Technical Intern Training Act**) was passed with the aim of tightening supervision over employers who hire foreign technical interns, coming into force in November of the following year. The problems of underpayment of wages and overwork have been identified as factors behind this. There have been cases where foreign trainees have been recognized as having died of overwork, and there has been constant criticism from human rights groups and others. Thousands of apprentices go missing each year, suggesting that either there is a problem with the system itself or that it is not always being operated soundly. The system of foreign technical internship is characterized by the fact that the number of trainees per workplace and the duration of the training is limited, and in principle, changes of place of employment are not permitted. For example, companies that are certified in good standing, with 301 employees or more, can hire a number of foreign technical interns up to three fifths' the number of their full-time employees over a five-year period. This period was extended in November 2017 to five years, up from three years previously, provided that requirements are met. However, the foreign technical interns must return to their home country when this period is over, and as a general rule they are not allowed to bring their families with them during their stay.

The conditions of foreign technical interns are not the same across the board, but most of them are believed to be working at the minimum wage level. They also receive no bonuses or severance pay. Changes in their place of employment are not permitted without cause. In many cases, they have paid large referral fees and commissions to brokers in home countries before coming to Japan, and have taken on debt to cover them. This situation also makes it easy for foreign technical interns to become "debt slaves," so to speak, tied to their workplaces and forced to put up with harsh working conditions. Some will flee their workplaces and try to find other jobs that will allow them to earn more money during their stay. This can be considered a survival strategy that lets them earn more money in a limited period of time. However, that choice leaves them in a vulnerable position, because even if their take-home pay increases, their status is deemed unlawful.

The government has tried to expand the number of foreign workers that it admits by establishing a new residency status of "Specified Skilled Worker" in April 2019, saying that the foreign technical internship system is not enough to fill the labor shortage. The first category of "Specified Skilled Worker," into which a significant number of foreign technical interns are expected

to transfer, will be admitted to a wide variety of occupations. Like technical interns, they are limited to a period of up to five years of employment, and family members are not allowed to accompany them. Depending on the type of job, those workers deemed to have acquired a high level of expertise and proficiency during their stay can change their status of residence to the second category of "Specified Skilled Worker." Those with this status can continue working for extended periods of time, bringing in their family and opening up avenues for settling down in Japan. How often exceptional cases arise in the face of the restrictive rules imposed will depend on the operation of the system.

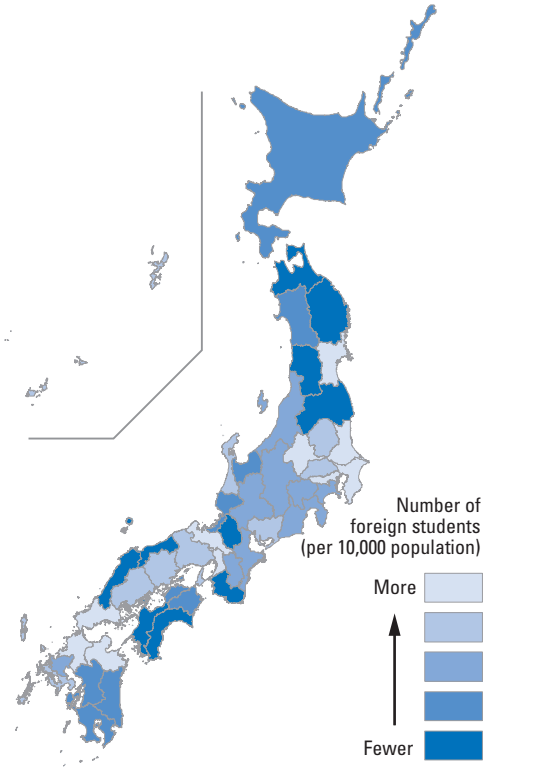
The government has made it clear that it is not adopting an "immigration policy," and does not necessarily welcome an increase in foreign workers who are settling with their families. The policy is repeatedly articulated in answers to Diet questions, in government documents (such as cabinet decisions) and in the Liberal Democratic Party's manifesto.

4. Increase in "Migrant Worker" Students

International students are allowed to work up to 28 hours per week. Compared to other countries, foreign students studying in Japan are able to work for relatively long periods of time during their studies, which may have led to an increase in the number of so-called "migrant worker" students. This has been one of the factors that have boosted the total number of foreign students. The diversity of international students makes it difficult to give an overall picture or an average picture, but in recent years, various news reports have revealed that there are some who devote themselves to part-time work rather than classes and studies. Although there are many different ways that foreign students study in Japan, there are many students studying at Japanese language institutions who have taken on large amounts of debt in a similar manner to the foreign technical interns discussed above. For the individual, it is important to repay debts and send remittances home while in Japan, and their time and motivation for learning may be compromised by the effort of work. In some cases, work itself is the purpose of the visit to Japan. This has led to stricter screening of foreign students' residency status since 2018, and in turn, this has caused a decrease in the rate at which said status is granted and an increase in revocations.

The numbers of foreign students in each prefecture show a large discrepancy between those areas where foreign students congregate (mainly urban areas) and the rest. Tokyo had the largest number of foreign students (per 10,000 population), followed in order by Kyoto, Fukuoka, Oita, Gunma, Osaka, and Ibaraki. The lowest number was in Yamagata, followed in order by Iwate, Aomori, Kochi, Shiga, Tottori, Wakayama, and Fukushima (**Indicator J9**, Figure 5).

Figure 5 : **Number of foreign students (per 10,000 population)**



Source: Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO), *Results of the Annual Survey of International Students in Japan*

Japanese language institutions serve as a receptacle for international students, with more than 1,100 established across the country (August 2018). Slightly more than a third are in Tokyo, and other than Tokyo, only Osaka has more than 100.

The government has been working to expand opportunities for international students to work in Japan after graduation. However, not all of those who wish to work in Japan are hired. The number stood at just under 20,000 in 2017, a record number, but by no means a lot. The government is also encouraging the recruitment of foreign workers to contribute to the revitalization of the Japanese economy. This is being done through a point-based system for highly skilled foreign personnel (2012) and the establishment of a new residency status of "Highly Skilled Professional" (2015).

5. Living Conditions of Foreign Residents

The living conditions of settled foreign residents vary widely. Foreign workers holding "Engineer/Specialist in Humanities/International Services" status possess specialist expertise, and their working conditions are generally good. However, other foreign workers engaged in labor, such as foreign technical interns and some permanent residents, have low income levels that are close to minimum wage when calculated on an hourly basis. There are over 72,000 foreign residents receiving livelihood protection allowance, or an average of over three in every hundred foreign residents nationwide. In particular areas (Osaka, Kyoto, Hyogo, Wakayama, Yamaguchi, Nara) that average exceeds four in every hundred (see **Indicator E4** for the rate of receipt of livelihood protection per thousand population by prefecture). Those foreign nationals who are eligible to receive livelihood protection allowance are those who are settled in Japan, generally holding the residence status of "special permanent resident," "permanent resident," "spouse or child of permanent resident," "spouse or child of Japanese national," or "long term resident."

There are many issues regarding the education of foreign children and their Japanese language learning. While the government says it does not accept migrants, the number of foreign nationals working legally in the country is growing, and they make up the majority of foreign workers. Many of the children of foreign residents need Japanese language instruction, and the number is increasing.

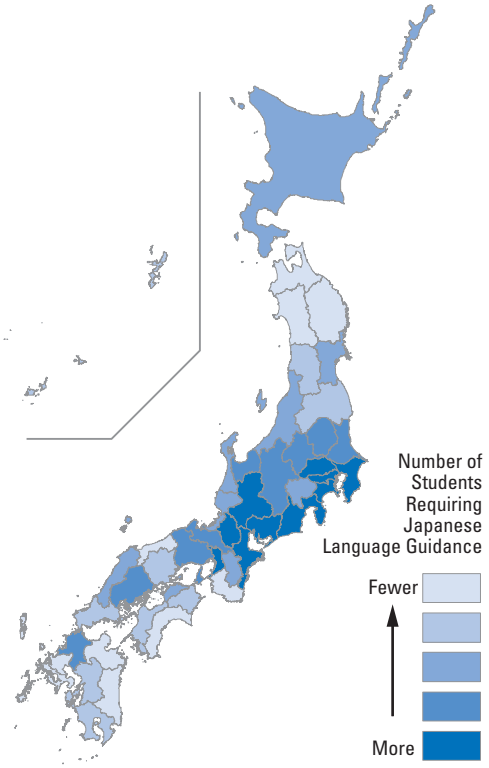
More than 34,000 of the approximately 80,000 foreign children attending public schools require Japanese language guidance, a number that has been growing rapidly in recent years. By prefecture, the number of such children is largest in Aichi, where the most Latin Americans of Japanese descent live, followed by Kanagawa, Tokyo, Shizuoka, and Osaka. This illustrates the reality that the social integration of foreign nationals admitted to Japan has not been smooth (**Figure 6**).

It is also necessary to provide support for foreign children who have not enrolled in school or do not attend. According to a survey by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the high school dropout rate among high school students who require Japanese language learning support is 9% (*Asahi Shimbun*, September 30, 2018 Morning Edition). The ministry conducted its first survey of foreign children not enrolled in school in 2019 finding that 19,654, or 15.8%, of them may fall into this category (*Nihon Keizai Shimbun*, September 28, 2019). In order to prevent the marginalization of foreign residents, there will be an even greater need for consideration and support in relation to their livelihoods, education, and careers. Legally, only Japanese citizens are obligated to ensure that their children receive a standard education, which makes it easier for foreign children to drop out. It is to be expected that the number of foreign residents living in Japan, as well as people with roots over-

seas, whether Japanese or foreign nationals, will increase. Whether or not the "Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals," (announced in December 2018 and discussed below), will produce positive results will undoubtedly have a major impact on the future of Japanese society.

(Section 1 to Section 5 — Jun'ichi Akashi)

Figure 6 : Number of students requiring Japanese language Guidance



Source: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), *Survey on the Admission of Students Requiring Japanese Language Guidance* (2016)

6. Refugees and Refugee Status Applicant

The number of people forced to move due to conflict or persecution (below, "displaced persons") exceeded 50 million at the end of 2013. By the end of 2018, this number had risen to 70.8 million, and the world is now facing the worst refugee crisis since World War II. The international community therefore faces the major challenge of how to protect the ever-increasing number of displaced persons. In December 2018, the Global Compact on Refugees was adopted by the UN General Assembly as a framework for promoting international collaboration in support for refugees. The Compact has four key objectives: (1) to ease the pressures on host countries, (2) to enhance refugees' self-reliance, (3) to expand access to third-country solutions, and (4) support conditions in countries of origin for return in safety and dignity.

Japan joined the Refugee Convention in 1982, but both the number of people granted refugee status and the rate at which applications are approved are the lowest among developed nations, and the country has come under criticism for its reluctance to accept refugees. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the number of people granted refugee status in 2017 (the rate at which refugee status is granted is given in parentheses) was 147,671 (25.7%) in Germany, 26,764 (40.8%) in the United States, 25,281 (17.3%) in France, 13,121 (59.7%) in Canada, 12,496 (31.7%) in the United Kingdom, and 20 (0.2%) in Japan.

The number of applications for refugee status in Japan has increased rapidly since around 2010. According to MOJ statistics, the number of applications was 216 in 2000, 1,202 in 2010 and a record 19,629 by the end of 2017. The main reason for the sharp increase in the number of refugee applications appears to be the increase in applications by people from South and Southeast Asia who are seeking employment opportunities in Japan through the refugee status system (**Figure 7**).

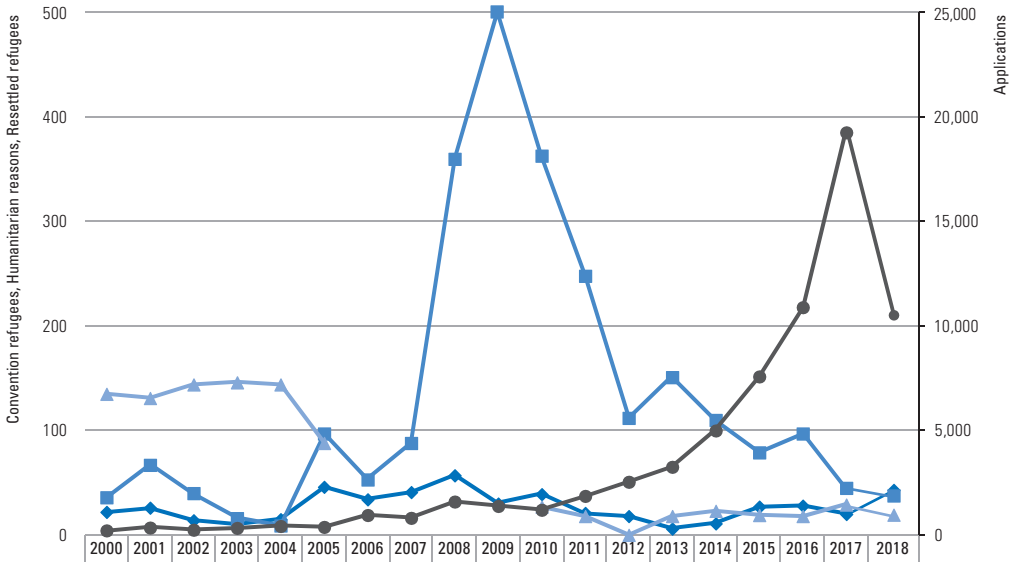
However, even if there are many applications for refugee status for work purposes, it is hard to believe that only a few dozen or so people meet the criteria for refugee status. The MOJ and the courts have set strict criteria regarding the definition of "refugee," and that fact is the principal reason why the number of refugees accepted is so low. In addition, one of the reasons for Japan's reluctance to accept refugees is that many Japa-

nese citizens are also reluctant to accept them. Meanwhile, those who are not recognized as refugees but are unable to return to their country of origin due to unavoidable reasons, such as conflict, are granted special permission to stay for "humanitarian reasons."

What has encouraged the aforementioned refugee applications for work purposes is the reform of how the refugee status system operates. Since 2005, those seeking refugee status have been able to obtain a six-month residency status called "designated activities." In addition, since March 2010, work has been permitted from six months after the application for refugee status has been filed until the completion of the recognition process. The increase in the number of refugee status applications for work purposes may be considered a result of this. Therefore, the MOJ reviewed the operation of the refugee status system in September 2015 and January 2018 with the aim of curbing "abuse and misapplication" of refugee applications. The review has severely restricted the ability of refugee status applicants to work and stay in the country, further destabilizing their livelihoods.

Refugee status is granted for a renewable five-year period, and the residence status will be repeatedly renewed. Some refugee status holders are granted permanent residency. In some cases, those who have obtained permanent residency also naturalize as Japanese citizens. As refugee status holders acquire permanent residence status and progress to naturalization, their legal footing in Japan solidifies and they attain "human security." However, there are no published statistics on the number of refugee status holders who have obtained permanent resident status or become naturalized.

Figure 7 : Refugee asylum in Japan



	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Convention refugees	22	26	14	10	15	46	34	41	57	30	39	21	18	6	11	27	28	20	42
Humanitarian reasons	36	67	40	16	9	97	53	88	360	501	363	248	112	151	110	79	97	45	40
Resettled refugees	135	131	144	146	144	88					27	18	0	18	23	19	18	29	22
Applications	216	353	250	336	426	384	954	816	1599	1388	1202	1867	2545	3260	5000	7586	10,901	19,269	10,493

Note 1: "Convention refugees" refers to the number of persons who have been recognized as refugees under the provisions of the Immigration Act (including the number of persons who have been refused refugee status and then approved as a result of appeals). It should also be noted that those who were granted special permission to stay for "humanitarian reasons" in the primary assessment and then recognized as convention refugees on appeal are recorded in duplicate.

Note 2: "Resettled refugees" refers to Indochinese refugees and refugees settled to a third country (Japan), recording the number of Indochinese refugees between 1978 and 2005 and the number of refugees settled to a third country from 2010 onwards.

Source: Compiled by the author with reference to MOJ, *The Refugee Asylum Situation in Japan*.

Meanwhile, the Japanese government announced in October 2018 that it would consider expanding the acceptance of refugees under the third-country resettlement system from FY 2020, the year the Tokyo Olympics are to be held. Third-country resettlement is a system whereby another country (a secondary country of asylum) receives people who are already granted asylum in another country (the primary country of asylum) but who have difficulty resettling there. Japan became the first country in Asia to accept refugees as a third country in 2010, and has been accepting up to 30 Myanmar refugees per year.

Focusing on the lives of refugees and refugee status applicants in Japan reveals that the support they receive is far from adequate. At the government level, a six-month Japanese language study program for refugee status holders, job placement, and enrollment in the national health insurance program are provided. However, government-level support for refugee status applicants (i.e. those who are in the process of applying) is almost non-existent. In particular, no permission to work will be granted to an applicant if they re-apply after a "refusal of refugee status" has been imposed. This limits their livelihood, survival, and dignity, and threatens their human security.

At the non-governmental level, a number of organizations provide assistance to refugees and refugee status applicants living in Japan. The forms of support can be categorized into (1) legal support for the refugee status application process; (2) livelihood support to help people secure clothing, food and housing; (3) employment support to help people achieve independence; and (4) Japanese language education and support to achieve social inclusion.

On the other hand, in recent years, there have been new attempts to take in refugees at the government and civic (private sponsorship) levels. This is support that not only opens new legal channels for refugee admissions, but also offers educational opportunities. At the governmental level, MEXT and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), are implementing an initiative to accept up to 150 Syrian refugees as international students over a five-year period, starting in 2017. Civic level initiatives include the Refugee Higher Education Program (to help refugees living in Japan to study at Japanese universities), run by the UNHCR Representation in Japan and Japan Association for UNHCR, as well as the Syrian Student Initiative (to provide young Syrians living in Turkey with the opportunity to receive an undergraduate education at International Christian University (ICU)), run by ICU and the Japan Association for Refugees (JAR). It is hoped that efforts at both the government and civic levels will result in human security for more refugees.

(Hiromu Miyashita)

7. Foreign Nationals in Disasters

As Japan is prone to major natural disasters, this presents the challenge of ensuring the safety of foreign residents. After the Great Kanto Earthquake of 1923, false rumors spread amongst the chaos, leading to the killing of many people from the Korean Peninsula. Although such rumors did arise following the Great East Japan Earthquake of 2011, these did not lead to any serious consequences, and in this sense, disaster measures for foreign nationals can be said to have made significant progress. However, the compound disaster caused by the earthquake, the tsunami, and the nuclear power plant accident revealed new difficulties. While some foreigners left Japan in a hurry amid the chaos, the drivers of this movement were often foreign companies and foreign embassies in Japan. This not only disrupted some of the transportation systems needed to respond to the crisis, but also affected the availability of foreign labor and the admission of foreign tourists. It became apparent that the relationship between disasters and the rapidly increasing number of foreign nationals in Japan needed to be reexamined.

This relationship presents two basic challenges. The first is to deal with linguistic differences, for which various measures have been taken. The experience of private sector broadcasting in other languages following the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in 1995 has been used in the Great East Japan Earthquake and other disasters. Across the country, local authority councils for international relations are sharing their experiences, preparing materials, and conducting training. In the immediate aftermath of a disaster, a multilingual hotline to support local governments and NHK's multilingual emergency information services are also available. Municipalities have distributed disaster prevention manuals in multiple languages, and some have also prepared multilingual signs at evacuation centers. The Ministry of Information and Communication (MIC) has prepared an information coordinator system to assist foreign nationals during disasters.

In terms of safety confirmation, after the Great East Japan Earthquake, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) worked with Facebook to develop a feature that would allow people to inform others of their situation in emergencies. Google and The Japanese Red Cross Society have prepared applications for safety checks. MOFA is also working to improve information sharing with embassies and consulates in Japan, while embassies are bolstering their systems for providing information in the event of a disaster, such as by conducting disaster drills. The previously mentioned Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals include the training of "information and assistance coordinators for foreign nationals during disasters," and attention will be paid as to how effective it is.

The second, more difficult, challenge is dealing with cultural differences. For example, it is not practical to stockpile halal or vegetarian food at all shelters. Preparing prayer areas in evacuation centers and creating separate sections for men and women is difficult amid the chaos of a disaster. Retailers, churches, and others with deep roots in the community could play an effective role in stockpiling through their own networks. Evacuation efforts by foreign nationals following the Great East Japan Earthquake also led to increased anxieties among ordinary citizens, who had no experience of multiculturalism, about living in the same place as foreigners and hearing languages they did not understand. There were some who did not go to evacuation centers because of these worries. In order to prevent such a situation from occurring, it is important to promote multicultural coexistence on a day-to-day basis.

There are also many challenges to face aside from these difficulties. "Foreigners" cannot be treated as one homogeneous group. Permanent residents, spouses, trainees, international students, tourists, etc. all have different needs. In 2018, Typhoon Jebi (Typhoon No. 21) caused severe damage to Kansai International Airport, which became cut off. Although this presented the problem of dealing with large numbers of passengers, the needs of travelers differ from those that arose during the Great East Japan Earthquake and 2016 Kumamoto earthquake. Measures must be taken to meet the various circumstances that foreign nationals find themselves in during disasters. In times of disaster, it will be essential to have not just public assistance, but also cooperation with the community. For example, in order for local authorities for international relations to function during disasters, it requires disaster countermeasures aimed at strengthening the local authorities' capabilities, such as having multilingual foreign students and permanent residents living locally work together with them as volunteers.

Despite the progress made in the development of an information provision system, the imbalance between the disaster information available domestically and abroad remains a problem. This causes the situation imaged overseas based on news reports to diverge from the reality on the ground. Relatives and friends abroad put

pressure not only on the individual concerned, but also on the government for an early return, which will ultimately have an impact. When foreign governments and businesses respond in a different way from the Japanese government, it affects the credibility of the Japanese government's actions and increases public anxiety. In an information society, credibility can only be obtained from a variety of sources, and therefore the participation of various actors in disaster management is required. Future disaster policy development should include disaster management plans that provide equal protection to all people in Japanese society and also require them to contribute. If it is not possible to address their various needs in an emergency as one community, it will be difficult to mount an effective response.

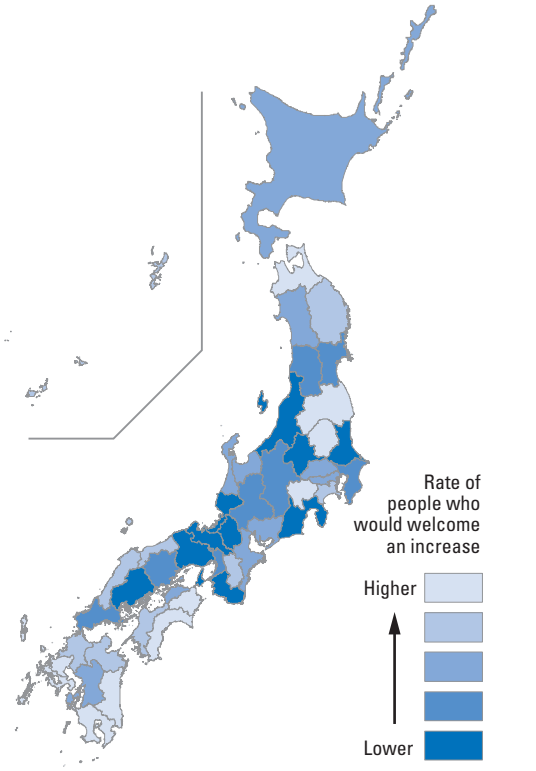
(Oscar Gómez)

8. Acceptance of Foreigners

Will the rapid increase in the number of foreign residents cause friction with Japanese society? There is also cause for concern over criticism of foreign residents receiving livelihood protection allowance and the xenophobia evidenced by hate speech directed at foreigners. In a nationwide internet survey conducted by this project, respondents were asked if they would welcome more foreigners in their own neighborhoods. While 17.8% responded that they would welcome an increase, 37.4% responded that they would not, a figure more than twice as high. Moreover, the number of those strongly opposed to an increase (15.1%) far surpasses the number who would strongly welcome such (3.2%), indicating that a considerable number of people do not welcome an increase of foreigners as their neighbors.

However, combining "cannot say either way" (33%) and "do not know" (8%) gives a total of 40% of respondents with no definitive opinion. The degree of acceptance toward foreigners is fluid, and there is a lot of scope for those in favor of and against admitting them to change. The results by age group show that, for both men and women, the proportion of respondents who would welcome an increase goes down with age, and the proportion of not welcoming goes up. It is clear from this result that younger generation tends to be less resistant to having more foreigners in their neighborhoods (**Indicator J11**, **Figure 8**).

Figure 8 : Rate of people who would welcome an increase in the number of foreign residents in their neighborhood



Source: Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations (August 2018)

By prefecture, Nagasaki residents were the most likely to welcome the arrival of more foreigners in their area, followed in turn by those in Fukushima, Tochigi, Saga, Kagoshima, Yamanashi, and Kochi. Wakayama residents were the least likely, followed by those in Gunma, Kyoto, Shiga, Shizuoka, Ibaraki, and Fukui.

Major relevant laws, regulations, and public measures

In 2006, the government presented a set of "Comprehensive Measures for 'Foreign Nationals as Residents.'" In the same year, the MIC drew up and announced its "**Plan for the Promotion of Multicultural Coexistence in Local Communities.**" Efforts such as support for foreign residents at the local community and municipal level have expanded following the publication of "Examples of Multicultural Coexistence" in 2017. In December 2018, the Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals were drawn up, including a total budget proposal of 21.1 billion yen.

The thinking underlying this "comprehensive response" includes the perspective of "accepting all foreign nationals with residence status as members of society, without letting them become isolated." The key measures include "listening to opinions and awareness raising activities to realize a society of harmonious coexistence with foreign nationals," "support for foreign nationals as residents," "efforts aimed at promoting appropriate and smooth acceptance of foreign nationals," and "the establishment of a new residency management system," raising the possibility that unprecedented measures and mechanisms will be developed.

Improved provision of opportunities for Japanese language education is one typical example of such efforts, but there is also expected to be enhanced institutional support. This will involve the assignment of medical interpreters at key medical facilities in the region as well as the establishment of "One-Stop Comprehensive Consultation Centers for Multicultural Coexistence" (provisional name) in 100 locations across the country, providing information and consultations on public administration and daily life in 11 languages.

As regards foreign workers, the decision has been made to improve the admission of foreign technical interns and, from April 2019, to accept them into a variety of occupations under the new "Specified Skilled Worker" residence status. In addition, there has been recent progress in promoting enrollment in the social insurance system and the creation of bilateral government documents to eliminate unscrupulous brokers. There is considerable interest from all quarters as to how effective the support measures, which are being expanded alongside the increase in the number of foreign workers admitted to the country, will be in the future.

The MIPEX (Migrant Integration Policy Index), an international survey on the social integration of legally resident foreign nationals, is a useful reference for assessing the government's efforts. The survey covered 38 countries in 2015, with Japan ranked 27th (44 points), Sweden first (78 points), Portugal second (75 points) and New Zealand third (70 points). Among Japan's policy indicators, education and anti-discrimination are particularly low, ranking 29th (21 points) and 37th (22 points), respectively.

Regarding education, the **Act on Securing Compulsory Education Opportunities** came into effect in 2016, obliging national and local governments to draw up and implement measures to secure educational opportunities for children, regardless of nationality or other factors. Regarding anti-discrimination, the **Hate Speech Elimination Act** was passed in 2016. However, this law is a so-called "law of principle" and does not provide for penalties. In 2019, the **Act on the Promotion of Japanese Language Education**, which sets out the responsibilities of national and local governments in this respect, was promulgated and enacted.

The success of the government's policies will be determined by the response at the local government level, particularly in terms of multicultural coexistence policies. For example, there are initiatives for reflecting the voices of foreign residents in city administration, as in the case of Kawasaki City's Representative Assembly for Foreign Residents. Moreover, in some prefectures, measures have been taken by Councils for the Promotion of the Appropriate Intake of Foreign Technical Interns, made up of multiple stakeholders. The Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals state that regional revitalization grants will be given to local governments for "leading" initiatives to promote harmonious coexistence, providing a boost to local communities that offer support for foreign residents.

(Jun'ichi Akashi)

Pioneering initiatives by private organizations, etc.

Shinjuku City Multicultural Town Development Council

Tokyo's Shinjuku Ward is one of the most multinational areas in the country, with 43,000 foreign residents (12% of the total population) from 133 countries and regions. In 2005, Shinjuku Ward opened Shinjuku Multicultural Plaza to provide Japanese language education and consultations to the growing number of foreign residents. In 2012, the Shinjuku City Multicultural Town Development Council was established, aiming to make Shinjuku a more livable city by considering its development from the perspective of both Japanese and foreign residents. At present, more than 30 Japanese and foreign residents and experts are participating in the project. After initially addressing the issues of education for foreign children and disaster prevention, it deliberated on the topics of housing and livelihoods, submitting a report to the mayor in August 2018. It is when they try to rent a home that foreigners feel most discriminated against. The committee worked with landlords and realtors' associations to find solutions on how to eliminate discrimination and prevent problems from occurring.

The Town Development Council provides a valuable opportunity for foreigners living in Japan and Japanese residents to talk with each other on an equal footing in order to resolve issues surrounding foreign nationals. The ward office has actively taken up the proposals and worked to commercialize the solutions, which has strengthened the trust between foreign residents, Japanese residents, and the ward office. It is difficult for local governments alone to pick up the issues that arise in the community day-to-day. It is important to have this kind of forum, where foreign and Japanese residents can discuss and develop proposals together that will lead to tangible solutions.

Going forward, the number of foreign residents is expected to increase throughout the country. The example of Shinjuku Ward may demonstrate one of the most effective ways to resolve issues that can arise between foreign and Japanese residents.

(Toshihiro Menju, Chairman of the Shinjuku Multicultural Community Building Committee)

WELgee

The name of the organization is a portmanteau of "welcome" and "refugee." WELgee is a non-profit organization that works for participation in society on the part of applicants for refugee status (referred to simply as refugees below). Members are from varied international backgrounds, transcending differences such as nationality, race, and religion. The young African man who founded the organization with me talked about the genocide in his homeland, brokers, conflicts relating to Japanese culture, a daily life of eating by himself feeling lonely, his desire for peace, his love for his homeland, compassion for the weak, and the potential of Japan. People who have been forced to leave their families, friends, careers, and social roles behind start new lives in Japan, a place with a different culture, customs, and language. Rather than one-way assistance for refugees, our focus is on projects where we work together. These include: (1) "Talk with", a venue for dialog where refugees can connect with Japanese society; (2) "Live with", where, together with refugees who need a place to live, we can think about what the next step is; and (3) "Work with", where refugees can make use of their expertise and experience through work. Additionally, each month, 30–40 people, from junior high school students to seniors, professionals, and office workers, gather together at the WELgee Salon for dialogue with refugees. Through crowdfunding, we have also managed to buy a shared house in Chiba. The renovation process connects applicants with local residents and expands the potential of the community. In Japan, where the refugee approval rate is less than 1%, most applicants are not granted refugee status, and many are in the precarious situation of waiting for results. Even if they are not granted refugee status, they search for ways to gain a stable legal status through work that makes use of their skills. Their calls of "to live is to work" have gradually come to fruition in the areas of IT and machinery. I want to think and interact with people in a human-centered way, rather than trying to fit them into a pattern of system or project. We provide options that allow people to realize the dreams and visions that they can draw on as a direct result of overcoming adversity. These are people who have learned and worked in Japan that has sustained them, and who will be the future bearers of a peaceful society in their home countries. It is exactly for that reason that we want to build a more interesting, peaceful, and tolerant world together.

(Sayaka Watanabe, Representative, WELgee (WELCOME + refugee)

Recommendations

As Japan's population continues to shrink in line with a falling number of children and an aging population, the country is relying on the power of foreign nationals to maintain its economy and society. While there is a tendency to accept foreign nationals as simply as a source of labor, the reality is that the number of foreign nationals settling in Japan and living there permanently has been steadily increasing, and is expected to increase further in the future. Naturally, there is a need to improve the systems that support foreigners' day-to-day lives. It is also essential to further develop systems to assist in the education of foreign children, including their Japanese language skills.

1. In accordance with the government's Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals, the relevant government bodies must steadily implement the measures and policies required, strive to follow up on them, and continue to bolster efforts aimed at ensuring the dignity of foreign residents in Japan and improving their circumstances.

2. In order to bring in and coexist with foreign workers, it is important to have not only government-led policies and laws, but also a proactive approach from local governments, businesses and civil society, as well as increased provision of education that appeals to people's awareness. In addition, local governments and the private sector must promote measures and programs to improve the living conditions of foreign nationals. We hope that the government will further encourage and support these efforts.

3. Stronger partnership is required between Japan and the international community for the implementation of international norms, such as the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration and the Global Compact on Refugees, which were adopted by the UN General Assembly in December 2018.

How much future progress will be made at the national and local levels in building mechanisms for coexistence with foreign residents of various nationalities, races, ethnicities, and religions? This is one of the most pressing issues facing Japan.

(Jun'ichi Akashi)

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Poverty, Inequality, and Discrimination

The aim of this book is to realize the core objective of the SDGs: a society where no one is left behind. To this end, the project team has drawn up the Human Security Indicators of Japan, comprising the elements of life, livelihood and dignity, while also transforming relevant prefecture-level data into corresponding life, livelihood and dignity indices, as well as a combined overall index. In addition, an internet survey was conducted to investigate people's subjective evaluations, which are difficult to capture using the existing statistics alone. This has allowed us to analyze the actual situation and issues facing each individual group, thereby visualizing the kind of people who are left behind in Japan today and the extent of the disparities between regions. Part 3 will provide an overview of human security in Japan, including poverty, inequality, and discrimination, as revealed by the indicators, the internet survey, and the analysis results from individual sections.

Chapter 13
Human Security Challenges for Japan

1. Poverty and Inequality

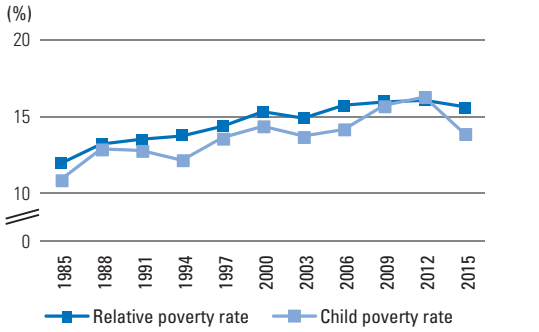
The SDGs incorporate many indicators aimed at eliminating poverty and inequality, setting out to achieve the following by 2030:

SDGs Goal 1 (Ending poverty) aims to reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty (Target 1.2), and also to implement social protection systems for the poor and vulnerable (Target 1.3). Goal 2 (Ending hunger) aims to ensure sufficient access for all people to safe food (Target 2.1). Goal 3 (Health and well-being) sets out to provide all people with necessary healthcare services, achieving universal health coverage (Target 3.8).

Goal 4 (Education) aims to ensure that all children have equal access to primary and secondary education, pre-primary education, and higher education. Goal 5 (Gender Equality) aims for gender equality in all fields, including childcare, nursing care, politics, and the economy. Goal 8 (Work) sets out to achieve full and productive employment for all people, including equal pay for work of equal value (Target 8.5), as well as significantly reducing the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training by 2020 (Target 8.6). Goal 10 (Reducing inequality) involves progressively achieving greater equality through tax, wage, and social security policies (Target 10.4). Goal 16 (Inclusive societies) involves promoting and enforcing non-discriminatory laws and policies (Target 16b).

The issue of child poverty has attracted a growing attention as a Japan's problem in recent years. In response, the government and regional public bodies have made efforts to reduce poverty through legislation, guidelines (e.g. for children, young people and the elderly) and additional measures. These measures resulted in a decline in the relative poverty rate to 15.6% and a decline in the child poverty rate to 13.9% in 2015, as described in the chapter on children (Chapter 5). The decline in the relative poverty rate is welcome, serving as proof that targeted measures can produce results. Nevertheless, it is still high compared to the 1985 figure of 10.9%, and the continuing upward trend in the poverty rate over the past 30 years must be taken seriously (Figure 1).

Figure 1 : **Relative poverty rate and child poverty rate in Japan**



Source: Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW), *2016 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions*

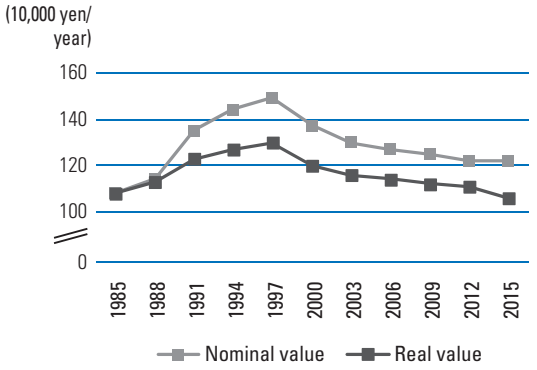
Note: The average relative poverty rate in OECD countries is 11.9%, and the average child poverty rate is 13.3% (2015).

There are also problems with how this poverty rate is calculated, and it has been suggested that it is wrong to assume that poverty has improved as a result of the decline in this figure (Michio Goto, *Improvement in the "Relative Poverty Rate" and the Expanding and Deepening of Poverty*, 2018). In addition, the child poverty rate in Okinawa Prefecture was calculated to be 29.9% (in 2016), more than twice the national rate. Since there is likely to be a large disparity in the poverty rate between prefectures, there is a need for an in-depth analysis of the extent to which the actual situation has improved.

In terms of disposable income, which forms the basis for calculating poverty rate, growth has been almost zero for the past 20 years, a result of companies keeping wages down since the 1990s while the burden of taxes and social security contributions (health insurance fees, long-term care insurance fees, and pension contribution rates) has increased (Nikko Research Center, *Stagnant Consumption*, 2017). Large companies have been cutting costs, holding down wages and increasing non-regular employment, despite their ordinary profits having grown for the last 20 years. This has caused labor's share of income to decline from 60% in 2000 to 53% in 2016 (Ministry of Finance (MOF), *Financial Statements Statistics of Corporations by Industry*), reaching a 43-year low in 2017. Similarly, over this 20-year period, wage growth has trailed productivity growth. On average, real salaries for employed workers have remained largely unchanged.

If the disposable incomes of the population as a whole fall, the poverty line, which calculates the relative poverty rate (income at half the median disposable income), will fall, regardless of the necessary cost of living. The poverty line was 1.5 million yen per year at the end of the 1990s, but recently it has been at a nominal 1.22 million yen (2015), the lowest amount since 1988 (1.14 million), with real disposable income (1.06 million yen) also at its lowest since the same year (1.13 million yen) (**Figure 2**). The real value of the poverty line has fallen and the quality of life that can be sustained by the nominal poverty standard has declined. It would be premature to conclude that poverty has improved just because the rate of population below the poverty rate has fallen, due to the fact that disposable income has not grown, and the poverty line has fallen. 15.6% is still a high poverty rate among developed countries. With this figure corresponding to 19.8 million people, there is no doubt that it represents a major social problem.

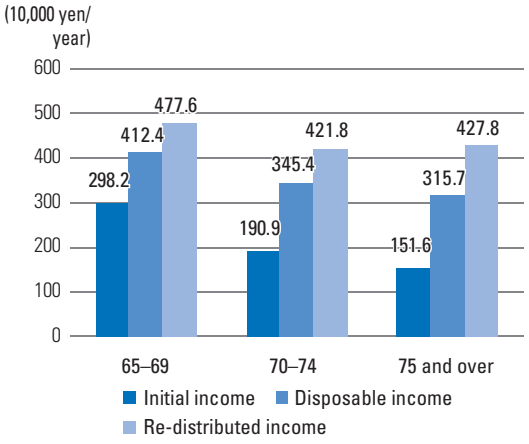
Figure 2 : Changes in the poverty line over time



Source: MHLW, *2016 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions*

In particular, although the poverty rate for single-parent households has improved slightly (a 3.8% improvement, 50.8% in 2015), it remains above 50%. In many developed countries, the average is only about 20%. With Japan among the worst major countries, child poverty among single parent households also remains a serious issue. While the employment rate of single-parent households is high (90% for men and 80% for women), more than half are in poverty due to the low wages of female non-regular employees (part-time workers). The fact that the poverty rate between double-income households and single-parent households differs by only about 10% indicates that household budget does not change significantly even if additional people in the family work, demonstrating the extent to which women's salaries are kept low. Against the backdrop of unstable employment conditions for parents supporting families, the average employment

Figure 3 : Household income of elderly people (yearly, 10,000s yen)



Source: MHLW, *Survey on the Redistribution of Income* (2014)

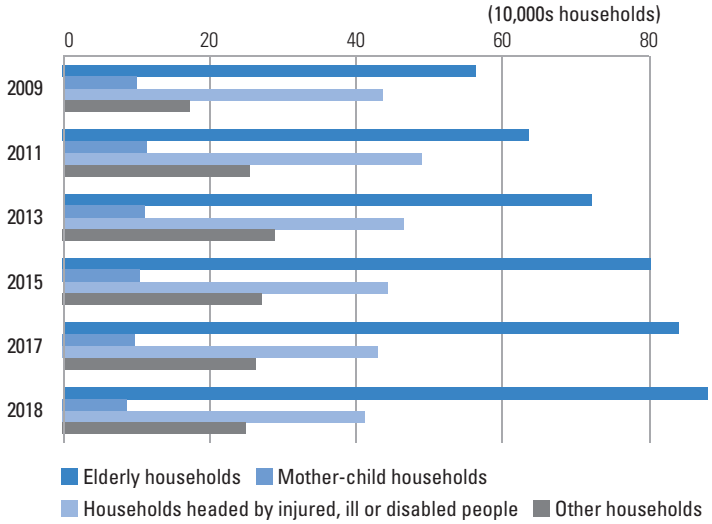
income of single-mother households in particular is just 2.093 million yen (3.736 million yen for all households), and although child-rearing allowance for single-parent households and school attendance support are available, single-mother households struggle to make ends meet due to childcare and education expenses (according to the MHLW, 1.15 million households are in receipt of child-rearing allowance).

In addition, with the aging of the population, inequality is widening in terms of household income for those aged 65 and over (34.59 million people). After taxation and after income redistribution, the gap with the working-age population has narrowed on the whole, but there is a large gap between elderly households, as shown by the fact that 839,000 elderly households (2.89 per 1,000 people) are on livelihood protection (**Figure 3**).

In September 2017, the number of households receiving livelihood protection (monthly average) reached its highest level (1.642 million households, or 2.155 million people, 1.7% of the population) since the survey began in 1951. In 2018, the majority (54%) of recipients were elderly households, of which more than 90% were households comprised of single elderly people. These are followed by households headed by injured, ill or disabled people (25% of recipient households) and mother-child households (5%) (**Figure 4**).

The prefecture with the highest number of livelihood protection recipients (per thousand people) was Osaka (32.1), followed by Hokkaido

Figure 4 : Number of households receiving livelihood protection



Source: MHLW, *National Survey on Public Assistance Recipients* (2018)

(30.1), Kochi (26.2), Okinawa (25.0), Fukuoka (24.5), and Aomori (22.8). The lowest was Toyama (3.3), followed by Fukui (5.1), Nagano (5.2), Gifu (5.7), Ishikawa (6.3), and Yamagata (7.0) (**Indicator E4**).

Now, livelihood protection has become a safety net for people who are not eligible for a pension or for elderly people who cannot live on their pension alone. A major factor in the lowering of the poverty line is the growth of the elderly population, which indicates that poverty among the elderly is severe. Assuming that fundamental reform of the pension system is difficult to achieve in the short term, the proportion of poor elderly people can be expected to increase in the future. The proportion of households made up of single people aged 65 and over is increasing (47.4 % in FY 2017). Moreover, at each higher age, the number of households comprised of single women increases, and the disparity with men grows wider. Some estimates suggest that if this trend continues, half of these single elderly women will be forced to rely on livelihood protection.

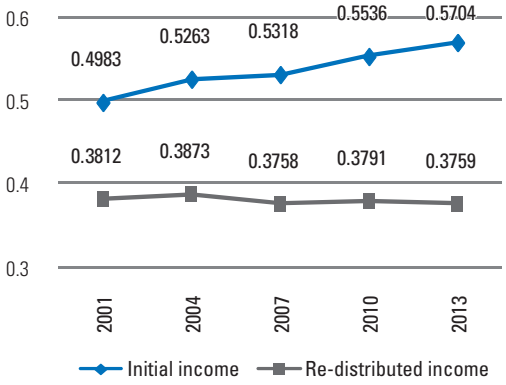
A tendency for people to receive livelihood protection for longer periods of time has also been identified. For example, in Osaka City, the average number of days has increased from 600 (2011) to 900 (2016) (Norimichi Goishi, *Osaka City Public Sector Analysis Project*, 2017). Furthermore, while the poverty line has fallen in real terms, the number of households that are above the official poverty line (annual income of 1.22 million yen) but do not meet the standards for livelihood protection has increased (the MHLW estimates that out of 5.97 million households below this level, 2.29 million households would meet the requirements to receive livelihood protection). It is estimated that 400,000 people each year apply for livelihood protection but are not approved, and some reports estimate that between 6 and 8.5 million people are excluded from livelihood protection because of the stringent eligibility tests and conditions (such as savings amounts) and the complexity of the application process. While there are a large number of people in arrears on their national health insurance fees (3.36 million), the proportion of household with 30 million yen or more among those with financial assets reached its highest level (15.6%) in 2018, indicating that inequality is steadily growing.

Now there are more low-income earners earning less than 3 million yen a year, fewer upper-middle class earners earning up to 9 million yen a year, resulting in lower average incomes overall. Regional differences are also large, with high incomes per household in the Kanto, Tokai, and Hokuriku areas, and low in such regions as Okinawa/Kyushu, Shikoku, and Hokkaido (**Indicator C1**).

The Gini coefficient, which measures income inequality, has been increasing rapidly since 2000 (from 0.4983 in 2002 to 0.5704 in 2014) due to the aging of the population and an increase in the number of working poor. After redistribution through social security measures and taxation, there is some improvement, but it remains at a high level (a slight decrease from 0.3812 to 0.3759 over the same period) (**Figure 5**). Even if income redistribution effects have improved general inequality to some extent, if there are people out there who are left in absolute poverty, albeit in a relatively limited number of households, then human security for all has not been achieved. The extent of income inequality differs between regions. The Gini coefficient is high in such prefectures as Tokyo, Oita, Kochi, Shimane, and Aomori, and low in Iwate, Nagano, Tottori, Niigata, and Ehime (**Indicator C3**). As this suggests, the picture provided by the national relative poverty rate is far from the full story where poverty is concerned.

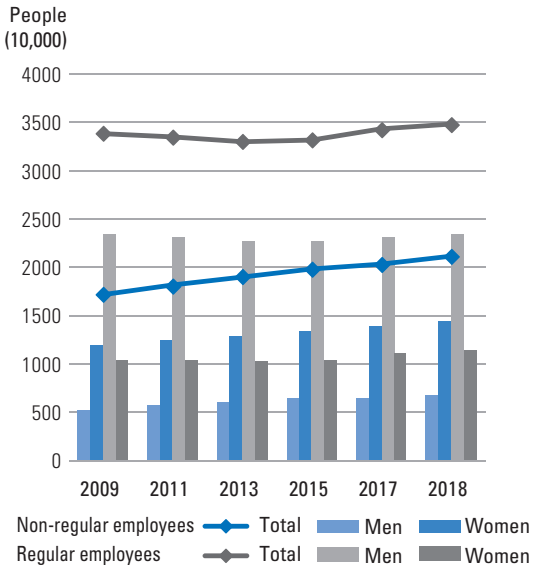
Although the employment situation has improved significantly in recent years, with a high jobs-to-applicants ratio (1.59 in July 2019) and a reduction in the number of unemployed people (1.62 million in June 2019), the proportion of people in precarious employment conditions (part-time employees, dispatch employees, contract employees, etc.) has risen sharply (to 21.2 million, 37.9% of all employees) (**Figure 6**).

Figure 5 : Trends in the Gini coefficient over time



Source: MHLW, *Survey on the Redistribution of Income* (2014)

Figure 6 : Trends in the number of regular and non-regular employees

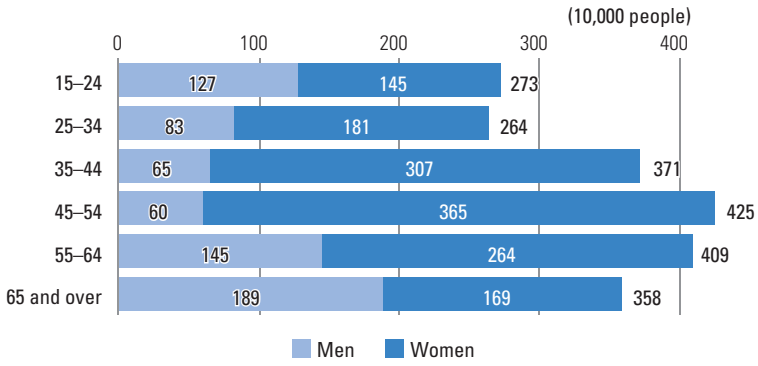


Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC), *Labour Force Survey* (2018)

Broken down by gender, the data shows that women account for two-thirds of all non-regular employees, and an even higher proportion among those aged 35–54. The rate of non-regular employment for men decreases in each higher age group from 15–24 to 45–54, but then increases again beyond the age of 55 (**Figure 7**). Part-time work makes up the majority of non-regular employment, at 79% for women and 51% for men. Among men, however, from the 25–34 to 55–64 age groups, the number of contract and dispatch employees is around 400,000, far exceeding the figure for part-time jobs. These figures are particularly high among those aged 55–64 and 65 and over, with the number of contract/temporary employees, rising to 970,000 and 760,000 in these respective groups. Among women, contract, dispatch, and temporary employees also account for a significant number, increasing successively in the 25–34, 35–44, and 45–54 age groups, at 580,000, 690,000, and 720,000 respectively. While overall, the most common reason for people being employed on a non-regular basis is that they "want to work when it is convenient for them," among men aged 25–64 (1.27 million in total), the most common reason is "a lack of regular staff/employee jobs." A similar number of women cite the lack of regular staff/employee jobs as the reason for their non-regular employment (1.29 million). Women aged 25–44 years old were more likely to say that it was "easy to balance such jobs with work, childcare, nursing care, etc.," while women aged 45–54 years old were more likely to say that it was "to ease the household budget, earn school fees, etc." (*Labor Force Survey*, 2018).

It is also worth noting that the proportion of non-regular workers varies widely across regions (32.6–43.1%, with an average of 38.2%). As described in the chapter on young people (Chapter 7), rates of non-regular employees are

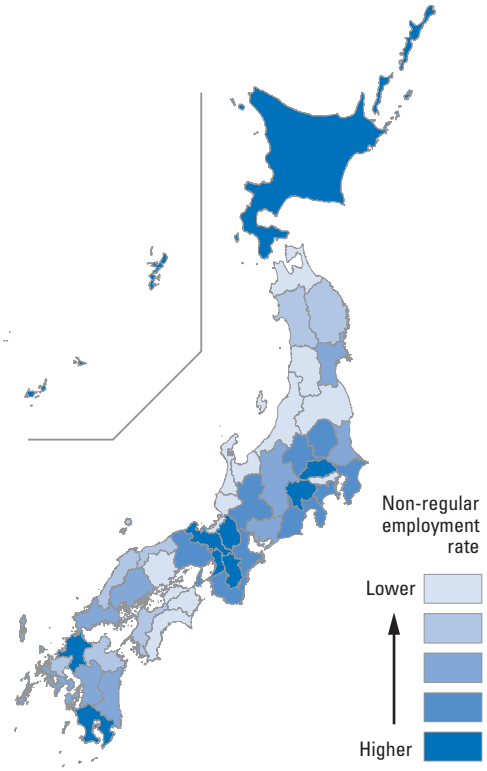
Figure 7 : Breakdown of non-regular employees by age



Source: MIC, *Labour Force Survey* (2018)

low in such prefectures as Tokushima (32.6%), Yamagata (32.8%), Toyama (33.1%), Kagawa (34.5%), Fukui (34.6%), but high in others such as Okinawa (43.1%), Kyoto (42.5%), Nara (41.1%), Yamanashi (40.8%), and Shiga (40.6%) (**Indicator C5, Figure 8**).

Figure 8 : Non-regular employment rate

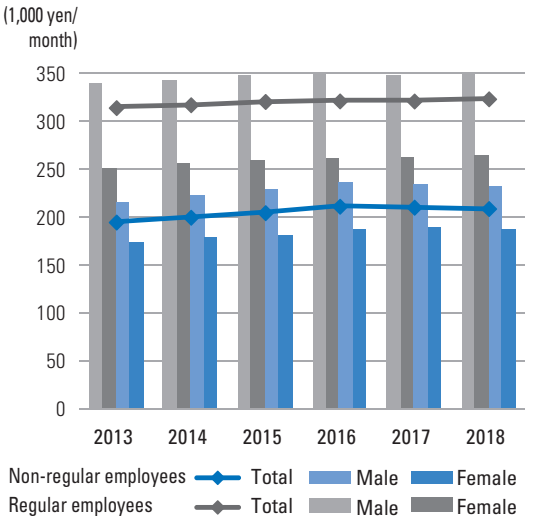


Source: MIC, *Employment Status Survey* (2017)

The income gap between workers is large, with wages for men in non-regular employment only 66.2% of those in regular employment, a figure that stands at 70.8% for women (average monthly wages in FY2018 were 351,100 yen for men in regular employment, 232,500 yen for men in non-regular employment, 265,300 yen for women in regular employment, and 187,900 yen for women in non-regular employment) (**Figure 9**).

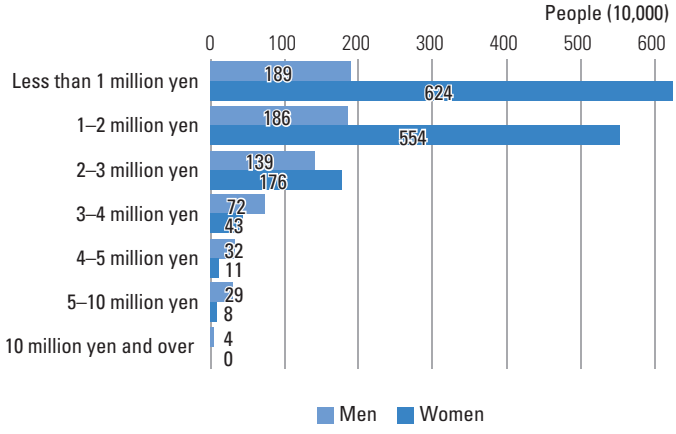
Among non-regular employees, those with an annual income of less than 2 million yen

Figure 9 : The wage gap between regular and non-regular employees



Source: MHLW, *Basic Survey on Wage Structure* (2018)

Figure 10 : Yearly income of non-regular employees



Source: MIC, *Labour Force Survey* (2017)

account for nearly 60% of men and more than 80% of women, and as a result, the poverty rate for non-regular employees has reached 38.7% (48.5% for women) (**Figure 10**).

It has been shown that many non-regular employees have been excluded from unemployment insurance, employee pensions, health care and other social insurance, corporate benefits, and stable employment that are provided to regular employees, and thus liable to slip into poverty. These concerns have been recognized by upper management.

> "As a manager, the first thing I've been thinking about is that, relative to the last 20 or so years of low growth, we've held back wage growth too much. People in their 30s who are dedicated to their work seem to think that their wages won't change much regardless of how hard they work, and I felt that Japan could not achieve economic growth under these circumstances. The second is that Japan's system of lifetime employment has gradually collapsed. One aspect of this is the low wages of non-regular employment, but the problem is larger than that. The marketization of wage levels is proceeding against the background of labor shortages, especially of specific professionals. The reality is that managers are constantly struggling to find ways to motivate their workers" (quoted in a letter from Hiroaki Nakanishi, Chairman of the Japan Business Federation, to Yohei Sasakawa, Chairman of the Nippon Foundation, dated August 14, 2018).

The fact that rates of those receiving livelihood protection have remained high even as the job market has improved significantly, along with the increase in the number of poor households among the elderly, indicates that poverty among young people is persistent. The long-term (over one year) unemployed people account for 550,000 (30.4%) of the 1.84 million unemployed, and are predominantly men aged 25–54 (*Labour Force Survey*). The generation that emerged during the "employment ice age" (now aged 35–44) accounts for more than 20% of the long-term unemployed, indicating that their failure to find regular employment after graduation has had an impact to the present day. The number of unemployed people in this age group who are neither working nor looking for work is also high at 410,000 (MHLW, 2017), and the challenge of securing the livelihoods of this generation when it reaches old age is a substantial one.

Inequality has been growing for 40 years since 1980 or so, and analysis suggests that the class of non-regular workers now forms the poorest underclass, with disparities fixed into five classes in terms of incomes, attitudes to life, lifestyles, and ways of thinking (Kenji Hashimoto, *The New Japanese Class Society*, 2018). It is important to recognize the reality that inequality is widening.

Children, women, the elderly, and foreign nationals are the groups most at risk of being left behind, but an analysis of individual segments shows considerable individual variation even within the same group. This is especially pronounced in children, women, and the elderly. More than half of single-parent households have incomes below the poverty line, and children from single-mother families in particular are growing up in difficult financial circumstances. The poverty rate among single women in non-regular employment is also high. Among those aged 65 and over, 61.6% of the people surveyed for this project are satisfied with their lives. The percentage of those who are not satisfied (14.0%), while only a quarter as many as those who are satisfied, is still a significant proportion (equivalent to 4.842 million people if calculated for the elderly population). With elderly households making up an ever-increasing proportion of those receiving livelihood protection, it is important to reduce that proportion and resolve the situation that makes life difficult for a particular segment of society. At the same time, the situation in which certain people, regardless of their numbers, have their way of life

severely limited as a result of their identity must be resolved in and of itself. This requires us to make visible the reality of poverty and of those who say they are not satisfied with their lives.

2. The Perils of Inequality

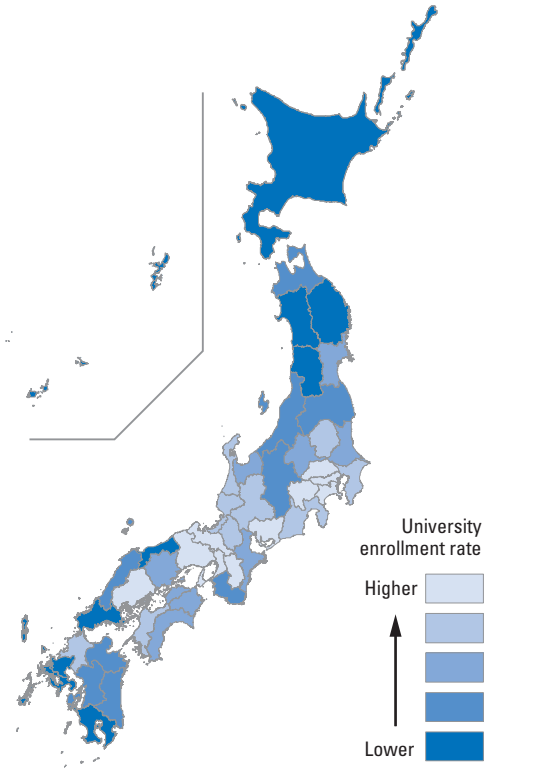
Widening inequality produces various adverse effects on society, creating chains to succeeding generations.

Disparities in Education

The difficulty faced by children from poor families in reaching higher education is an important factor behind disparities in academic attainment, educational background, employment, and lifetime wages (according to a study by the Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training, lifetime wages are 320 million yen for college and graduate school graduates and 240 million yen for high school graduates, a gap of 80 million yen). The percentage of students going on to university (excluding vocational schools) is only 19.0% for households receiving livelihood protection and 41.9% for single-parent households, compared to 52.0% for all households (according to the Cabinet Office's FY 2017 report). It is also noteworthy that there are large regional and gender disparities in college enrollment rates. By prefecture, Kyoto had the highest rate, followed by Tokyo, Kanagawa, Hiroshima, Hyogo, and Osaka, while Okinawa had the lowest rate, followed in order by Tottori, Yamaguchi, Kagoshima, Iwate, and Saga, displaying a difference of more than 26 points in the university enrollment rate compared to metropolitan areas (**Indicator D6, Figure 11**).

According to a report by the Nippon Foundation that examined disparities in family finances and children's abilities (*Analysis of Family Financial Disparities and Children's Cognitive and Non-Cognitive Ability Gaps*, 2017), the academic performance of children in poverty declines sharply after the fourth grade of elementary school (age 10), with the academic performance

Figure 11 : Regional disparities in university enrollment rates



Source: Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), *School Basic Survey* (2018)

of children in poor households clustering at lower levels and children in non-poor households at higher ones. Only 67.1% of the children from households receiving livelihood protection went on to full-time high school, with 6.4% finding employment with a junior high school diploma, 10.9% attending a part-time high school, and 6.7% attending a correspondence high school. Their high school dropout rate (4.1%) is also higher than that among all households (1.4%), and only 35.3% (73.0% among all households) go on to higher education, including vocational schools, making it extremely difficult to acquire the skills, knowledge and educational credential needed to escape poverty. A study by Tokyo Metropolitan University Professor Aya Abe (*Analysis of the Impact of Childhood Poverty on Adult Living Difficulties*, 2011) found that the early-life disadvantage of difficult financial circumstances at age 15 continue to affect living standards in adulthood. As this shows, Japanese

society is a far cry from one that gives second chances. When family poverty robs people of the opportunity to learn in the early stages of their life and education, it is extremely difficult to relearn in adulthood.

Life Planning

Young people's poverty also affects their families. It has been shown that the lower a man's annual income, the less likely they are to be married (Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training, *Current Conditions and Issues in Youth Employment Support*, 2005). For men, the marriage rate decreases significantly when annual income is less than 3 million yen. Among men in their early 30s, the proportion of full-time employees with a spouse is 58%, compared to 23% for non-regular employees. There is an increasing proportion of men who, as a result of facing poverty and deprivation, remain unmarried, unable to find value in their own existence and hope for the future, and unable to plan their lives, with the lifetime unmarried rate for men (calculated as the rate of those who have not married by age 50) reaching 25.7% in 2017 (the rate for women is 14.0%). The percentage of young people in their 20s who have not paid their national pension contributions has reached 50%, and this figure stands at 20% even among those in their 50s. This means that the number of people who, even in retirement, will not be able to receive pensions and will face difficulty planning for their lives, is increasing.

Daily Life and Health

Poor people are more prone to mental stress and poor health. Among both men and women, the lower a person's income, the lower their intake of meat and vegetables, the higher the rate of obesity due to differences in diet and other factors, and the higher the rate of missed health checkups (MHLW, *2014 National Health and Nutrition Survey*). Studies have also shown adverse impacts on the health of low-income households due to the fact that they are more likely to live in rented housing, pay more in rent as a proportion of household income, and are more likely to live in decaying, damaged, and unhealthy housing (Katsura Maruyama, *Housing Standards in Low-Income Households*, 2018). The negative impact on health in daily life leads to lower life expectancy, increased health inequalities, and higher health care costs.

Social Losses

The adverse social costs of increasing inequality are also significant. A study by the National Institute for Research Advancement (*The Precarity of the Employment Ice-Age Generation*, 2008) estimated that as the number of people in poverty increases, the number of people who cannot afford to pay taxes will increase, as will social security costs, resulting in a 17.7–19.3 trillion yen increase in livelihood protection costs. In addition, a study by the Nippon Foundation (*Estimating the Social Losses of Child Poverty*, 2016) calculated the total estimated amount of lifetime income, tax revenues, social security contributions, and social security benefits between the ages of 19–64 by children currently aged 15 years old; comparing the difference between leaving child poverty untreated and taking measures to ameliorate educational disparities. This was estimated to be a social loss of 2.9 trillion yen in lost lifetime income, and an increase in public expenses of 1.1 trillion yen. Neglecting to reach out to young people with potential is a huge waste of human resources and can mean losses for society as a whole.

The hypothesis that economic growth will benefit low-income groups in spite of income inequality has been rejected in an international comparative study conducted by the OECD, and it is widely accepted that income inequality slows economic growth and that appropriate redistributive policies encourage it (Atsuhiro Yamada, *The Targeting of Minimum Wages and Public Assistance from an International Perspective*, 2010).

Social Impact

We must also consider the negative social consequences of increasing poverty and inequality,

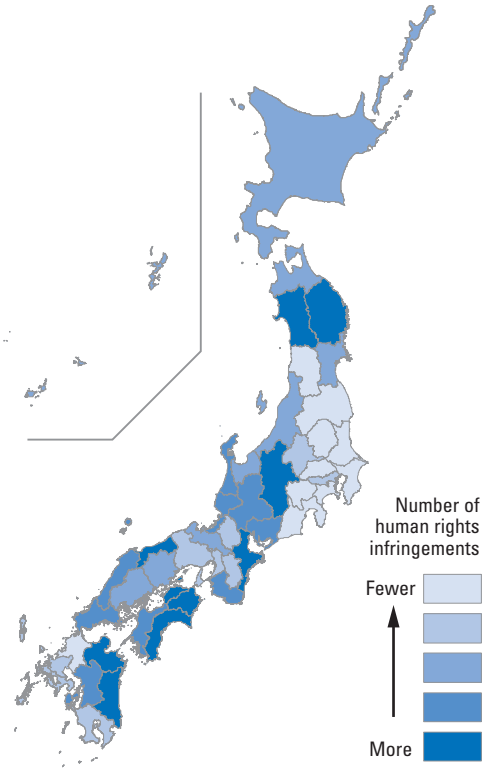
such as the weakening of public spirit and solidarity, social fragmentation and the potential for increased crime.

3. Deep-rooted Discrimination

The Cabinet Office's survey on "Human Rights Issues of Concern in Japan" (December 2017), which we discussed at the beginning of Part 2, showed that the main concerns of those surveyed were people with disabilities, human rights violations on internet media, elderly people, children, women, victims of the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake, victims of abduction by North Korea, victims of crime, LGBT people, foreign nationals, ex-convicts, the social integration problem, homeless people, Hansen's Disease patients/survivors, HIV patients, human trafficking, and the Ainu people, in that order. The number of human rights infringements for which redress proceedings were initiated in FY 2018 (19,063 cases) decreased slightly (2.4%) from the previous year, while cases of harassment by superior (1,378 cases) and sexual harassment (410 cases) increased. In addition to bullying in schools (2,955 cases), discriminatory treatment of people with disabilities, social integration problem, foreign nationals, elderly people, LGBT people, etc., (615 cases in total) decreased from the previous year (Ministry of Justice (MOJ), *Statistics on Human Rights Infringements Cases*, 2018 edition) (**Figure 12**).

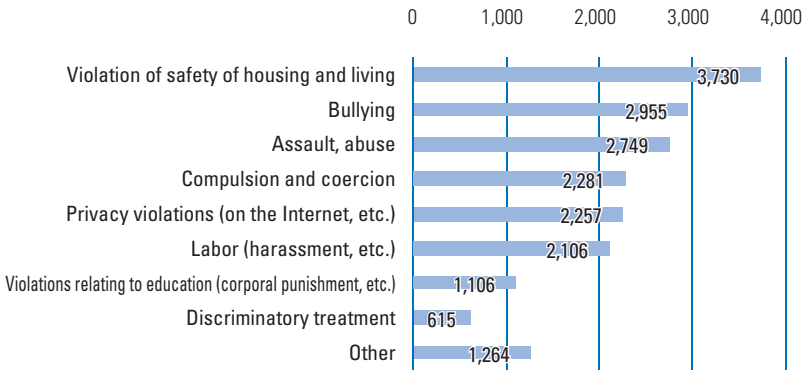
In terms of the number of human rights infringements (per 10,000 people) by prefecture, Kochi has the highest number of infringements, followed by Kagawa, Tokushima, Tottori, Mie and Nagano. The lowest number is in Saitama, followed by Chiba, Yamanashi, Shizuoka, Tochigi and Kanagawa (**Indicator H6, Figure 13**).

Figure 13 : Number of human rights infringements



Source: MOJ, *Statistics on Human Rights Infringement Cases* (2018)

Figure 12 : Types of human rights violations



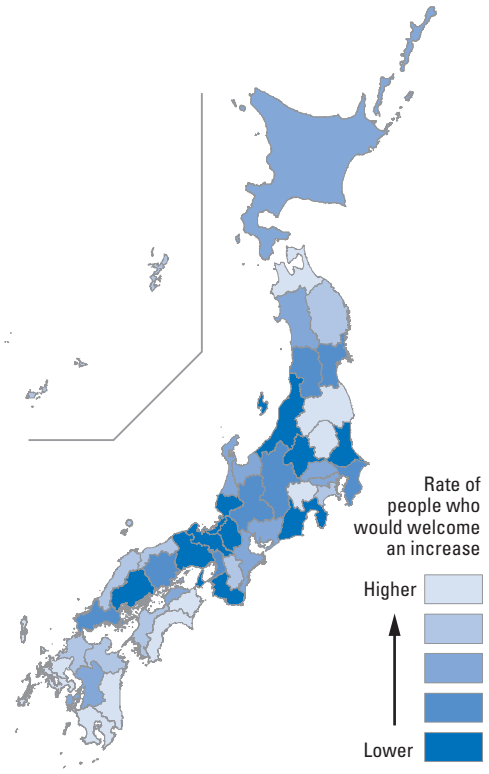
Source: MOJ, *Statistics on Human Rights Infringement Cases* (2019)

Many of these cases of discrimination are problems that cannot be overcome by the individual's own efforts alone. Discrimination and bullying against the evacuees who were forced to leave their hometowns due to the nuclear accident, for which they bear no responsibility, are particularly serious issues that the regions hosting evacuees must work as a whole to resolve. As discussed in the chapter on disaster victims (Chapter 11), the Survey of Nuclear Disaster Evacuees conducted by the Asahi Shimbun and Fukushima University's Akira Imai research group in 2017 found

that 62% of respondents reported experiencing bullying and discrimination, including 19% who said they or their family members suffered discrimination in the places they were evacuated to, and 47% who saw or heard of discrimination. A MEXT survey of about 12,000 children who were evacuated to locations inside and outside Fukushima prefecture as a result of the nuclear accident by the end of March 2017 reported 199 cases of bullying.

As covered in the chapter on foreigners (Chapter 12), the increase in the number of foreign nationals in Japan has led to an increase in various problems in terms of housing and other aspects of everyday life, and it is hard to ignore the fact that there is a strong opposition in some quarters to the presence of more foreigners in the areas where they live. In this survey, younger generations tended to be less resistant to having more foreigners in their neighborhoods. There were also significant regional differences in the proportion of people who would welcome such an increase. By prefecture, Nagasaki residents were the most likely to welcome an increase of foreigners in their neighborhoods, followed by Fukushima, Tochigi, Saga, Kagoshima and Yamanashi. Wakayama residents were the least likely, followed by those in Gunma, Kyoto, Shiga, Shizuoka, and Ibaraki (**Indicator J11, Figure 14**).

Figure 14 : Rate of people who would welcome an increase in the number of foreign residents in their neighborhood



Source: Human Security Forum, *Questionnaire on Subjective Evaluations*, August 2018

4. Who is Left Behind, Where, and How?

The work of visualizing the people left behind by poverty, inequality, isolation and discrimination has once again made clear the reality of Japanese society: that not all people have their lives, livelihoods and dignity fully respected and that not all people are able to live with a sense of human pride. In order to realize the objective of the SDGs, an inclusive society where no one is left behind, the following issues highlighted by the Human Security Indicators and the analysis of individual groups must be addressed (see the relevant chapters of Parts 1 and 2). These priorities are also strongly linked to the indicators for eliminating poverty and inequality included in the SDGs (**Table 1**).

It should be emphasized once again that the SDG indicators (17 goals, 169 targets, 232 indicators) are international commitments, and while it is important to take steady action to achieve these, in order to achieve a Japanese society where no one is left behind, it is not enough to work mechanically towards achieving the individual SDG indicators. Herein lies the significance of the complementary role that the Human Security Indicators of Japan play. In order to achieve a society where no one is left behind, efforts must be made to reduce poverty, discrimination and prejudice by focusing on those who are prone to being so, as visualized by the Human Security Indicators. Going forward,

it is important to focus and consider support measures for those people. The question that needs to be asked is whether or not the social safety net can support those left behind by poverty, inequality, isolation and discrimination, as visualized by the Human Security Indicators, and defend their human dignity.

At the same time, a perspective that grasps the overall picture of poverty and inequality should be emphasized. When child poverty is a hot topic, issues that tend to attract sympathy, such as the seven-fold increase in the past two years in the number of children's cafeterias which provide meals to impoverished children, receive attention and there is a welcome surge in support activities for a short period of time. However, the working poor, homelessness, poverty and isolation of the elderly are also intertwined with factors that follow from child poverty.

Some observers have warned that the focus has become fragmented between individual target groups, and that the majority segment of the population dissatisfied with the status quo is increasingly resentful that their lives are not being made better because of preferential treatment of individual minority groups, thus risking neglecting efforts to create a society that brings everyone together and policies that uplift for everyone (Francis Fukuyama, *Against Identity Politics* (2018)). This is a point of view that must not be forgotten when aiming for a society where no one is left behind. To this end, it is important not only to further improve support for those suffering from poverty and discrimination, but also to take measures to narrow disparities and reduce or eliminate discrimination. It is called for to make the hard-to-notice and hard-to-see disparities visible, to provide equal opportunities for education, employment, etc., and to effectively reduce the disparities identified. Rather than an attitude of "we have to help them because we feel sorry for them," or "it's a burden, but we should do something out of charity," it

Table 1 : Who is left behind, where, and how?

	Poverty and Inequality	Isolation	Discrimination
Children	Child poverty in single-mother households	Abuse and bullying	Suicide due to abuse or bullying Children with no nationality
Women	Balancing childcare and work Children on waiting lists for childcare		Discrimination in education and employment Sexual harassment, abuse of power
Young people	Working poor in non-regular employment, NEETs Young people who cannot support a household for financial reasons	Social withdrawal, NEETs (social withdrawal of middle-aged and elderly people)	
Elderly people	Elderly people in poverty	Elderly people living alone (isolation, solitary death)	
People with disabilities	Non-working people with disabilities	Participation in social activities by people with disabilities	Especially compound discrimination (women and children with disabilities) Employment opportunity for people with disabilities
LGBT people			Prejudice against LGBT people, legal status
Disaster victims		Disaster victims (elderly people, women, children, foreigners)	Discrimination against nuclear accident evacuees
Foreign nationals		Foreign nationals who require Japanese language instruction	Discrimination against foreigners, hate speech Low-waged foreign labor

Source: Author

is vital to address the negative effects of poverty and widening inequality as a matter of dignity and social loss, in the sense that despite coming into the world as human beings, they make it difficult for every person to lead life with pride to the best of their abilities.

5. Current Support Measures

A range of public support measures have already been taken for those who are left behind. However, the effect of income redistribution through the social security and tax systems may be limited.

a. Social spending as a percentage of public spending

Japan's social spending (in 2016, as a percentage of GDP), including health care, pensions, education, etc., was 26.2%. This is higher than the average for OECD countries (25.5%), so it is not the case that public spending is low. However, because half of Japan's basic pension, which accounts for a significant portion (12.1%) of social spending, is funded by taxes, Japan ranks second from the bottom among OECD countries in terms of public spending on schooling as a percentage of GDP (3.2%) and has extremely low public spending on families (1.3%), people with disabilities (1.0%) and employment (0.4%).

b. Inadequate income redistribution

In Japan, one of the reasons identified for inequality is that government redistribution through the tax system and social transfer payments has not been effectively allocated to low-income groups. The share of social transfers to the bottom 20% of the income distribution in Japan is only 17.1% of the total, which is lower than other major countries such as the Netherlands (34.4%), the UK (33.8%), Germany (29.4%), the Nordic countries (25–42%) and the US (21.8%) (the OECD average is 23.1%). Meanwhile, Japan's poverty rate and inequalities are higher than those of the

The regressive nature of social insurance contributions in Japan means that low-income earners bear a high share of the burden. In terms of the tax burden, too, the consumption tax has been raised even as income tax (now down to 45% from a high of 70% in 1986) and the residence tax (from 4.5–18% to a flat rate of 10%) have been cut, weakening the tendency toward progressive taxation. As such, Japan's tax and social security systems are among the least progressive in the OECD countries. (Taxes (24.9%) and social security (17.5%) account for 42.5% of national income (FY 2018)). According to the OECD, Japan's level of income redistribution is 29th out of the organization's 32 countries.

Table 2 : **Public spending in OECD countries (% of GDP, as of 2016)**

	Healthcare	Pensions	Family	People with disabilities	Employment	Other	Education	Total
Japan	7.8	12.1	1.3	1	0.4	0.4	3.2	26.2
OECD average	6	8.7	2.1	2.1	1.4	0.9	4.3	25.5
France	8.6	14.3	2.9	1.7	2.5	1.5	4.6	36.1
Netherlands	7.9	6.4	1.3	3.1	2.5	1.7	4.5	27.4
Italy	6.8	16.4	1.4	1.7	2.1	0.2	3.5	32.1
Sweden	6.6	10	3.6	4.3	1.8	1.2	5.2	32.7
Germany	7.9	10.1	2.2	2.1	1.7	0.8	3.7	28.5
United Kingdom	7.1	6.6	3.8	2	0.5	1.8	5.1	26.9
United States	8	7	0.7	1.4	0.5	1.2	4.2	23

Source: OECD Social Expenditure Database

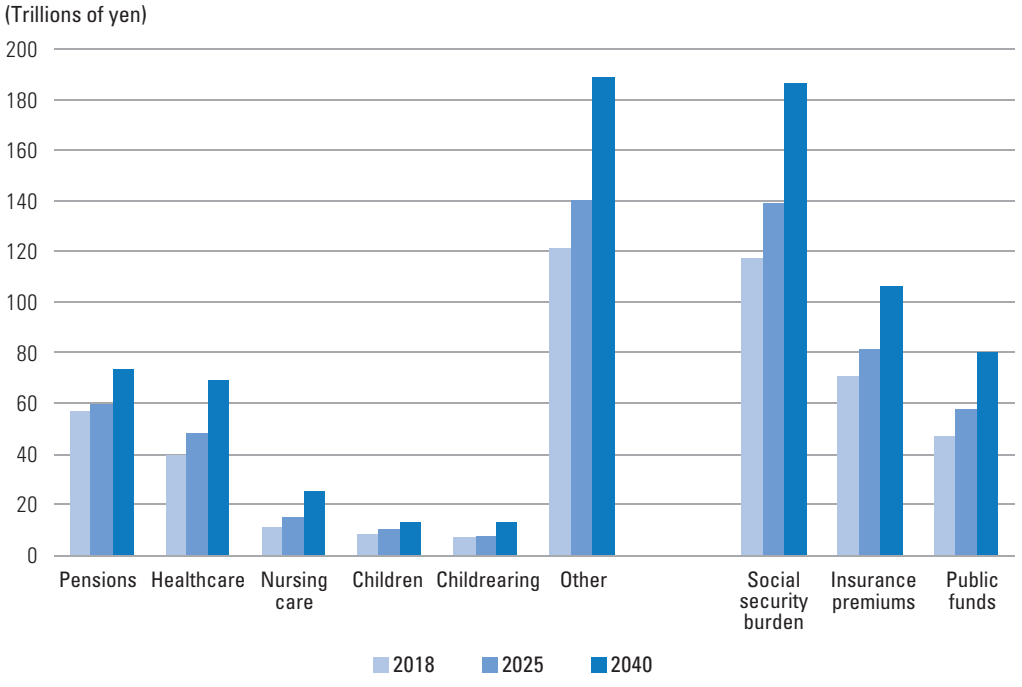
other OECD countries. In Japan, redistribution through taxes and social security improve the Gini coefficient by only 34.1% (2014) (*Income Redistribution Survey*).

c. The limits of "personal responsibility theory"

There is much reluctance to further income redistribution to those who are poor and needy. In the *Tokyo Metropolitan Area Survey* (2016), about 60% of respondents answered affirmatively to the statement "We should increase taxes on the rich and improve welfare for the disadvantaged," but only 40% supported "the government should take care of people in need." The tendency to attribute poverty to the faults of individuals is deeply rooted. In addition to receipts of livelihood protection allowance, there is also strong criticism of the so-called "rights of the vulnerable," the claim that LGBT, people with disability and other so-called "vulnerable" groups are taking advantage of their vulnerable position to assert their rights. A common thread can be found in hate speech on the Internet. According to an analysis by Professor Tadamasa Kimura of Rikkyo University (lecture, "The Light and Shadow of Social Media Proliferation," July 7, 2017) people who feel unfulfilled as the majority group feel frustrated and helpless toward the status quo, and argue that they should be privileged over the "vulnerable" and "minorities" (as mentioned earlier, Francis Fukuyama has made a similar analysis of this as a common phenomenon in developed countries).

However, the reality of inequality and discrimination shows that there are structural factors that cannot be overcome by individual efforts and support for self-reliance alone. Non-regular employment is on the rise and now accounts for 37.9% of the workforce (21.2 million people). In addition, with an aging population and the current 20-year period between retirement and average life expectancy, it is not easy to plan the lives of the elderly. The premise of the theory of personal responsibility is that people have the ability to make choices and that they choose to

Figure 15 : Future prospect for social security spending



Source: National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2017

do so. For young people who grow up in poor households and have limited opportunities to receive higher education and who struggle to find work, or for those who want regular employment but have no choice but to work in non-regular jobs where there is a huge difference in wages, their situation cannot be dismissed as just a lack of effort on their part. According to a survey conducted by the MHLW, (FY 2017), 40% of non-regular employees want to work as regular employees, but only 24.4% of employers have systems in place to hire dispatch staff as regular employees, so there is a limit to what personal efforts can achieve. For women, meanwhile, cases of poverty due to spousal separation or bereavement cannot be dismissed away by the theory of personal responsibility.

d. Sustainable social security systems

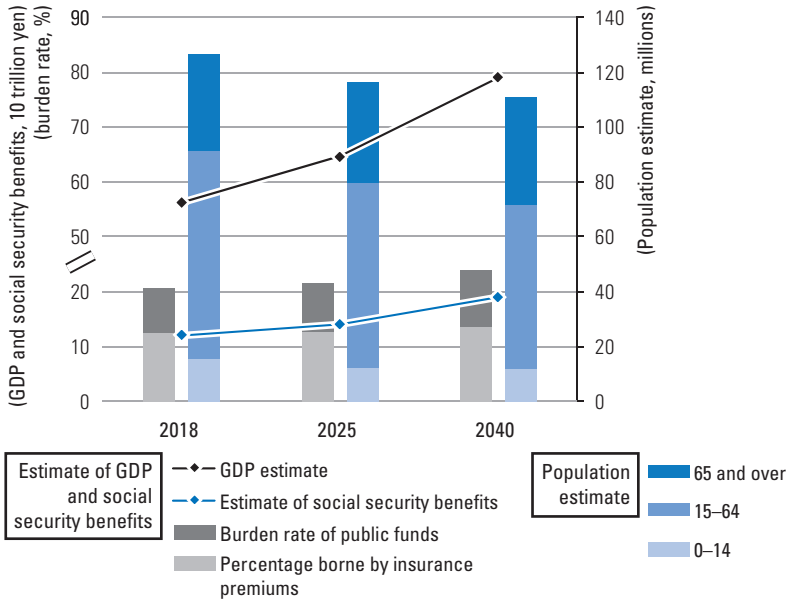
Japan's social security budget is allocated mainly to pensions and medical care, with a very low proportion allocated to children and families (if money allocated to the elderly is set at 100, then the proportion allocated to children is 26.2. In Germany, this figure is 40.5). Policies for the working-age population are focused on livelihood security through employment (employment stability and increased opportunities), while social security is focused on older generations past retirement (55 trillion yen in public pensions and 4 trillion yen in livelihood protection). However, as the number of children declines, the population ages, and life-time regular employment becomes no longer the norm, the social security system which protects the working-age population through employment and the older generation through pensions is facing urgent review (**Figure 15**, **Figure 16**).

In order to overcome the triple burden of fewer children and demographic aging, a shrinking population, and budget deficits, the government has proposed the following course of action to correct the bias toward the elderly as part of an "a Social Security System Oriented to All Generations."

(1) Create an environment where women, elderly people, and people with disabilities can work comfortably and increase their opportunities for employment. Promote flexibility in working hours and liquidity in the labor market to achieve this. Healthy elderly people join those providing support. For older people who wish to work, companies will be required to raise the hiring age from the current 65 to a basic guideline of 70 (companies will be given the option of rehiring employees or extending / abolishing the retirement age). Allow people to defer the age they start receiving a public pension to over 70.

(2) Curb the growth in spending on the elderly by allowing those elderly people who are able to do so to share the burden of medical and nursing care costs (the principle of ability to pay). Aim to establish a medical system that focuses on prevention, and to extend healthy life expectancy (currently 72.14 years for men and 74.79 years for women; target increase of three years by 2040).

Figure 16 : Future prospects for social security up to 2040



Source: Government documents released to the Council on Economic and Fiscal Policy (May 21, 2018), using economic baseline

Note: GDP growth is estimated according to the government's "base line" scenario wherein GDP grows by an annual rate of 1% in real terms and in the high 1% range in nominal terms for in the mid-to long-term.

(3) Strengthen support for households with children and employment support for young people and the unemployed. Provide services such as nursing care, childcare, disability and employment support in the local community.

(4) Revitalize local areas by combining a community-wide care system with a variety of services.

In line with the above plan, the government decided in December 2017 to make kindergartens and nurseries free of charge, to address waiting lists for children, and to eliminate fees for higher education. How to bring up future generations (i.e., the child-rearing generation and the young generation in precarious employment) is a core issue for the future of society as a whole. However, it is not appropriate to simply reduce spending on the elderly and give it to children and young people. The high share of Japan's social security spending accounted for by the elderly reflects the rapid growth of the elderly population, not increases in per capita spending. The increase in the elderly population has also been a major factor behind the lowering of the poverty line. It is estimated that the proportion of poor elderly people will increase further in the future, as evidenced by the increase in the proportion of elderly households receiving livelihood protection. It is right to have a policy that takes into account the next generation, increases opportunities for those elderly people who are willing and able to work, and requires those older people who are able to bear the burden to pay more. At the same time, however, we must not neglect generous provision for those elderly who have fallen into poverty.

(Yukio Takasu)

Chapter 14

Creating a Society Where No One is Left Behind

1. Ways to Reduce Poverty and Inequality

a. Numerical targets

While the government has set up an SDGs action plan to promote "a society in which all people can play an active role," it is important to have more closely attuned public support (public assistance by government and local governments) that focuses on those left behind by poverty, inequality, and discrimination. Currently, other than the Act on the Promotion of Measures to Counter Child Poverty, there are no other legal frameworks or numerical targets for the eradication of poverty and the reduction of inequality as called for in the SDGs. With the exception of a few local authorities, child poverty rates by district are not published. As well as expanding institutional frameworks that are likely to be effective in reducing the poverty rate, such as the Act on the Promotion of Measures to Counter Child Poverty and the enactment of national guidelines (e.g. for children, young people and the elderly), consideration should be given to setting, at the national, prefectural and municipal levels, specific numerical targets for reducing poverty and inequality by 2030, the target year of the SDGs.

b. Fiscal soundness and efficiency

As Japan enters an era of shrinking population, fewer children, demographic aging, and 100-year life expectancies, it is also faced with expanding public debt, fiscal deficits, and a natural increase in social security expenditures. Taking this into account, we must not only what we should do, but also what we can do to make the social security system sustainable. The government intends to balance the primary fiscal budget by 2025, and social security reform, including increased efficiency in health insurance, pensions, and long-term care, cost reductions, and increased beneficiary contributions, is inevitable. Reforming the social security system to make it sustainable over the medium to long term requires a national debate on where to focus and what measures the public will accept, both in terms of increases on the current burden (25.4% of tax and 17.4% of social security contributions in FY 2019, representing 42.8% of national income) and restrictions on benefits. According to a survey conducted by Professor Shogo Takegawa of the University of Tokyo (Round table discussion, "What should social security for all generations be?" *Sekai*, February 2018) regarding people's preference for a "high burden, high benefits" or a "low burden, low benefits" social security system, support for the former rose to nearly 70% up until the 2010 survey, but in 2015, support for high burden decreased and support for low burden rose. Despite this strong resistance to a greater burden, however, there is a relative increase in support for a high burden, high benefits system among the younger generation, narrowing the gap by age. This shows growing recognition that reform to make social security a sustainable system cannot be postponed. Along with an increase in the consumption tax rate, issues such as the progressiveness of income tax on the wealthy, reviewing the inheritance tax rate, financial income taxation, and correcting the regressive nature of social security contribution rates need to be considered as sources of revenue to expand social-related capital, with a view to ensuring fairness in taxes and burdens.

c. Vitality of the economy

However, there are limits to what this can achieve. Simply making the distribution of the

pie as equitable as possible will result in a loss of economic and social vitality. It is hoped that the national debate on these issues will continue to develop, maintaining the vibrancy of the economy through technology-based innovation such as AI and IoT, improving productivity, and making the pie itself grow.

d. Improve the treatment of workers

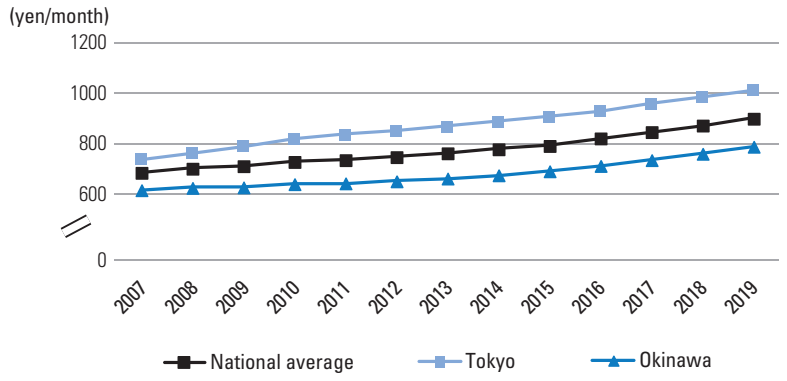
In addition to efforts to balance benefits and contributions and to ensure fairness in taxes and burdens, the following improvements in work conditions will also help reduce inequality.

i) **Improving the treatment of non-regular employees:** the realization of "equal pay for equal work" by 2030, identified in Goal 8 (Work), Target 8.5 of the SDGs, is one of the fundamental principles of workers' rights, which has also been included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). However, there are significant disparities in wages and other working conditions between non-regular and regular employees. There are now over 20 million non-regular workers (young people, women and post-retirement employment), making up 37.9% (in 2018) of the working population. The poverty rate among these workers is extremely high, at 38.7%. Although the government has clarified the principle of "equal pay for equal work" as part of its 2018 work reforms, it only prohibits "unreasonable disparities" in working conditions between regular and non-regular employees, and there are still differences in treatment depending on how "equal work" is interpreted in terms of working conditions. The system is gradually introduced from April 2020. How effective it will be and to what extent it will lead to improvements in the treatment of non-regular employees will depend largely on efforts by the management of companies and organizations. As one way of improving the treatment of non-regular employees, it is worth considering the estimate that further expanding the eligibility criteria for enrollment in employee pension insurance (revised in 2016) could improve the balance of the employee pension fund and halve the growth rate of the poor elderly who fall below the standards for livelihood protection (Atsuhiro Yamada, "Considering Japan's Minimum Livelihood Security," *Nihon Keizai Shimbun*, August 15, 2018).

(ii) **Improving the minimum wage system:** the minimum wage system, along with the social security system, is one of the main systems that guarantee a minimum standard of living. In Japan, it is equivalent to just under 40% of the median wage (the median overall wage) for full-time workers, which puts it in the bottom fifth of OECD countries (2015). It has been pointed out that, because the minimum wage is at a level that places people into poverty even if they work full-time, encouraging people to work will only increase the number of the working poor.

The government has also amended the Minimum Wage Act (effective in 2008) and gradually raised it, and although it is believed that the phenomenon where livelihood protection benefits exceed the minimum wage has been eliminated (the national average wage of 901 yen per hour, revised in 2019, works out to 1.73 million yen per year for full-time work), there are significant regional differences, and there is still a need for further improvements (**Figure 17**).

Figure 17 : Changes in the minimum wage over time



Source: MHLW Council on the Minimum Wage, 2019

iii) **Expansion of human investment:** In order to reduce inequality and disparities in education, it is extremely important to further expand grant-based scholarships. There should be a shift of mindset to investing in human capital with potential, rather than simply helping struggling students. The government aims to increase the percentage of low-income students going on to higher education by expanding the number of grant-based scholarships that do not require repayment from 2018 onwards, but it is estimated that even then, only about 20% of students will be eligible for support. Further expansion is needed to eliminate the perpetuation of disparities.

In addition, greater provision of retraining, vocational training and job placement for the non-regular workers, people out of work, and the young unemployed would be an effective human investment in creating a work-friendly environment and increasing employment opportunities for young people, women, elderly people, and people with disabilities.

2. Pioneering Initiatives for Preventing Isolation

In order to promote participation in society by those prone to isolation, such as people in withdrawal, people with disabilities, elderly people living alone, LGBT people, and disaster victims, and to strengthen their ties with their communities, it is important to create a model of a society where a diverse range of people can live together. The way to move closer to a symbiotic society is for people of diverse generational, occupational and cultural backgrounds to move away from separation and isolation to greet, watch-over and resonate each other, work together, create together, solve problems together, and to develop solidarity. For people facing multiple overlapping difficulties, it is particularly important to provide inclusive support that transcends vertical divisions, thereby linking them to social activities and, if they wish to work, employment.

The following pioneering initiatives, taken from among the examples discussed in relation to individual groups in Part 2, are particularly worth highlighting.

a. Universal design

Since the enactment of the new Barrier-Free Act (2006), the term "universal design" has come into frequent use. While "barrier-free" design aims to eliminate barriers for specific people, such as people with disabilities and elderly, universal design is a design technique for producing objects that are easy to use for all people from the very beginning, regardless of age, gender or ability. Universal design and inclusive design are not only for people with disabilities, but also for non-native speakers of Japanese and LGBT people, serving as a model for a society in which a diverse range of people can live together.

b. Comprehensive care systems

One effective initiative for preventing isolation is the expansion of systems to ensure comprehensive community-based services involving watch-over, medical care, nursing care, preventive care, housing and independent daily living, thereby allowing older people to live independently in the neighborhoods they are familiar with, even if they live alone. In order to achieve this, as in the case of the Fureai Co-op in Utsunomiya (see Chapter 8), it is necessary to promote systems of mutual community support that involve co-ops, welfare facilities, social welfare councils, silver personnel centers, commissioned welfare volunteers, neighborhood associations, companies, and NPOs.

c. A society in which a diverse range of people live together

Community-building initiatives consisting of multi-generational households may be effective in preventing the isolation of elderly people, people with disabilities, and those in social withdrawal. There are more and more examples of people building communities where multiple generations can live together to prevent isolation. These include group homes where people of

all ages and backgrounds live together, and town planning that increases the number of people of child-rearing age by renovating vacant houses. Rather than segregating and protecting the elderly, people with disabilities and the socially withdrawn as vulnerable members of society, the goal is to create a society in which wide variety of people are included, living together naturally as key members of society.

3. Efforts to Eliminate Discrimination

Each of us should do what we can to achieve a society that respects diversity and accepts different ways of living, where people can value each other and live in harmony. Society will not change unless the behavior of each individual changes.

a. Efforts to understand

We must not exclude or ignore minorities or people with different opinions at home, at school, at work, or in other areas of our daily lives. A basic starting point is to interact with a diverse range of people, getting to know them, and trying to understand their ways of thinking.

b. Social relations from childhood

The foundation of the social relationship capital required to understand others is developed from childhood through childcare services and pre-school education, where children develop the habit of playing with other children and interacting with adults other than their parents. While it is pleasing to see that education on the SDGs is included in the school curriculum guidelines from 2019, it is important to ensure that students understand that turning the SDGs' objective of "a society where no one is left behind" into a reality is not just an issue of international cooperation with developing and conflict-affected countries, but also a challenge for themselves and Japan as a whole.

c. Coexistence with foreigners

In order to create a society that understands different cultures and is receptive to them, while also making use of Japanese culture, traditions, and individual characteristics, it would be helpful to set up forums for dialogue between local Japanese and non-Japanese residents (there are many examples, such as Shinjuku's Multicultural Community Building Committee and Hamamatsu City's Intercultural City Vision). It is also important to intensify efforts to create a society where discrimination is not tolerated. National and local governments should take responsibility for putting in place systems to support the living environment, including Japanese language instruction for the increasing number of foreign residents. The Hate Speech Elimination Act was enacted to eliminate "unjust discriminatory speech against people from outside Japan," but this law only sets out basic principles, and does not provide for specific regulations or penalties. Multicultural initiatives at the local government level are important to ensure effectiveness, and there has been moves to put in place ordinances that set criteria for the use of public facilities where there is the potential for hate speech (Tokyo, September 2018).

d. Legal frameworks

The prohibition of discrimination on the basis of race, creed, sex, social status or family origin is a major principle set forth in Article 14 of the Japanese Constitution. With the development of international conventions in the field of human rights, treaties and laws have ensured the prohibition of discrimination and reasonable accommodation. These include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (joined in 1985), the Equal Employment Opportunity Act (effective 1986), the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (joined in 2014), the Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (effective 2016), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (joined in 1994), and the revision of the Child Welfare Act (effective 2017). It is hoped that legal frameworks will be developed to facilitate the elimination of discrimination and ensure that other people who are vulnerable to

discrimination and prejudice are provided with a life commensurate with their human dignity.

4. Complementarity among Self-help, Mutual Support, and Public Assistance

In realizing a society where people can lead full and prosperous lives independently, there is a limit to how far self-help and public assistance (assistance from the national government and local governments) can be pursued separately. Given Japan's income redistribution is less effective than that of many OECD countries, there is room to reform Japan's social security system such that it focuses more closely on those who may be left behind, even without turning it into "high burden, high benefits" system. Alongside these kinds of public endeavors, public assistance also plays an important role in promoting self-help and mutual support. We should aim to strengthen complementarity among these approaches, such that where public assistance supports self-help and encourages mutual support, and mutual support also assists self-help. Public assistance must be open, equitable, universal, and cost-effective, so there is a limit to how much it can be tailored to meet the needs of each person in a detailed way. The strength of mutual support is the ability to provide help that, rather than being uniform, is tailored to a person's circumstances and focuses on their individual needs. Increasingly, there will be a need to expand the effectiveness of public-assistance interventions in difficult financial times by encouraging and supporting fine-tuned mutual support activities through policy, grants and taxation.

Self-help

Adults of all ages and genders who are capable of working are expected to hone their skills, find work, and sustain their lives through self-help effort. In particular, there is an urgent need to expand employment and jobs for women and seniors. An important type of self-help for elderly people, in addition to working, is to extend their healthy life expectancy and live a fulfilling life through active social participation in their fields of interest, volunteer work, and other activities.

Public assistance

A policy of human capital investment to support the self-help efforts of those who are motivated to work should include the expansion of grant-based scholarships, retraining, vocational training, and social security for non-regular workers, and the unemployed. Support and provision of foundations to increase healthy and occupational life expectancy in old age, as well as amendments to the system to reduce pensions based on the amount of work income after retirement age, will also help to increase elderly people's desire to work. Tax incentives (e.g., preferential tax treatment for NPOs, hometown tax payments, donations and bequests to special public benefit organizations, and the use of dormant bank deposits) are also extremely effective in encouraging and promoting mutual aid.

Mutual support

The basis of mutual support is people helping each other. Unlike public assistance, mutual support is usually not institutionalized. It can be said that this is where its significance lies, as it is done voluntarily and without instructions from public authorities. Excessive efforts to make mutual support part of public assistance, including in terms of its financial resources, will create a dependence on the system and mean that constant funding is required. On the other hand, relying exclusively on individual initiatives will create concerns about sustainability. As such, this balance is important.

Community-based assistance

Resident-oriented organizations across the country, such as community-based organizations and co-ops, are developing carefully tailored services for residents by supplementing public assistance, and it is likely that activities in which residents support each other will increase further in the future. Many local governments are faced with super-aged populations and population decline, which are forcing them to downsize their municipal functions. The strength of mutual support will come into play when local organizations shoulder some of these functions, with mutual support through citizen participation complementing public assistance. Another important example of mutual support is preventing isolation through cooperative town planning. This involves people of young and old generations living together, providing the elderly with support to go out, and increasing the number of people of child-rearing age by renovating vacant houses.

Volunteering

Society as a whole is losing its sense of belonging to a community or group, and attitudes that prioritize the individual are spreading, especially among the younger generation. This in itself should not be viewed entirely negatively, but it is problematic if it weakens the bonds between people and the foundations of social connectivity. In order to develop the ability to look to others and naturally extend a hand in times of need, it is important to learn the meaning of community through education and volunteer work. Professionals and retirees with expertise and skills participate in local social activities (e.g., the 714,000 registered members of Silver Human Resource Centers) and disaster volunteering (since the Great Hanshin-Awaji Earthquake in 1995, a cumulative total of 3.618 million people have volunteered through disaster volunteer centers alone) through NPOs, etc., playing a useful role in supplementing public assistance. In the 20 years since the NPO Act came into effect, more than 50,000 NPOs have been set up. These activities, by bringing together those who participate and those who are supported by the activities to think and act together, are highly beneficial for the development of a symbiotic society.

Personal donations

A law was enacted in December 2016 to make use of dormant bank deposits (70 billion yen annually) to promote private public-interest activities, and NPOs began using them from 2019. This is another good example of how public assistance (albeit originally from depositors, made available through special legislation) encourages mutual support. Hometown tax payments, in which individuals donate to specific local governments, is another form of mutual support, and this has continued to increase since the system's introduction in 2008, reaching a total of 512.7 billion yen in FY 2018, approximately 1.4 times the previous year's figure (with the tax deduction applied to 3.95 million people). The activities of NPOs working to solve local problems are expanding with support from the hometown tax. In addition, crowdfunding, in which large numbers of individuals invest small amounts via the internet, has enabled a wide variety of tailored support that cannot be achieved through public assistance, such as the establishment of houses for refugee status claimants, the renovation of children's homes, and support for junior high school students to pay for cram school tuition (the Yano Research Institute estimates the scale of such support to be approximately 204.5 billion yen in FY 2018, nearly three times what it was in FY 2016). Donations and bequest donations to public interest organizations are also valuable ways to contribute to mutual support. The number of individual donors is also on the rise (the Japan Fundraising Association estimates that individual donations reached 775.6 billion yen in 2016) and is expected to increase further as inherited wealth (estimated by the Nomura Institute of Capital Markets Research to be just over 50 trillion yen per year) grows.

Social impact investing

In recent years, social impact investing, where private sector funds are invested in activities that take social and environmental impact into account, is also on the rise in Japan (estimated at 344 billion yen in 2018, according to the Social Innovation and Investment Foundation; a rapid increase representing 4.8 times the figure for the previous year). Social Investment Bonds (SIBs), in which private sector funding is used to implement social programs, and investors are reimbursed by the government once successful outcomes are achieved, were launched in earnest in March 2017. As public funds (i.e. by national and local governments) are in severe financial situation paying support for the poor, community activities and corporate social welfare activities, the mechanisms of SIBs will be expected to expand further in the future.

The role of business

As important members of society, companies also play an important role in promoting mutual support and multiculturalism beyond the welfare of their employees. ESG (Environmental, Social and Governance) investing, which emphasizes the environment, society, and corporate governance, is gaining momentum in Japan as well. Since the United Nations proposed the Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI), which incorporate ESG into the investment process, to institutional investors in 2006, there have been 2,232 signatories (as of the end of 2018) and ESG investments amounted to $31 trillion by the end of 2017. However, Japanese companies accounted for only 7% of that total. Since the Japan's Government Pension Investment Fund signed the PRI in September 2015, it has been very effective in promoting corporate contributions to the SDGs through the ESG Index (a stock index). ESG investments show that companies' efforts to solve social challenges create both business and investment opportunities.

Business and human rights

In addition, discussion of "business and human rights" is also underway. An increasing number of companies (331 companies and organizations as of August 2019) are joining the U.N. Global Compact, which pledges to 10 principles, including the protection of human rights, the abolition of child labor, an emphasis on the environment, and anti-corruption. It is also significant that the Japan Business Federation has recommended to its members a position of respect for all human rights, not only for Japanese but also for foreign nationals (October 16, 2018).

5. Recommendations

The goal of the SDGs, unanimously agreed upon by all the world's leaders, is to create resilient societies that are economically, socially and environmentally sustainable, where comprehensive improvements have been made, and no one is left behind. This requires that we work to build a society in which the three elements of human security — life, livelihood and dignity for all people — are respected; and in which an equal opportunity to live a humane life is open to all people, in accordance with the right to the minimum standard of a "wholesome and cultured living" (Article 25 of the Japanese constitution). In order to make this kind of society a reality, the project team would like to make the following recommendations.

1 The need to inspect data and develop statistics

There is an urgent need to develop the disaggregated statistics necessary to make visible those who are left behind. Although Goal 1 of the SDGs agrees numerical targets for halving the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living below the poverty line "in all its dimensions" by 2030, the work conducted for this project has shown that, using the poverty rate alone, it is not easy to obtain disaggregated data for groups such as children, people with disabilities, the elderly, and foreign nationals as well as residents in each prefecture. In the future, there should be a legal requirement to compile, maintain, and publish statistics broken down by prefecture, age, and gender, thus making it possible to check the progress made toward achieving the indicators in the SDGs.

2 The need to set and monitor numerical targets

There is a need for more focused and carefully targeted public support for those left behind by poverty and discrimination. To this end, we would like to recommend that numerical targets that can be used to monitor progress on the SDGs and human security indicators be set, and that national government, local governments, the business community, and civil society work together to enact comprehensive measures for achieving them. Numerical targets could include reducing the child poverty rate, the relative poverty rate, the rate of NEETs, the gender income gap, and implementing barrier-free access. With regard to gender inequality, where Japan lags furthest behind in international comparisons, Japan should review the targets for 2020 set out in the Fourth Basic Plan for Gender Equality and consider making some of them (such as for civil servants, advisory body members, parliamentary candidates, etc.) compulsory, in a similar way to the employment of people with disabilities (i.e., a quota system).

3 Respect for the opinions of stakeholders

With its declining and aging population, and with a mature economy and budget deficits, fundamental reform is inevitable if Japan is to ensure that the necessary public safety net is sustainably maintained for those who truly need it. Efforts by the government and parliament to establish a sustainable social security system with balanced burdens and benefits need to proceed with due consideration of the views of the parties involved. In the field of welfare for people with disabilities, a "do not make decisions about us without us" principle prevails, but in other areas, stakeholder-centered perspectives have not always been adopted. To ensure the sustainability of social security, welfare, and education, including medical care, pensions, and long-term nursing care, there will be a greater need than ever to improve the efficiency of benefits and obtain the understanding of those who are able to bear the burden. In doing so, we would like to emphasize the importance of developing deeper understanding by listening to the opinions of the parties involved, not just the opinions of experts and the representatives of organizations.

4 Framework for implementing the SDGs in Japan

The government has placed a high priority on the implementation of the SDGs. Accordingly, it has set up an SDGs Promotion Headquarters, headed by the Prime Minister, and established guidelines for carrying them out. In order to further strengthen the framework for implementing domestic policies, it is important to ensure the full participation of stakeholders in future reviews of the SDGs Implementation Guidelines. We call for the establishment of an implementation framework that goes beyond the vertical divisions of government ministries. This will strengthen the implementation of domestic measures for the SDGs and enable it to address challenges effectively in an integral manner, especially those relating to education and welfare, health and social activities, and disability and disasters.

While the sentiment that "everyone is human" is not a complex one, it is a difficult one to hold. It may not be practical to achieve a perfect society in which not one person is left behind. However, we can ensure that there is nobody who believes they are not needed in the world. Through the efforts of each and every individual, we can move towards a benevolent society where, as fellow citizens living together, we are considerate and respectful to all.

(Yukio Takasu)

Afterword

Even during the process of developing indicators for realizing the objective of the SDGs in Japan, there has been a succession of news stories that run counter to that objective, such as deaths of children due to abuse, sexual harassment of women, discriminatory treatment of female students taking entrance exams for university medical schools, padding of employment figures for people with disabilities, abuse in facilities for elderly people, statements describing LGBT people as "unproductive," and illegal labor conditions for foreign technical interns. I had to remind myself that there is an enormous amount of work to be done in order to make Japan a society where all people are respected and accepted as valuable human beings.

The Human Security Indicators of Japan are the world's first attempt to make visible, from a human security perspective, those who have been left behind in society or are prone to being so. This is in order to set specific targets regarding who, where, and what should be the focus of increased efforts, and to take commensurate action by 2030, the target year for the SDGs. Due to the wide range of areas covered by the indicators, I would like to once again thank the project team and many others for their cooperation and support in completing the project. I am particularly grateful to Dr. Shinya Kawamura, Researcher at Chubu University, for the enormous amount of work he has taken on, including collecting data for the indicators, performing analysis, and producing maps using GIS and the overall index. I would also like to thank Professor Yoichi Mine of Doshisha University for his valuable guidance, from the selection of indicators to the editing stage. Without these contributions, the results of this research could have never come to fruition. I would also like to express my profound thanks to Haruka Nagashima, Editorial Staff of Akashi Shoten Publisher for his understanding and special consideration.

During the process of drawing up the indicators, it became apparent that there were instances of misconduct in the methods used to compile government statistics, including the Monthly Labour Survey. We have decided to release the report as is, as these irregularities do not affect the project team's analysis, conclusions and recommendations on poverty, inequality and discrimination in Japan. If the Human Security Indicators of Japan are to have greater significance, the indicators and data should be reviewed and updated every few years until 2030 in order to monitor the progress made toward the Sustainable Development Goals. Work will continue to improve these indicators based on comments from various sources, and it is hoped that they will have broad applicability at the international level.

October 2019

Yukio Takasu

Project Team Representative,
Human Security Forum

Statistical Sources

Life Indicators: 23 Indicators

A: Life - 11 Indicators

A1	Average life expectancy at birth (men) Average life expectancy at birth (women)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2015 Life Tables by Prefecture*
A2	Population increase/decrease rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census* Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Population Estimates* (As of January 1, 2018)
A3	Total Fertility Rate (TFR)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2015 Vital Statistics* * The average number of children a woman will have in her lifetime
A4	Rate of working age population	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census* Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Estimates*
A5	Unmarried rate (at 50 years old)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Vital Statistics* * Proportion of people that have never been married as at age 50
A6	Rate of households comprised of a single elderly person (aged 65 and over)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census*
A7	Rate of children in single parent households	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census* * Proportion of the total number of children under the age of 20 who are in single-mother and single-father households
A8	Number of deaths by suicide (per 100,000 population, averaged over 2014-2016)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2015 Vital Statistics* Cabinet Office Suicide Prevention Office, *Suicides in 2015* * Average value for 2014–2016
A9	Suicidal ideation rate (among aged 20 and over)	The Nippon Foundation, *Suicide Awareness Survey* (2016) * Proportion of those among the population aged 20 and older who have experienced suicidal ideation
A10	Number of deaths and missing persons due to natural disasters (per 100,000 population)	*White Papers on Disaster Management 1995–2016* * Total number for 1995–2016
A11	Number of deaths due to traffic accidents (per 100,000 population)	National Police Agency, *Transport Statistics* (2017 Edition)

B: Health - 12 Indicators

B1	Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (men) Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) (women)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Increasing Healthy Life Expectancy and Reducing Health Disparities* (2016; Kumamoto Prefecture only 2013) *A Study on the Future Projection of Healthy Life Expectancy and the Cost-effectiveness of Lifestyle-Related Disease Control* * The period of time during which a person can live a healthy daily life, which is average life expectancy minus the period of time spent in a state requiring nursing care, such as being bedridden or suffering from dementia.
B2	Number of general hospitals (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2016 Survey of Medical Institutions*
B3	Number of beds in general hospitals (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2016 Survey of Medical Institutions*
B4	Number of doctors in medical facilities (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2016 Survey of Physicians, Dentists and Pharmacists*
B5	Annual medical expenses per person	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Estimates of National Medical Care Expenditure,* FY 2016
B6	Rate of people taking regular health checks	All-Japan Federation of National Health Insurance Organizations, *Report on the Implementation of the Municipal National Health Examination and Specific Health Guidance in FY2016* * Proportion of all residents who have undergone a medical examination
B7	Rate of households late in payment of national health insurance (NHI) fees	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2017 National Survey on Public Assistance Recipients*

B8	Number of people with disabilities (per 10,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2017 Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services, FY 2017 Annual Report on Government Measures for Persons with Disabilities* * Not included in the indicators
B9	Rate of children aged 12 with tooth decay	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2017 School Health Examination Survey*
B10	Rate of smoking among adults	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2016 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions*
B11	Rate of practicing sport (aged 10 and over)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities* * Proportion of people who have played any sport in the past year
B12	Average number of walking steps (per day)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *National Health and Nutrition Survey* * Average calculated for men and women (2016, Kumamoto Prefecture only 2013)

Livelihood Indicators: 42 Indicators

C: Economic Conditions and Employment - 10 Indicators

C1	Annual income per person	Cabinet Office, *Annual Report of Prefectural Accounts for FY 2014*
C2	Monthly disposable income per household	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Survey of Household Economy* (2015) Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions* (2015)
C3	Gini coefficient	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2014 Survey on the Redistribution of Income, Social indicators by Prefecture* (2014) * An index that measures inequality. Calculated to be 0 in a perfectly equal society where everyone's income is equal, and 1 in a perfectly unequal society where one person has a monopoly on all the wealth
C4	Unemployment rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census*
C5	Non-regular employment rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Report on the Special Survey of the Labour Force Survey* (2017) Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Employment Status Survey* (2017)
C6	Female employment rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census*
C7	Rate of regular employment among single parents	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census*
C8	Rate of people with disabilities among employees	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Report on the Status of Employment of Persons with Disabilities in 2017*
C9	Rate of the elderly with a job (aged 65 and over)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2015 Population Census*
C10	Financial capability index	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *FY 2016 Prefectural Financial Results* * Averaged over the past three years by dividing the baseline fiscal revenue of the prefecture by the baseline fiscal demand

D: Education - 11 Indicators

D1	Rate of children on waiting lists for nursery and kindergarten	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Summary of Conditions Related to Nurseries for Children Aged 0–3* (April 1, 2017)
D2	Number of elementary school children per teacher	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2016 School Basic Survey*
D3	Number of junior high school students per teacher	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2016 School Basic Survey*
D4	Rate of school attendance support recipients (out of all children/ students in public elementary and junior high schools)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *On the Number of Students in need of Livelihood Protection and Equivalent Support in FY 2015* * Proportion of public elementary and junior high school students in need of livelihood protection or equivalent support and those eligible for special grants due to the Great East Japan Earthquake
D5	High school dropout rate	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2016 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy etc.*

D6	University enrollment rate	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2018 School Basic Survey*
D7	Rate of students who are habitually absent from school (School truancy rate)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2016 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy etc.*
D8	Academic ability test score	National Institute for Education Policy Research, *FY 2017 National Survey of Academic Attainment and Learning* * Average scores in four elementary and junior high school subjects (Japanese A and B, and Arithmetic (Mathematics) A and B)
D9	Athletic ability of children (average national sport test score)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2017 National Survey of Physical Fitness, Athletic Performance and Exercise Habits* * Average of combined scores of elementary and junior high school students' sports tests for running, throwing, etc.
D10	Number of social education classes	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2015 Survey on Social Education*
D11	Number of evening/part-time junior high and high schools	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2017 Survey on Evening Junior High Schools, Survey on Part-time High Schools*

E: Welfare - 11 Indicators

E1	Rate of households receiving child-rearing allowance (out of all households)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2014 Social Welfare Service Report*
E2	Number of children's nursing/fostering facilities (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2015 Survey of Social Welfare Institutions*
E3	Number of consultations at child welfare centers (per 1,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2017 Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services*
E4	Rate of households receiving livelihood protection allowance	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2018 National Survey on Public Assistance Recipients*
E5	Number of monthly consultations for the independence support system for the needy (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2017 Status of the Independence Support System for the Needy*
E6	Number of facilities for the elderly (care homes, senior citizens homes) (per 100,000 population aged 65 and over)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2015 Survey of Social Welfare Institutions, 2015 Survey of Institutions and Establishments for Long-term Care*
E7	Number of people staying at facilities for the elderly (per 1,000 population aged 65 and over)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2015 Survey of Social Welfare Institutions, 2015 Survey of Institutions and Establishments for Long-term Care* * Not included in the indices
E8	Number of people on waiting lists for intensive care homes for the elderly (among those certified as long-term care levels 3-5)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2016 Survey Results by the Health and Welfare Support Bureau for the Elderly* * Number of people waiting for certification of nursing care levels 3–5 by local governments
E9	Number of nursing care staff (per person certified as needing long-term care/support)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2016 Survey of Institutions and Establishments for Long-term Care, 2016 Status Report on the Long-term Care Insurance System* * The ratio of the number of nursing care staff to the number of people certified by local governments as requiring support or long-term care
E10	Number of commissioned welfare volunteers (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2015 Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services*
E11	Number of assigned households per livelihood protection allowance caseworker	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2016 National Survey on Public Assistance Recipients*; Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *FY 2016 Survey of Local Government Capacity Management*

F: Lifestyle, Environment, and Safety - 10 Indicators

F1	Internet usage rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *FY 2017 Communications Usage Trend Survey* * The proportion of people who use the internet more than once a year
F2	Number of UNESCO schools for ESD education	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *UNESCO Associated Schools Network Website* (as of October 2018) * Not included in the indices

F3	Rate of barrier free transportation facilities (at train stations)	Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, *Situation on the Elimination of Steps at Railways Stations as of End FY 2017* (2018) * Proportion of railway stations that have at least one route with steps removed per boarding area
F4	Greenhouse gas emissions per person (per year)	Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry, *Figures for FY 2015 Greenhouse Gas Emissions* * Total greenhouse gas emissions by "specified business operators" relative to population
F5	Total floor space per residence	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *FY 2013 Housing and Land Survey*
F6	Recycling rate	Ministry of the Environment, *Results of the FY 2014 Survey on General Waste Disposal*
F7	Sewage treatment rate	Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, Ministry of the Environment, *Dissemination Status of Wastewater Treatment Facilities by Prefecture as of end FY2016*
F8	Public facilities earthquake proofing rate	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Survey Results of Implementation of Earthquake Proofing of Public Facilities serving as Disaster Management Centers* (2017) * The proportion of public facilities that serve as disaster management centers owned or managed by local governments that are ensured to be earthquake-resistant
F9	Waterworks earthquake proofing rate (basic duct line)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Status of Earthquake Proofing in Water Supply Utilities in FY 2016*
F10	Number of reported criminal offences (per 100,000 population)	National Police Agency, *2017 Crime Statistics*

Dignity Indicators: 26 Indicators

G: Women and Children - 7 Indicators

G1	Number of cases of bullying (per 1,000 children/students)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2016 Survey on Various Issues related to Giving Guidance to Students, such as Students' Problematic Behavior and Truancy etc.*
G2	Average number of days children stay in temporary child protection facilities	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2015 Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services*
G3	Rate of children given foster care placements among those requiring care	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *FY 2017 Report on Social Welfare Administration and Services, Towards the Promotion of Social Fostering* (2017) * Proportion of children in need of care who are placed with foster parents
G4	Number of child suicides (aged under 20) (averaged over 2015-2017)	National Police Agency, *Situations on Suicides in 2015–17* * Average value for 2015–2017
G5	Number of cases of temporary protection for domestic violence victims (per 100,000 population)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *Act on the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims Enactment Report* (2015)
G6	Number of hours men spend on housework and childcare (per week)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities* * The total time spent by men aged 15 and over on housework, nursing care and childcare per week
G7	Gender wage gap (female pay as a proportion of male pay)	Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, *2017 Basic Survey on Wage Structure* * The relative amount of cash salary received by women if that received by men is set at 100.

H: Trust in the Public Sector - 6 Indicators

H1	Voter turnout in national elections	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *House of Representatives General Election Results Report* (2014), *House of Councilors Election Results Report* (2016)
H2	Rate of female representatives in local assemblies	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Survey of Members and Heads of Local Assemblies by Party Affiliation* (as of December 31, 2017)
H3	Degree of information disclosure	National Ombudsman Liaison Council, *Survey of Expenditure on Political Activities* (2017) * On a scale of 0 to 100, the extent to which residents have access to information on expenditure on political activities by prefectural representatives (receipts, accounting books, etc.)

H4	Number of inquiries to Japan Legal Support Centers (per 10,000 population)	Ministry of Justice, *2016 White Paper on the Japan Legal Support Center*
H5	Number of lawyers (per 10,000 population)	Japan Federation of Bar Associations, *2017 White Paper on Attorneys*
H6	Number of cases of human rights infringement (per 10,000 population)	Ministry of Justice, *FY 2017 Statistical Data on Human Rights Infringement Cases*

J: Community, Civic Engagement and International Outlook - 11 Indicators

J1	Number of state-designated cultural properties (national treasures, important cultural properties, tangible and intangible cultural properties) (per 10,000 population)	Agency for Cultural Affairs, *National Database of Designated Cultural Properties* (2018) * National Treasures, Important Cultural Properties, Tangible and Intangible Cultural Properties, Historic Sites, Places of Scenic Beauty, and Monuments, etc.
J2	Number of cultural facilities and community centers (per 10,000 population)	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, *FY 2017 Survey on Social Education* * Cultural facilities: Museums, theaters, etc.
J3	Number of neighborhood associations (per 1,000 population)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Results of the Survey on the Status of Authorization Procedures for Neighborhood Associations* (2013)
J4	Rate of participation in volunteer activities	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *FY 2016 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities* * Percentage of people who participate in some kind of volunteer activity in a year
J5	Number of people who made hometown tax payments (per 10,000 population)	Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *2016 Hometown Tax Payment Program Portal Site*, Annual Tax Deduction for Taxable Residents in FY 2018
J6	Number of people who made donations to major international support organizations (per 100,000 population)	Number of donors to major international aid organizations that provide humanitarian assistance and international cooperation, such as Japan for UNHCR (2017)
J7	Number of registered Non-Profit Organizations (NPOs) (per 10,000 population)	Cabinet Office, *NPO Homepage* (as of end January 2018)
J8	Rate of increase in foreign residents	Ministry of Justice, *Statistics on Foreign Residents*, (percentage change from 2006 to 2017)
J9	Number of foreign students (per 10,000 population)	Japan Student Services Organization, *FY 2017 Results of the Annual Survey of International Students in Japan*
J10	Number of foreign technical interns	Ministry of Justice, *Statistics on Foreign Residents as of end FY 2017* * Total of residents with status of residence "Foreign Technical Intern" Category
J11	Rate of people who would welcome an increase in foreign residents in their neighborhood	Human Security Forum, Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations (October 2018)

K: Satisfaction with Life - 2 Indicators

K1	Rate of people who are not satisfied with their own lives	Human Security Forum, Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations (October 2018)
K2	Rate of people who do not believe that their lives would get better in the future	Human Security Forum, Questionnaire on Residents' Subjective Evaluations (October 2018)

Index