Inter-municipal Cooperation and Regional Waste Management in Japan

Introduction

Hulst(2007)\(^1\) points out as follows; “at a series of developments over the past fifty years have put pressure on local governments’ performance, domain and even existence.” And one of the strategies in use to deal with the rising scales of production and mobility and with growing market pressure such as privatization, deregulation and appearance of government agencies\(^2\) was intermunicipal organization (hereinafter, IMC). Japan was under the pressure of modernization in the end of nineteenth century just after the Meiji Restoration\(^3\), and Japan introduced MIC since 1888\(^4\).

A variety of affairs of local governments were implemented through IMC methods. And the regional waste management is one of the significant affairs of municipalities. Therefore MIC methods for this service has advanced, the regional disposal is nowadays one of the typical services of IMC.

Under those situations, in this chapter, the author sets the following question; “what are the principal changes of Japanese IMC?” and “what is the key for future effective regional waste management through the IMC?”

We first overview the history of progression of the IMC, second we focus on the situation of IMC for the regional waste management, and we shall consider the above questions.

1. Framework of Japanese Local Administration

A. Overview

In Japan, a local public entity is a juridical body under Art. 2, Local Autonomy Law (hereinafter, LAL). There are two major categories admitted as local public entities: ordinary local public entities and special local public entities. Ordinary local public entities can be said to be typical local governments; they have general and normal characteristics in their organization, affairs, power and such. They are local governments which are subject to the constitutional guarantee on local autonomy, and prefectures and municipalities fall into this category. Under the current local autonomy system, there is a dual structure, that is to say, the entire country of Japan is divided into prefectures, and respective prefectures are divided into municipalities. The number of the ordinary local public entities is shown in Figure1.

\(^{1}\) Source; Rudie Hulst and André van Mongort, “Inter-municipal Cooperation in Europe”, Springer, 2007, pp.3.

\(^{2}\) op.cit., pp.4-6. The author summarize the contexts.

\(^{3}\) The modernization of Japan is usually considered to have started in 1868, the year in which the Meiji Restoration took place, marking the transfer of governing authority from the Tokugawa Shogunate to the Imperial Court. See Akio KAMIKO, "The Start of Modern Local Government(1868 – 1880), “Historical Development of Japanese Local Governance Vol. 1”, Institute for Comparative Studies in Local Governance, 2010, pp.1.

B. Characteristics and Affairs of Prefecture and Municipality

The characteristics and the affairs of prefecture and municipality are as indicated below.

1. Prefectures

a. Characteristics

Prefectures, consisting of To, Do, Fu and Ken, are wide-area local governments that encompass municipalities, and there are 47 prefectures at present in the country. Tokyo Metropolis is the only prefecture designated as To. Tokyo Metropolis is the capital of Japan and differs from Do, Fu, or Ken, in such systems as special wards. Hokkaido is also the only prefecture designated as Do. Kyoto and Osaka are designated as Fu and all others are designated as Ken. The prefecture is situated above the municipalities of which it is comprised, but it cannot exercise hierarchical or authoritarian power over them. Both of prefecture and municipality have different tasks, and both levels must cooperate on an equal standing as local entities. LAL divides division of duties of prefectures into three categories (Art. 2, LAL):

(i) duty of covering a wider area than municipal territory;
(ii) duty of requiring the cooperation and coordination of multiple municipalities;
(iii) duty deemed inappropriate to be handled by ordinary municipalities when taking such municipalities’ scale and characteristics into account.

b. Affairs

Affairs dealt with by prefectures are as follows:

(i) Wide-area affairs

(e.g., maintenance of national roads, construction of prefectural roads, management of harbors, conservancy of forests and river, public health centers, vocational training, police)

(ii) Communication and coordination affairs relating to municipalities

(e.g., advice, recommendation, guidance for rationalization of organization and operation of municipalities)

(iii) Supplementary affairs for municipalities

(e.g., high schools, hospitals, public universities, museums)

2. Municipalities

a. Characteristics

Municipalities are basic local governments that are involved in affairs closest to the lives of residents, and there are 1,724 municipalities (792 cities, 743 towns and 189 villages) in the country as of July 1, 2019. (Figure1 shown above)

Municipalities are primary level local entities which take charge of all local administration other than those tasks attributed to prefectures; this shows the philosophy of LAL.

The appellation of municipalities is divided into three categories: Shi (cities), Cho (towns) and Son (villages). The following conditions must be met in order to obtain the title of “city” (Art. 8, LAL):

(i) a population of more than 50,000;
(ii) more than 60% of the total number of residences are located within the central urban area;
(iii) more than 60% of the population (or their dependents) is engaged in commercial, industrial or other urban activities; and
(iv) other conditions added by prefectural by laws.

Steiner (1965) described the situation of Japanese municipality as follows; “the inhabitants must, first of all, recognize the community as a unit that is meaningful to their lives. This recognition may spring from the closeness of a face-to-face group, in which case the feeling that the inhabitants belong together and that the local community is “theirs” is likely to be endowed with emotional intensity. It may also spring from a perceived identity of certain needs shared by the inhabitants, and from common efforts to meet them.”

b. Affairs

Affairs dealt with by municipalities are as follows:

(i) Affairs relating to the basis of residents’ life (e.g., residents’ registration, family register, residence indication)

( ii ) Affairs relating to ensuring the safety and health of residents (e.g., garbage disposal, fire service, water supply, sewage)

( iii ) Affairs relating to the welfare of residents (e.g., nursing insurance, national health insurance, public assistance (within the area of cities))

(iv) Affairs relating to the urban development plan (e.g., urban design, city parks, municipality roads)

(v) Affairs relating to the establishment and management of various facilities (e.g., elementary and junior high schools, libraries, day care facilities, public halls, citizens’ halls)

II. Special Circumstances of Japanese Local Administration

When we overview the history and current surroundings of Japanese local administration, it is significant to make out three Japanese special circumstances; the large range of public affairs, the population decline and the development of broader-based administration. These three have made impacts on Japanese local administration and they will have much effect on the whole concept of IMC. We shall make a survey of those circumstances.

A. The large range of public affairs

The affairs of the governmental sectors are the authorities and the responsibilities; they are basically allocated among the governmental sectors by the national acts concerned.

Main concrete affairs which are allocated to three tiers of governments are summarized in Figure 2.

<Figure 2>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic, Safety</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Welfare, Sanitation</th>
<th>Social infrastructure</th>
<th>Industry, Economy</th>
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<tr>
<td>Central</td>
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<td>- Diplomacy</td>
<td>- University</td>
<td>- Pension</td>
<td>- Highway</td>
<td>- Currency</td>
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<td>- Defense</td>
<td>- Subsidy for private school (university)</td>
<td>- Social insurance</td>
<td>- National road (designated section)</td>
<td>- Banking regulation</td>
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<td>- Judicature</td>
<td>- High school</td>
<td>- License for doctor</td>
<td>- First-class river</td>
<td>- Customs</td>
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<td>- Criminal punishment</td>
<td>- Salary / Personnel of Elementary / junior high school</td>
<td>- Approval of medicine</td>
<td>- Airport</td>
<td>- Regulation on transportation</td>
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<td>- Subsidy for private school (others)</td>
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<td>- Regulation on telecommunication</td>
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<td>- Sports facility</td>
<td>- Livelihood assistance (area of town / village)</td>
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<td>- Economic policy</td>
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<td>Local</td>
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<td>- Elderly welfare</td>
<td>- Prefecture road</td>
<td>- Support for small businesses</td>
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<td>- Health center</td>
<td>- First-class river (designated section)</td>
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<td>- Second-class river</td>
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<td>- Public housing</td>
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<td>- Urban planning</td>
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<td>Municipality</td>
<td>- Fire defense</td>
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<td>- VOCATIONAL training</td>
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<td>- Family register</td>
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<td>- Regulation on agricultural land use</td>
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</table>

Source: Created by author.

6 Japan adopts two tier system for the local administration, so the number of the governmental sectors are three; the national government, prefecture and municipality.
The coverage of local governments public services is large in scope; it covers basic service, safety, Education, Sanitation, Social infrastructure, Industry, Economy and such. And the representative types of municipality’s affairs are those relating to the basis of residents’ life and ensuring the safety and health of them.7

Consequently, the size of expenditure of local governments are quite large; it amounts to 58 trillion yen and much larger than that of central government (22 trillion yen). (Figure3)

The breakdown shows that the sizes of local governments expenditures are remarkably large in sanitation, school education, safety and public welfare. (Figure4)

Local governments have played the principal role especially in those traditional internal public affairs. As stated above, the inhabitants recognize the community as a unit that is meaningful to their lives. And the citizen’s sense of belonging to the community and the feeling of necessity for disposal of nuisance such as garbage have been supporting the sense of responsibility of municipalities. In this surroundings situation, the waste disposal has been the typical and principal affair of municipality in Japan. (Figure2)

B. The population decline
The population of Japan was on a consistent upward trend through the first postwar baby boom (in the 1940s) and the second baby boom (in the 1970s), but it has been declining sharply after peaking at 128.08 million in 2008. According to the Population Projections for Japan by the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research (IPSS), the medium fertility variant projection assuming the total fertility rate (TFR) is approximately 1.35, showing that the Japanese population will fall below 100 million in 2050 and decline further, dipping under 50 million by the year of 2100. (Figure5)

7 Waste disposal belongs to the field of Sanitation in Figure2.
The government has begun taking measures to counteract this shrinking society; thus, the national government determined the following long-term goals:


b. Attaining equilibrium between the number of people moving into, and those moving out of, the capital region.

c. Developing conditions that promote marriage among the younger generation.

d. Promoting inter-communal cooperation.

Under the policy that drives this vision, all local governments set various comprehensive strategies for regional revitalization, with sustainable city policies making up part of those regional revitalization measures. The decrease in the Japanese population since 2010 has been so sharp that relevant countermeasures are urgently needed. Thus, the creation of the sustainable city policies constitutes a pressing issue in Japan today for regional revitalization; accordingly, local governments have planned and promoted various policies.

C. The Development of Broader-based Administration

1. The requirement of local government

In this chapter we shall consider the best size of the municipality. What is the best size of municipality to benefit the residents? Several social factors are involved. Theoretically, large governments have consistent positive influences in four major ways.

First, large local governments can provide relatively more administrative specialists, such as doctors, nurses, childcare workers, nutritionists, agricultural engineers, building engineers, civil engineers, and librarians. In this way, size is positively related to the administrative skill of the local government.

Second, large local governments have larger tax bases and manage larger accounts and funds. In that sense, size is positively related to financial stability.

Third, large local governments have relatively large populations of citizens and corporations that tend to comprise diverse individuals, families, and corporations, which tends to increase the political diversity of the government.

Fourth, the scope of public projects and the sizes of the groups potentially influenced by policy are relatively large, which leads to social trust in the government.

On the other hand, there are several social factors related to a large government that would have negative effects.

First, large governments tend to result in fewer close interpersonal relationships among neighbors in communities.

Second, local attachments and subjective orientations are negatively affected by large size because a large government negatively influences social embeddedness.

Third, concerning associational memberships, residents’ are less engaged in larger municipalities. These social factors negatively
influence the competence of basic local government. However, citizens are expected to select a well-qualified size based on social preferences.

Considering the Japanese experience, at the promulgation of the Municipal Government Act in 1888, Japan instituted the administrative village. The local governments transitioned from the natural village to the administrative village. The administrative village is believed to have more favorable to the social factors that relate governmental size to positive outcomes. Moreover, under the requirements of national administrative modernizing in the twentieth century, and the responses to the flourishing of decentralization in the twenty-first century, the social situation seems relatively more conducive to the positive social factors. (Figure6)

(Figure6) Relationship between size and political competence in local government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administrative skill</th>
<th>Financial stability</th>
<th>Political diversity</th>
<th>Social trust</th>
<th>Neighborhood integration</th>
<th>Local attachment</th>
<th>Association/Membership</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>size</td>
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</table>

Competence


2. Need for wide-area public services

The municipalities are fully operational administrations that manage all of the administrative responsibilities allocated by national laws. However, local governments manage such a broad range of services that some services are not easily managed by an individual government’s resources among its many other affairs. This is imperative in Japan’s modern local governmental system.

These types of matters are shown in Figure 7:

(Figure7) Need for regional administrative involvement

| Affairs which is hard for a single small entity to deal with |
| Affairs with running of large-scale public facilities |
| Affairs which need the consideration of reducing social nuisance |
| Affairs whose work is not much but always rising (e.g., revision, cooperation, etc.) |
| Affairs based on broader and strategic plan |
| Affairs which should be dealt with on the common standard in the region |
| Affairs which are suited to intensive work by specialists |

Source: KIMURA, op.cit., pp.55.

a. Services that are challenging for individual small governments to manage.

Some services need regional administrative management and some of them need significant clerical attention. Those matters are sometimes challenging for an individual small government to handle (e.g., regional development plans, medical care for the elderly, and forest road maintenance).

b. Matters regarding the operation of large-scale facilities.

Some services require large public facilities that would be challenging for an individual small municipality to manage because of
extensive construction and maintenance costs (e.g., refuse disposal, crematoria, and sewage systems).

c. Matters regarding the reduction of social nuisances.
Some activities lead to nuisances, such as noise, ground pollution, and so on. For those types of problems, cooperation among governments for nuisance abatement is crucial (e.g., refuse disposal).

d. Activities of increasing volume.
Although the extent of clerical work regarding some activities may not initially be great, the potential of an increasing volume of work exists. For those activities, sharing the administrative workload is reasonable (e.g., public workers’ compensation, retirement allowances for civil service workers, and equity commission).

e. Activities based on broad strategic plans.
Some matters require consensus among relevant local governments in a regional unit (prefecture) (e.g., broad area (regional) development plans).

f. Some matters should be handled using the common standard of a region.
Some activities need to be managed in accord with the common administrative standards of a region (prefecture) (e.g., nursing insurance and elder care services).

f. Services that require the attention of specialists.
Some matters and services need specialists, and the sharing of those human resource is a reasonable way to manage those matters (e.g., fire defense, emergency medical care, and welfare of handicapped people).

For all of these matters, the regional administration is significantly required. This situation is a globally common phenomenon, and every country has local governments that are facing problems of regional administration. Wide-area administrative methods are imperative for effective and efficient public services.

What is the orientation of regional governance? In Japan, there have been two approaches. One approach has been consolidation, which has generally taken the form of consolidating (amalgamating) municipalities. The other option is the cooperation approach; this means the cooperatives of the local governments. The local government can take the wide-area administrative methods: establishing PAA, making the delegation of affairs and so on. (Figure 8)

<Figure 8> Regional governance

![Diagram of Regional Governance](image)

Source; KIMURA, op.cit., pp.56.
When a local government chooses to consolidate or cooperate, its decision is based on its preferred size for the local governmental administration. When a local government meets the needs of the regional public services, the local government that prefers a larger administration based on the relevant social factors would choose to consolidate.

3. Municipal Consolidation

The first circumstance is the municipal consolidation. The consolidations were conducted in the municipalities which are the basic local governments. These consolidations were initiated by the national government.

The number of prefectures has remained the same at 47 since 1888. However, municipalities decreased from 71,314 in 1888 to 1,718 in 2014. (Figure9)

The primary reason for this large decrease is the municipal consolidations that particularly occurred during the three great consolidations movements. The basic history follows. The first of these was the Great Meiji Consolidation of 1888–1889, when the number of municipalities declined to about one-fifth of the original size, from 71,314 to 15,859. Between 1953 and 1961, the Great Showa Consolidation was conducted, resulting in a further decrease of about two-thirds, from 9,868 to 3,472. Finally, the Great Heisei Consolidation was implemented between 1999 and 2010, which decreased the number of municipalities by about one-half, from 3,229 to 1,771.

Especially, the latest consolidation, the Great Heisei Consolidation was implemented in a unique context. Among other things, it was a necessary response to the ongoing process of decentralization and the local governments were financially deteriorating. These conditions actually intensified the consolidation’s influence on local governments’ administrative management. The municipal consolidations were necessary to reinforce their administrative and financial foundations and install more efficient municipal public services.

Consequently the number of Japanese municipalities has decreased by about one fortieth in a hundred and twenty years. The sharp decline of the number of Japanese municipalities is opposite to the stable trend of France and US. (Figure10)

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8 Japan has three great consolidation movements: Meiji consolidation, Showa consolidation, and Heisei consolidation. They were not mandated by law, but it seems quite probable that in practice Meiji consolidation came very close to being mandatory and that Showa consolidation was also under strong pressure from the national government. Kiyotaka Yokomichi, *The Development of Municipal Mergers in Japan* “The National Graduate Institute for Policy Studies, 2007, pp.3-4.

9 The number of municipalities is 1,724 in June in the year of 2019.

10 With the enactment of the Uniform Decentralization Law in April of 2000, local government, the delegated function system which was reinforcing centralization was abolished and municipalities were expected to conduct all of their administrative business independently under the principle of autonomous decision making. The reform was controversial and it was argued that municipality consolidation and increased competencies of local governments were requisite for transferring the numerous administrative duties. In that context, the Great Heisei Consolidation was powerfully advanced. Shunsuke KIMURA *Regional Administration in Japan Departure from Uniformity*, Routledge, 2017, pp.62-63.
Japanese consolidations have made great impacts on the regions; merits are effectiveness through scale of economy, establishing new identity and such. On the other hand they have caused new issues; one of them has been the overflows of public facilities in new districts. For example, if two cities each of which has a library have consolidated, a new city has two libraries from the very beginning. Those overflows of the public facilities became the hot issues among the municipalities in 2010’s. And the urgent actions against them by the municipalities have been required.

4. Cooperation

a. Outline

As above mentioned, responding to the needs of the regional citizenry, local governments have two options. One is to consolidate and the other is to cooperate. (Figure8 shown above)

Japan has progressed regarding consolidations. However, Japanese local governments concurrently have been using cooperation effectively. The cooperative systems are the wide-area administrative methods as stipulated in LAL. In this section, we focus on cooperation. Regional needs have encouraged the development of cooperative arrangements to the present. This is a globally common development; other countries as well as Japan, starting with the Western countries, have pursued IMC. For example, as shown in the bottom row of Figure11, the US has special districts, school districts, and so on; the UK has combined authorities, joint boards, and so on; France has SIVU, Métropole, and so on; Germany has Ober regionale-gemeindverland, Amt/Samt gemeinde, and so on; and Italy has Unione di comuni, Comunità montane, and so on.
Because administrative demands are highly diverse, local governments must be highly specialized and integrated into a broader region, and the number of sectors, whose concerns are believed to be more efficiently and rationally administered under mutual and joint cooperative agreements between or among local governments rather than by individual local governments, is increasing. In this context, a system of IMC government of affairs has been adopted. Altogether, there are six different types of these systems of wide-area methods, and they can be broadly categorized according to whether they have corporate legal status.

The Legal Status Type is classified to two types: partial-affairs associations (PAAs) and wide-area unions. Both types are referred to as “unions,” and they are designated as “special local public entities” under the LAL.

On the other hand the non-corporate legal status type is classified to two types; Contract Type and The Other Type. The contract type are classified to three categories: Delegation of duties, Agreement and Substitution.  

### Types of IMIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tier of local government unit</th>
<th>Tier of local government unit</th>
<th>Main affairs of basic local government</th>
<th>Main MIC systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[State + two tiers (or one tier)]</td>
<td>[parallel; two tiers · single tier]</td>
<td>education, police, health, welfare, road, fire-fighting, water and sewerage, transport</td>
<td>Special district</td>
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<tr>
<td>County</td>
<td>(England)</td>
<td>(single tier)</td>
<td>School district</td>
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<tr>
<td>Municipality</td>
<td>(Two tiers)</td>
<td>local plan, regulation of development, housing, environment sanitation, social welfare</td>
<td>Combined authority</td>
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<td>(Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland)</td>
<td>[single tier; autonomous government]</td>
<td>elementary school, kindergarten, child care center, city planning, road, waste collection, cleaning</td>
<td>Joint board</td>
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<td>school house (building/maintenance), sewage, waste disposal, livelihood assistance</td>
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<td>[Three tiers]</td>
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<td>Région</td>
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<td>Département</td>
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<td>[Land + Two tiers (parallel; Kreis-freie Stadt)]</td>
<td>Cooperazione</td>
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The current legal framework of wide-area government was presented in the LAL in the 1950s. Since then, local governments have actively practiced wide-area administrative methods. An IMC is established through several local governments' partnership; the local governments which cofound an IMC are called affiliated entities hereinafter. The total number of municipalities has been decreasing since 2008\(^1\) and the population began to decrease since 2008. Under this situation the number of the affiliated entities has been growing.  

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\(^1\) Heisei Consolidation movement began in 1999 and since 2004 the number began to decrease remarkably..
These data show that more municipalities have begun to make use of MIC in the depopulated society. The depopulated society means the fewer users of the public services. The many public services are provided through public facilities. Therefore the local governments are required to strategically carry out using, investing and maintaining those public facilities under the condition of fewer users.

Next we focus on the breakdown of the IMC. The total number of IMC’s affairs remained essentially the same between 2006 and 2010, but it significantly increased in 2012, mainly because the number of delegation of duties type increased (regarding duties such as issuing residency cards and matters regarding medical care for the advanced elderly) by many administrations. The number of PAAs continuously decreased, mostly because of the Great Heisei Consolidation. This trend reflects the disbanding of related associations that accompanied less need to merge as the municipalities consolidated. The numbers of the councils and the shared administrative organizations were mostly stable. Regional unions were quite recently established (in 1996) and their numbers have gradually increased. Those trends suggest that the demand of broader based public service is remarkable in consumptive investment such as issuing residency cards and matters regarding medical care. (Figure13)

In lower density society, the demand of public service has shifted to new frame; from building infrastructure to more meticulous public service is currently expected. And generally the applicable IMC type has become popular.

III Principal MIC
In this chapter we overview the principal MIC in the corporate legal status type and non-corporate legal status type. (Figure11) The representative type of the former is partial-affairs association (hereafter PAA) and that of the latter is delegation of duty.

A. PAA
1. Outline
Among the wide-area methods, PAAs have had major roles. Therefore, this section focuses on PAAs’ structure, status, and agenda. PAAs are not regulated to the extent they are in the jurisdictions of the local governments that are their affiliates. When the several local governments agree to jointly administer some of their services or other matters and establish a PAA, they can simply give all responsibility for those matters to the PAA.
2. The need for PAA
As explained in Chapter I (see Figure 2-2), some local public matters are difficult for individual governments to manage, particularly those that are costly or require significant or specialized staff. For those matters, PAAs have effectively supported and supplemented local governments. An image of the PAA structure is shown in Figure 14.

<Figure 14> The structure of a PAA

If a city (A), a town (B), and a village (C) have common concerns (α affairs in Figure 8) and they all agree that establishing a PAA would be a reasonable approach to managing those concerns, they can create a PAA and transfer the α affairs to it for administration using the process stipulated by Article 284 of the LAL. The basic characteristics, processes, and responsibilities of PAAs are stipulated by statute.

3. Merits of PAA
The merits of PAAs for the wide-area method are summarized in Figure 15.

<Figure 15> Merits of PAAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate legal status</td>
<td>PAAs have the corporate legal status and they can independently carry out the acts of law and can hold properties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore they can supply the public services through the operation of the large public facilities; e.g. refuse disposal, fire-fighting, nursing home, school house, water supply, hospital.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual representative system</td>
<td>PAAs have their own chief executive organizations, assemblies and auditors. Through those dual representative system (presidential system), they can clarify where the responsibilities lie for their managements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disposal of multiple affairs</td>
<td>PAAs can discharge the multiple responsibilities if they define them in their statutes. Moreover the complex-PAA system was established incrementally in 1974; that the affairs were common to all the affiliated governments is not required for the complex-PAA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand-scale budget use</td>
<td>PAAs compile their own budgets. They can make a grand-scale of expenditures through using shares from affiliated governments, local bonds and such.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, PAAs have corporate legal status, meaning that they can provide public services through large public facilities and, therefore, cover a wide range of public services. PAAs can manage public services using the Internet and those that require facilities.

Second, PAAs use a dual representative system comprising a chief executive, administrator, and deliberative body (PAA assembly). Moreover, the system is based on the checks and balances principle. This system recognizes the delegation of responsibilities and
contributes to the transparency and democratic management of the PAA. Third, PAAs can handle the numerous matters that need to be administered when these matters have been defined in their articles. Moreover, the complex PAA system was incrementally established in 1974; it was not necessary that the services were common to all of the affiliated municipalities. Therefore, it was easier to join a PAA as an affiliate because the PAAs were internally individualized.

Fourth, PAAs have independent budgets and they can manage high expenditure by selling shares, local bonds, and so on. Taken together, the merits of a PAA can create comprehensive and stable public administrations.

These merits clearly distinguish PAAs from the other types of administration and their superiority has led many local governments to affiliate with PAAs.

4. Affairs of PAA

PAAs are not regulated to the extent they are in the jurisdictions of the local governments that are their affiliates. When the several local governments agree to jointly administer some of their services or other matters and establish a PAA, they can simply give all responsibility for those matters to the PAA.

Concerning the number of the affiliated entities of PAA in the year of 2018, types of affairs of PAA, fire prevention (21%), welfare facilities (11%), and Supply of retirement allowance are principal areas. (Figure 16)

The principal fields for PAA are two types. The first is operating large size of public facilities; e.g., fire prevention, welfare facilities, and garbage and recycle. These types are providing public services through making use of facilities. So garbage disposal is one of typical affairs of this type. The second is ‘not so frequent but highly probable needs’; e.g., supply of retirement allowance, compensation for labor accident and such. A PAA has corporate legal status as shown above in Figure 15 and it can independently make contracts and can hold the asset of its own and it can manage its responsibilities with large budgets.

5. Trends of the PAA

The number of PAA decreased since 2014; this was mostly caused by the Great Heisei Consolidation. When the affiliates merged, there were no need in some cases to retain the related PAAs. The total consolidation of public entities brings no need of partial association. However certain principal affairs of PAA keeps the number; garbage disposal, human waste disposal, fire prevention, crematorium and such. This shows that the corporate legal status type is well-suited for these public services. And at-home care insurance and welfare for disabled have increased. The typical types for PAA have been garbage disposal and fire prevention, but nowadays the growth of number of social welfare area stands out. (Figure 17)
Making use of the wide-area administrative methods is discretionary in principle. Whether the method is adopted among the affiliates depends on the agreements among them. Then where are the wide-area administrative methods aggressively used? Are many methods adopted in a region where a lot of municipalities are located?

Figure 18 shows the relationship of the number of municipalities per prefecture to the number of communal disposals per prefecture.

The correlation is weak ($r = .489$), suggesting that regions with many municipalities do not always set up many communal disposals. The alternative causes, such as the developments and motivations of the local governments, may influence the observed differences among the prefectures. However, each local government should explore their options for additional effective utilization for the wide-area administrative methods.
Next, Figure 19 shows the relationship between the number of municipalities per prefecture and the number of PAAs per prefecture. The correlation is quite strong ($r = .821$), suggesting that PAAs have been such a principal method among the types of the wide-area administrative methods that PAAs became positively established in regions with many municipalities.

6. Organization

The process by which a PAA should be organized is stipulated in Article 284 of the LAL. First, de facto consultations among the potential affiliates are held, in which they consider the contents of statutes, such as the organizational design that includes the structure of the chief executive officer of the PAA, the structure of the assembly members, methods of election, matters and services to be administered by the PAA, the burden of charges to the affiliates, and so on.

Second, each mayor (chief executive officer) of the potential affiliates submits a bill of incorporation of the PAA and a bill of the draft of the statute. Third, after each individual assembly approves the bills, the chief executive officers of the potential affiliates conduct an official consultation. If all the potential affiliates are municipalities, the chief executive officers submit the application to organize the PAA to the governor (of the prefecture). Otherwise, they submit the application to the minister of MIC (Figure 15).

7. Structure of PAA

A PAA is established through consultation among the affiliates (Article 284 of the LAL). This consultation among the potential affiliates is a joint legal act. A PAA is a special local administration and the LAL is applied accordingly (Article 292, LAL). Therefore, the structure of a PAA is pursuant to the ordinary government. The structure is based on the dual representative system. Therefore, a PAA is planned as the dual representative system similar to the ordinary governments. An image of the structure of a PAA is shown in Figure 20.
A PAA's chief executive officer and assembly are expected to manage the services and other matters through the system of checks and balances as shown in Figure 1-11 in Chapter I.

The head of the PAA is called the administrator. The administrator has the status and functions similar to a governor or mayor of an ordinary local government pursuant to the LAL. The administrator has the administrative responsibilities, including submitting bills to the assembly. The PAA assembly has the function of making resolutions, submitting bills, investigating duties, and so on. Both the administrator and the assembly use their initiative methods and, through checks and balances, the administrative affairs are conducted.

8. Statutes of PAA

The LAL is mutatis mutandis applied to PAA as the basic management rule, but some items are exclusively set down by a PAA's statute. Statutes provide the fundamental structure and rules of a PAA; those are basic rules that govern PAAs. When the affiliates agree about the establishment of a PAA they arrive at the agreement on the contents of the statute of the PAA at the same time. The consultation substantially has the capacity to enact law and the statutes are the subsisting basis of PAA and are binding on the affiliates. Therefore, the bylaws and rules enacted by the PAA should be compatible with the statutes regarding it. There are seven necessary articles (Article 287 of the LAL) (Figure 21).

If any one of them is missing, the statute is invalid, and establishment is not approved by minister or governor.

The reasons for requiring these items are as follows.

a. Name

There is no specific legal regulation regarding the name of a PAA. However, a PAA is expected to pay attention to following points.

(i) The name should include the "partial-affairs association."

(ii) The name should also include the types of matters that association administers, such as fire defense or public affairs association.

(iii) The name can include the name of the gun (county) if the affiliates are all the members of that county to clarify the PAA's identity.

b. Affiliates

Each affiliate should be stated named in the statutes. If all of the affiliates are municipalities of a prefecture, a description, such as “all the municipalities of X prefecture” is considered acceptable. However, if the number of affiliates is about 10 (e.g., all of the municipalities of a county), listing each one would be appropriate.

c. Affairs (Services and other matters)

The function of a PAA is valid within the scope of the named services and matters of communal disposal, and the affiliates forfeit responsibility for that function at the same time the PAA assumes it. For example, if Town X establishes a PAA regarding fire defense with Village Y, X and Y lose the individual authority to enact fire prevention bylaws. The matters of the communal disposal should be written in the statutes as specifically as possible.

d. Place of Office

Place of office means the location of the main office. The block number should be specified in the statutes. A PAA must observe Article 4 ② of the LAL. In establishing or moving the office location in accord with the preceding paragraph, consideration must be given to the traffic conditions, geographic proximity to other public offices, so on to maximize the convenience of the residents.

e. Assembly

Assembly seats, terms, chairpersons, vice-chairpersons, methods of election, and panels of candidates should be stipulated in the statutes. The method of electing PAA assembly members is the “term of statutes.” The statutes of the PAA specifically describe the method. The ordinary local governments that are affiliates must use direct suffrage, which is very different from the rule in ordinary local governments. Statutes set forth the number of assembly members, the parent population of the elected PAA assembly, and the
The role of the chief executive officer and the method of appointment of the administrator are determined by statutes (Article 287 of the LAL).

There were 1,379 (91.9%) administrators elected from among governors or mayors. Only 21 were elected from among members of the PAAs’ assemblies. Most PAA administrators are selected from among the heads of the affiliates. The management of PAA influences the affiliates’ policies. Therefore, securing the uniformity of the policies the selection among the heads is predominant. Figure 22 shows the distribution of the methods of appointment.

About 47% (664 entities) used mutual elections and about 32% (447) used the concurrent post method in the year of 2018. The concurrent post means that certain mayor regularly accedes to the administrator of the PAA by common consent among the affiliates. The ratio of the concurrent post is increasing; as the direct election of the administrator of the PAA is not required by the Constitution and the national law, the concurrent post for the administrator is thought to be allowed and well-practiced.

Apportionment of expenses
Apportionment of PAA expenses is defined by the PAA statutes. The general standard is provided by the MIC, as follows.

General Standard:

The PAA meets the expenditure with property revenues, charges and fees. When it has deficits, it makes up the difference with burden charge among the affiliated bodies.

There are several types of rules regarding expenses. The typical ones are as follows.

(i) Fully flexible
This type focuses on the flexibility of social and economic change. It does not use a basis, such as per population. The sample style is as follows.

“The administrator decides the next fiscal year’s budget charge for each affiliate through the approval of the PAA assembly.”

This type secures full flexibility, but every year the affiliates renegotiate the financial burdens. Moreover, from the outside, it is difficult to understand the financial relationships between the PAA and each of its affiliates.

(ii) Variability oriented
This type makes focuses on the variability of the expense burden based on the idea that the apportionment responds if administrative demands on affiliates increase.

The following calculation bases of the apportionments are typical.

(e.g.) per population,
   per population of the specific region
   per number of students
   per quantity of water supply
(iii) Stability oriented
This type focuses on the stability of the expense burden. If this style were adopted, the amount of the burden would not change. For the affiliates, it is easier to know what to expect to pay to the PAA each year.

The following calculation bases of the apportionment are typical

(e.g.) per capita
fixed share
per number of houses

In many cases, several bases are adopted and mixed in a calculated formula that is stated in a PAA statute.

9. Issues of PAA
a. Opinions of the Affiliates
PAA has been thought to have both the merits and the demerits. What do the affiliates think about the current wide-area government? When we consider this subject some survey suggests several points. The results of the survey which were carried out on December 31 in 2012 are shown in Figure 23.

<Figure 23> The issues of wide-area government (as of December 31, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of wide-area administration</th>
<th>Municipalities which operate wide-area administration (Respondent)</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Issues of wide-area administration</th>
<th>Answer : The issues exist. (Multiple answers allowed)</th>
<th>Answer : The issues do not exist.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of answers</td>
<td>Share (%)</td>
<td>Number of answers</td>
<td>Share (%)</td>
<td>Number of answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial affairs association</td>
<td>1,623</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide area union</td>
<td>1,578</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>66.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>85.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint establishment of organs and such</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>67.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegation of duties</td>
<td>1,106</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>47.6</td>
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</table>

Source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of transactions of municipalities”, MIC, 2012.

Among the methods, concerning PAA, the ratio of the answer that the issues exist is 32.4% and much higher than the others. Therefore, PAAAs have been facing not a few problems to be solved. Regarding PAA problems, the top most common problems were “It’s hard to have urgent decision-making” and “It’s hard to reflect affiliate bodies’ opinions” (Figure 24).

<Figure 24> Types of problems with the PAAAs

Source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of transactions of municipalities”
Major sources of discontent regarding PAAs concerned “running out of time” and “an imperfect reflection of views of the affiliates.” In many PAAs, the head of the chief executives are appointed among the heads of the affiliates, and substantial decision-making is based on consensus among the affiliates. Those structures often seem related to these concerns. Compared to the PAA, the council seems to have fewer problems that take a long time to achieve consensus, but it is easier to include the affiliates’ in the decisions.

Overall, the affiliates want more rapid decision-making and adequate consideration of their opinions, which leads them to simpler and more flexible administrative approaches.

b. Simplification of the system

Another problem for the PAAs is the need to simplify the system. The distribution in the number of affiliates is shown in Figure 28. The number varies widely; the largest exceeds 100 and the smallest is two. About 36% of all PAAs are those whose number of affiliates is two (mini-PAA). (<Figure25>)

<Figure25> Distribution of affiliates as of 2018

The percentage is not low, but it demonstrates overall inefficiency because the purpose is to join efforts. In some cases, the delegation of duties administrative approach would be more appropriate because the necessity of an independent office and staff might be ambiguous. The relationship of the number of municipalities and the number of mini-PAAs by prefecture is shown in Figure 26 (r = 0.35), demonstrating a weak relationship.

<Figure26> Relationship of the number of municipalities and the number of mini-PAA by Prefecture

This means that the number of mini-PAA does not closely relate to the number of municipalities. Currently, mini-PAAs are believed to be because of consecutive municipal consolidations and other historical factors. When these facts are considered together, the way forward for wide-area administration is to make a “flexible transition” from a PAA to one of the other methods. In some cases
of a mini-PAA, it would be most reasonable to transition to a delegation of duty or to a joint establishment of organ because of the costs of downsizing, as an initial move. After that, when the situation changes, a further transition may be required. Flexibility is required in today’s local governments.

The trend shows that the number of mini-PAA has been decreasing and at the same time the middle-size PAA whose affiliated entities is more than thirty and less than forty has increased. Becoming larger size is one of the characteristics of current PAA. (Figure27)

![Change of number of PAA by number of affiliated entities](Image)

Source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of joint administration in 2010-2018”

B. Delegation of duty

Delegation of duty is a contract type of IMC. An assignor entity (local government) and an assignee makes a consignment contract; the authority concerned of the public affair is relegated to the assignee entity; for example, the bylaw concerned of the assignee is applied to the jurisdiction of the assignor.

This contract type IMC does not create a legal corporate status; this does not accompany the employments and public facilities. Consequently it has the merit of flexibility; it can easily transform to the other types of IMC responding as the situation demands.

Currently the principal affairs are as follows; providing certificate of residence (21%), equity commission(18%), fire prevention(6%). The service which has interface with residents’ daily lives such as providing certificate of residence and those which requires specialists such as equity commission and fire prevention are principal in this type. (Figure28)

![Affairs; Delegation of Duty](Image)

Source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of joint administration in 2018”

Delegation of duty is popular among IMC methods but it has the issue. In the survey above mentioned, 13.1% reported that problems exist, which was less than half of the percentage that reported there are problems with PAA. Specifically, “It’s hard to have
urgent decision-making” was again the most common problem stated. In addition, “It’s hard to get necessary information for business from affiliates” was reported by 18.6% of the respondents, which is a remarkably high percentage. (Figure 29)

<Figure29> Types of problems with the delegation of duties

Concerning delegation of duties, the insufficiency of necessary information for business seems to be the problem that need to be addressed, but the amount of discontent was much lower here than regarding the other types of administration (Figure 29).

IV Garbage Disposal and Inter-municipal Cooperation

In the above chapters we overview the situation of total affairs of MIC methods. And in this chapter we survey the affair of the garbage disposal and MIC.

A. PAA

1. Situation

For garbage disposal PAA is principal; it shares seventy one percent of IMC entities. This is because the garbage disposal service requires certain staff and public facilities and corporate legal status which can independently make contracts with the counterparts is well-suited to this affair. Therefore municipalities get a lot of use PAA method for garbage disposal. (Figure30)

<Figure30>

The average number of the affiliated entities of total of PAA is 6.3 and that of garbage disposal PAA is 3.5; it is much fewer than the average. (Figure31)
This suggests that the type of PAA has an impact on the size of the number of the affiliated entities. The type ‘not so frequent but highly probable needs’ is well-suited to the mass disposal and this type has a larger size of the number of the affiliated entities; e.g., work injuries insurance, retirement allowance and such. And the other type, ‘operating large size of public facilities’ has generally fewer affiliated entities; e.g., water supply (average 5.1), fire prevention(3.8), garbage disposal(3.5) and such. This type requires higher cost, investment for the facilities and payment for the staffs and therefore the necessity for the smooth consensus-building may cap the number of the affiliated entities.

Since the year of 2008 the total number of PAA has been a little decreasing, and the total number of delegation of duty has been increasing. Under those situations, the number of both of PAA and the delegation of duty of garbage disposal remains mostly the same level. (Figure 32)

When we overview the change of the number in recent years with reference to that of the year of 2008, the number of PAA has
been increasing slightly and gradually. On the other hand the number of delegation of duty and wide area union has been fluctuating and increasing. This shows the fact that the new setup and the dissolution of the delegation is carried out more frequently among IMC methods. (Figure33)

![Figure33](source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of joint administration in 2010-2018”)

The number of the affiliated entities of IMC of garbage disposal shows the fact that the total number has once decreased in 2006 but since then it has been increasing gradually while the total number of municipalities has remarkably decreasing because of Heisei Consolidation. (Figure 34)

![Figure34](source: Created by the author using “Survey of the system of joint administration in 2004-2018”)

These facts show that in spite of the progress of the municipal consolidation, the needs of the broader administration for garbage disposal is still strong. And the development of IMC has been continuing today.

2. Expenditure

Next we shall see the scale of administrative activities through the size of expenditures. In the Environment area, we shall classify PAA which is in charge of environment administration (Environment PAA hereinafter) and the others (sole municipality or the other
The number of Environment PAA has been remarkably decreasing but the amount of PAA has slightly and gradually increasing. (Figure35)

The turning point was Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011. The disaster recovery and the emergency restoration need more amount of garbage disposal.

In the year of 2011, the amount of the cleaning expense which means ordinary garbage disposal remarkably became remarkably larger than that in 2010; about 11.4 percent of the amount was disposed by PAA. (Figure36) And the commission expense and the ordinary construction expense clearly increased in the year of 2011. (Figure37)

This is the typical case in which the natural and social change had a clear impact on the demand of public service. After this turning point in the area of garbage disposal PAA has been playing the important role than ever before.

Next, the number of the environment PAA has decreased, and the number of total of garbage disposal PAA and the human waste disposal PAA also decreased. However the total amount of the expenditure of the environment PAA has fluctuating and since 2011 it has the trend of increasing; as a result the expenditure per environment PAA draws a similar curve. (Figure36)
B. Delegation of duty

As above mentioned, the year of 2011 was a turning point; the environment expenditure remarkably increased because of the disaster recovery and emergency restoration as shown in Figure 35. By the same token, the number of the affiliated entities especially both of PAA and the delegation of duty increased among IMC methods as shown in Figure 34. Both of them have been principal IMC methods and municipalities were thought to have preference for either of them. Among them the affiliated entities which make much of consensus-building are thought to have preference for PAA, and a central city in the region with the initiative for broader disposal would accept the delegation of duty with the neighbor smaller municipalities. (Figure38)
C. Wide-area Union

The new wave is the Wider-area Union (WU hereinafter). We shall focus on the case of Kansai WU as a case study. The plastic garbage is becoming a hot issue in Kansai area. Therefore Kansai WU made the broad area survey of generation of the plastic garbage along Osaka Bay across each affiliated entity’s boundary as shown in Figure 39.

Kansai WU executed the fact-finding survey; it grasped the actual materials and the quantitative data. (Figure 40 and Figure 41)

The general waste disposal is the affairs of municipalities. Kansai WU itself is implementing the entitlement program. Moreover, based on the data and analysis of those surveys, each affiliate can plan regulation (e.g. through bylaws) and the other detail policies.

The contemporary society is getting complexed and the new administrative demand such as plastics emission is brought about. Under those situations, the fact-finding process in the broader area is becoming more significant. Therefore those fact-finding function is expected for the current IMC.

VI Conclusion
Based on the overviews above the conclusion is derived as follows;

A. The Principal changes of Japanese IMC

The question was “what are the principal changes of Japanese IMC?” Concerning this question, the significant backgrounds in Japanese situation are three points.

a. The large range of public affairs;

The local governments are given large range of the authorities and the responsibilities which are basically allocated by the national acts concerned.

b. The population decline;

The population of Japan has been declining sharply after peaking at 128.08 million in 2008. The government has begun taking measures to counteract this shrinking society; promoting inter-communal cooperation is ranked as one of the central policies.

c. Need for wide-area public services;

The need and the expectation for wide-area public services have been so strong in Japan that both of the consolidation and IMC advanced concurrently.

Surrounded those situations, the principal changes of IMC are as follows;

a. Growing number of affiliated bodies;

When the need for wide-area public services are still strong and the society becomes more depopulated, the reasonable direction is pursuing IMC. And as a result the number of the affiliated entities still increasing.

b. Progress of Diversity;

The legal frame are prepared in the LAL and the contemporary society becomes more complexed. Under these situations the variety of IMC has developed and not only the corporation legal status type but also non-corporate legal status type such as a contract type have been frequently used by the local governments.

Those are the main changes of current IMC frame and how to make use of those IMC methods is closely related with each region’s strategy for revitalization.

B. The key for future effective regional waste management

First, as we have overviewed the current situation, environment area has unique characteristics. Nuisance and contiguous cost are intrinsic character of this public service. Therefore consensus-building among the affiliated entities are quite significant; e.g. location of garbage facilities, range of emission standard, scale and timing of investment and such. Where PAA is well-suited for formulating those consensus, it will be more developed. On the other hand, where flexibility of the business is given higher value or a central city has already established the leadership in the region the contract type will be preferred. It depends on the regional situation but generally the diversity of methods is thought to develop.

Second, as Kansai WU case shows, the broader fact-finding by IMC can be placed much value; in the complexed contemporary society, before getting to plan the policy, precise fact-finding for the coming administrative agenda has become significance. Therefore MIC can be expected for those new roles.

Taking consideration to those two phases, we can have the conclusion that the strategy for IMC is more closely related with the regional revitalization in the depopulated society and it is worth of our paying attention to that strategy.
Bibliography


