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## General Survey

### Census Finds Population Growth Hitting Postwar Low-2.1%

On November 29, the Management and Coordination Agency released the outcome of the national census, conducted on October 1, 1990. According to the 1990 national census, Japan's population stood at 123,611,162, an increase of 2,652,244, or 2.1 percent from the previous 1985 survey. The nation thus registered its slowest population growth rate since the end of World War II. With a population of 123.61 million, Japan ranks seventh largest in the world next only to Communist China, India, the Soviet Union, the U.S., Indonesia and Brazil. Of the population 60,696,724 citizens were male and 62,914,443 female.

By age, the number of people aged 14 and under plunged by 13.6 percent from the previous survey to 22,486,239, or 18.2 percent of the total population. On the other hand, the number of people aged 65 or older surged by 19.5 percent from 1985 to 14,894,595, accounting for 12 percent of the population. The proportion of the elderly has risen since the mid-1950s. Compared with the 1965 survey, the percentage of older persons in the total population rose 1.9 times over the 25 year period, showing Japanese society to be one in which citizens are rapidly aging. Internationally, the proportion of elderly persons in Japan's population is close to the 12.6 percent level of the U.S., though it is lower than the 13.4 percent average level of Western nations.

Furthermore, the census finds a rising number of "unmarried women," and the tendency for both males and females to marry in later years. This seems related to the rapid advance of women into the labor market. Also, the census points to a surge in the number of elderly people living alone and a leap in foreigners residing in Japan.

Of men in the 23-29 age bracket, 64.4 percent remained unmarried, a 16.1 percentage point increase from the previous 1975 survey. Of women in the same age bracket, 40.2 percent were unmarried, a 19.3 percentage point increase, thus showing that the rate of unmarried women has risen notably. This is further apparent from growth in the labor force by sex. Following the first oil crisis of 1973, the male work force grew around 4 percent, while the female work force grew 7-8 percent-almost twice that of male workers. This, it is fair to say, shows an increase in job opportunities as well as women's growing desire to enter the professional world.

One-person families of senior citizens over 65, living alone stood at 1,623,433, a 37.5 percent increase over 1985. The proportion of the over-65s in the total population rose 1.4 percent point to 10.9 percent, breaking the 10 percent mark for the first time since the war.

The number of foreigners residing in Japan leapt by 166, 304 from the previous survey to 886,397, making up 0.72 percent of the population. By nationality, North and South Koreans represented the highest percent of the total foreign population, followed by Chinese, Filipinos and Americans.

### **A 1991 White Paper on Women Labour**

On December 9, the Ministry of Labour released a White Paper on Women Labour for 1991. Each year, the Ministry's Women's Bureau compiles data on related trends, which are published under the title "Actual Situation of Women Workers," using various statistical materials published by governmental organs. This year's white paper, consisting of two different parts, deals with 1989 situation of women workers in Part I and reemployment of women and part-timers in Part II.

The white paper says that in 1990 the number of women employees soared to 18.34 million, an increase of 850,000 from the year before, hitting record high. This probably reflects the nation's economic expansion and the labor crunch. The female labor participation rate, which represents the percentage of women who desire to work, topped 50 percent for the first time in 21 years since 1969. Double-income families accounted for about one-third of total households, suggesting further advances of women into the job market.

Those firms which actively employ women in midcareer stood at 41.1 percent of those which hire midcareer persons as regular workers. They cited as reasons for employing midcareer women "Can hire experienced persons who meet the immediate needs for corporate jobs," thus positively evaluating the abilities and skills of such women. Only 18.9 percent cited "Difficult to hire new graduates" and "Low personnel costs." On the utilization of midcareer women, many of those firms which rehire women for positive reasons "actively utilize them by providing education and training" or "employ those with skills and hard-won knowledge on the frontline." Also, many even promote midcareer women to supervisory and managerial positions. On the other hand, many of those which reemploy women for negative reasons fail to possess a clear-cut policy for utilizing midcareer women. The white paper notes that many companies set an upper age limit in reemploying women. Approximately 60 percent of those which employ such women as "regulars" do so. They cited as reasons for setting an upper age limit "vocational ability will decline at older ages" and "Takes time to learn jobs as age progresses."

Employment of women as part-timers-working less than 35 hours a week-has continued to grow in the past 10 years. The rate of increase in the number of women part-time workers surpasses that of the number of regular women workers, the white paper says. Looking at the

age composition of women part-timers, more than 80 percent are 35 and older. A major reason for choosing to work part-time is "The work place is close to the house." With part-timers engaged in special and technical as well as office-management jobs tending to grow in recent years, firms have an increasingly strong tendency to regard such part-timers as "core or regular staff" rather than the "staff of auxiliary or temporary nature."

For those women wishing to find reemployment, it is necessary to acquire knowledge and skills even before they quit their previous work so that they can maximize their abilities developed through their former job experiences. Corporations, for their part, need to hire such women in consideration of their desire to work, abilities and qualifications. The importance is that they offer these midcareer women education and training programs after hiring, to actively utilize them by providing job duties and treatment according to their willingness to work and abilities. Establishment of employment administration, such as expansion of job fields for part-time workers, which enables them to demonstrate their abilities to the fullest extent, is necessary in years to come, the white paper adds.

## Working Conditions and the Labor Market

### Starting Wage Gap between Firms Narrows-Survey Results on 1991 Starting Pay-

The starting salaries of male engineering students who graduated in March 1991 broke the 180,000 Yen mark for the first time, according to a Basic Survey on Wage Structure (preliminary release) published on November 28 by the Ministry of Labour. Reflecting a labor shortage stemming from the nation's economic boom, individual businesses increased their starting wages to attract prospective employees. They increased by a monthly average of 10,000 Yen over the year before for new employees with college and high school diplomas. What is particularly notable is that the rate growth in starting pay at smaller-scale firms was higher than the year before, thus narrowing the imbalance between firms in starting wages for male and female graduates in all education categories.

The preliminary report is based on survey results on initial wages for first-year employees of about 19,000 private companies that employ 10 or more regular workers. Starting wages include basic pay as well as family maintenance and other allowances except for commutation allowances. Male college graduates started at 179,400 Yen. Engineering graduates, in particular, received an average starting pay of 181,700 Yen, up 10,200Yen from a year earlier. Thus the starting pay of male engineering graduates broke the level of 180,000 Yen for the first time. Female college graduates received starting wages averaged 172,300 Yen, but those in the engineering field started at 176,300 Yen, or 4,000 Yen more than those in the

general job field.

By company size, at large firms with 1,000 and more regular employees the starting pay of male college graduates was 181,300 Yen, while at small-and medium-sized firms with 100-999 regular employees the average 170,000 Yen. At firms of all sizes, males with technical and junior college education started at 150,000 Yen, while those with high school education started at around 140,000 Yen. On the other hand, female college graduates started at the 170,000 Yen level at large and medium-sized firms and at the 130,000 Yen level at small-sized firms.

Smaller-scale firms increased year-on-year growth in starting wages for both male and female graduates in all education categories, suggesting that the gap in pay between the firms tended to narrow.

## Labor-Management Relations

### Wage Demands for 1992 *Shunto*

Rengo (Japan Trade Union Confederation) plans to demand a wage hike of at least 8 percent, or 20,000 Yen or more per month, and 1,900-odd work hours or less than the average of 1,956 hours in the U.S. The union demands come at a time when the nation's economy, which has continued to grow for 4 years, is slowing to a moderate pace of growth.

Labor unions of the steel, electrical machinery, automobile and shipbuilding industries will all demand an 8 percent wage raise (a 7.8 percent pay increase for steel workers aged 35 with 17 years of service). Unions in all industries are seeking wage rises similar to the previous year. The position of the four heavy-industry union groups that traditionally set the pace of annual wage talks in *shunto*, or the spring labor offensive. Labor unions of public-interest industries, utilities and private railways, as well as Zendentsu (a labor union of NTT, Japan's largest communications company) have decided to seek pay raises of 8 percent, 9.3 percent and 8.5 percent, respectively.

In 1990, employees (at firms with 30 or more regular employees) worked an average of 2,052 hours. In the 1989 *shunto*, labor set shorter work hours as its major goal to be achieved endeavoring to reduce work hours, which are average 100 hours per year longer than in the U.S. and 400 hours longer than in Germany and France. In the coming *shunto*, labor will put reduction of yearly working hours as an important objective to be achieved together with a wage hike. Labor and management of the steel industry agreed that their mid-term goal is 1,800 work hours a year, to be achieved in the mid-1990s. This year they will demand more

scheduled holidays (two additional days for regular workers and three for shift workers) and an addition of two or more days-off to the annual paid leave.

Union members of the electrical-machinery industry have set the following two objectives. First, 5 days-off for the multi-purpose vacation, such as the vacation for education and training; and second, increasing to 20 days, the number of annual paid holidays for those with one year of seniority.

Auto industry workers failed to achieve the goal of "five additional holidays by 1993" in last year's *shunto*. However, for this year they hope to achieve 1,800-odd hours by 1995. In this year's *shunto*, labor will concentrate on winning "management's understanding" and will make efforts toward gaining a 20 percent cut in non-scheduled work time and achieve 90 percent utilization of annual paid holidays throughout the year.

Furthermore, Zendentsu workers and electric utilities workers will seek to achieve requests for shorter working time, through such measures as expansion of vacation time.

In relation to the shortening of work hours, labor unions in the metal industries, such as those in the steel industry, will join together to make coordinated demands for increasing overtime rates. This draws much attention from various quarters. This aims to reduce non-scheduled work time, which exceeds 250 hours a year, by raising overtime pay rates. Steel industry workers are demanding a rise in the rate of pay for work on holidays and late at night from the current 30 percent premium to 35 percent. Labor union members of the electrical machinery and shipbuilding industries are demanding a rise of the premium to 35 percent for late-night work on weekdays and 45 percent for work on holidays. It is expected that this year's *shunto* will climax on March 25 and 26 in major companies.

### **Labor Unions Tackling Issue of Foreign Workers' Human Rights**

With society globalizing, the widespread labor shortage and its relation to acceptance of foreign workers have come to the fore, posing a social problem. The issue of foreign workers is not simply the subject of concern in the labor field, but also affects communities and culture. Accordingly, labor unions and administrative organs, unable to break free from the traditional framework, have been slow in coping properly with the ongoing deterioration of situation.

While upholding its stance of opposing acceptance of unskilled foreign workers, Rengo set forth its plan to protect foreign workers' human rights. This is in the wake of the fact that the issue of foreign laborers working in Japan must be squarely faced by the organization. Industrial unions have begun to study measures to cope with acceptance of foreign trainees and workers. Particularly notable is the new action plan adopted by Ippandomei (National

Federation of General Worker's Unions; Chairman: Akashi Oki). It has decided to accept foreign non-skilled workers by setting a limit on the number of such workers and their stays, such as through a registration system. The decision was the first of its kind made by a union under the umbrella of Rengo. It will urge the central government to promote the purchase of social and labor insurance by foreign workers while asking businesses and local governments to share the responsibility for improving the system of accepting foreign workers. Also, it will study how to organize foreign workers. At its December 1991 central committee, Kinzoku-kikai (National Metal and Mechanical Workers' Union of Japan; President: Yoshio Hashimura) decided upon a model agreement for acceptance of foreign workers and trainees. It contains as pillars; first necessitating prior consultations between labor and management; second clarifying job content and contents of a training program; third, providing adequate training programs and improving working conditions and safety and hygiene measures for acceptance of foreign workers and trainees; and fourth, selecting a person responsible for employment of foreign workers to deal appropriately with complaints. While fundamentally objecting to acceptance of foreign non-skilled workers, the organization showed its fundamental stance of opposition to foreign workers and trainees as the chief source of labor.

Approximately 500,000 foreigners are presently working in Japan. Of them, 200,000 to 300,000 are reportedly unlawfully engaged in work. The unions' measures taken to cope with the foreign worker issue are based upon the recognition that these illegal workers should not go unreported, while being at the mercy of underground organizations.

The government decided at a Cabinet meeting that it cannot allow foreign non-skilled workers into Japan, showing its stance of treating foreign workers within the framework of a training system aimed at international cooperation in technology transfer.

Many smaller-scale firms want to hire foreign trainees, however. Clearly they wish to fill the demand created by the labor shortage in some form or another. The launching of an international training cooperation organization is a reflection of such calls for the admission of foreign trainees from small and medium-sized firms. Debate is now underway over incorporating an employment-type training program into the organizations program. At a press conference held when he was appointed as the Minister of Labour, Tetsuo Kondo announced the government's plan to establish a system under which foreign trainees aged 20 and over will be loaned training expenses and will be allowed to work for at least 3 years to repay these.

## **Reserve Permanent Job Positions for Short-Time Disabled Employees, Panel Says**

The Council on Employment of the Handicapped, an advisory body to the Minister of Labour (headed by Taishiro Shirai, advisor to the Japan Institute of Labour), compiled recommendations on future measures for employment of handicapped persons.

The recommendation, submitted to Labour Minister Kondo, calls for extension of the legally prescribed employment quota of disabled persons into those disabled persons who work short hours of 22 to 33 a week. This aims to encourage employment of those severely disabled people who find it difficult to work full-time for reasons of hospital commutes. The recommendation also asks for substantiated employment measures for mentally retarded persons and formerly mentally handicapped persons.

Acting on the Council's recommendation, the Ministry of Labour will submit a bill revising the Law for Employment Promotion of the Disabled to the next ordinary session. The proportion of disabled people in total employees at private firms has continued to stay low at 1.32 percent, below the legal employment quota of 1.6 percent, for three consecutive years. This is particularly notable among severely handicapped persons. In view of this fact, the recommendation points out the need to encourage employment of severely handicapped persons through the spread of short-time employment as well as various other employment patterns, such as the home work system, flex-time and the satellite office.

The recommendation furthermore notes the effectiveness of vocational rehabilitation at the actual work place provided to a certain segment of disabled persons, such as those who are mentally retarded, while allowing them to experience specific societal and working lives. Toward this end, the recommendation asks for full-fledged implementation of a vocational-development assistance project at regional vocational centers for the disabled. Under the project, the regional centers, in cooperation with employers, will give the disabled working-life and technical guidance suited to their needs, to help them develop their own job abilities.

The recommendation refers to substantiated assistance to the disabled after they have been employed. To seek stable employment of persons with severely defective vision and mentally retarded people in particular, the recommendation calls for the need to take proper aid measures, such as assistance of those who help them work at the job site, which will enable them to actively better their qualities. To promote employment of disabled persons, it is desirable that employers, workers and labor unions all unite to tackle the issue, the recommendations adds.

## HIRING PRACTICES IN JAPAN

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### 1. Features

Seniority based wage system with merit, long-term employment, systematic in-house training and flexible transfers within and between workplaces and so on. All this is said to constitute the components of Japanese-style personnel administration typical of many Japanese large corporations. In addition to this, hiring management is still another component which serves to form Japanese-style personnel administration.

The first feature of Japanese-style hiring management is that basically, companies employ new school leavers at a specific period of time. "Hiring new school graduates" means employing in April of each year inexperienced recruits just out of school in March, as regular full-time employees. Hiring in midcareer, on the other hand, refers to employing, as occasion demands, those who change jobs or who are jobless, at any given time.

It is fair to say that the fundamental employment policy of many Japanese firms, regardless of size, is hiring new school graduates at a specific period of time. In actuality, however, except for the largest corporations, it is difficult to fill all vacancies with new graduates because of the limited supply of new graduates. The smaller the company's size, the more the difficulty. Normally, the smaller the firm the less satisfactory are working conditions and job security at all stages of working life, thus keeping new school graduates away from small companies. In fact, large numbers of small-sized firms exclusively employ midcareer persons due to lack of ability to hire new graduates.

Therefore, the most companies, except for the largest companies, must hire midcareer people in order to fill vacancies. Meanwhile, many younger persons quit firms they have joined immediately after graduation from school. It is thus common for companies to give the first choice to young persons with little work experience when they need midcareer recruits. But once again small businesses are put at a disadvantage in the context of midcareer employment of youths.

As we have observed, the fundamental hiring policy of many large and middle-sized companies is to employ new graduates at a specific period of time and young persons in midcareer at any time they became available. To put it in another way, their first choice is for young people with little or no work experience. Even small firms, it is safe to say, have the same ideology, although putting this into reality is extremely difficult for them.

The second feature is that putting newly hired young people into specific positions is not a precondition for hiring. Young people are employed by specific companies, not for specific jobs. Therefore, the screening criteria used by firms for selecting recruits are not professional knowledge nor technological skills useful for specific jobs, but general knowledge and culture, eagerness for work, the will to work, understanding and judgment, cooperativeness, health and physical strength. In other words, what is emphasized is whether the recruits can efficiently improve their abilities through systematic education and training systems, to what extent they possess trainability, and furthermore, whether they can work in cooperation.

The aforementioned two features of hiring administration, coupled with various other ones, constitute what is known as the Japanese-style personnel administration system, which will be discussed below. Japan's large and middle-sized firms employ young and highly adaptable workers with not a little work experience and let them acquire broad knowledge and technological skills by giving on-the-job and occasional off-the-job training through flexible inter-workplace transfers. Their wages rise gradually corresponding with their performance improved with length of service, while being based on the merit system. The employees thus will stay with the same company for many years until reaching the mandatory retirement age.

## **2. Issues**

These features of hiring administration, on the other hand, create the following two problems. One is concerned with employment of new graduates, especially, new college graduates, and the other involves the underdeveloped labor market for those hired in midcareer. From April through July we see groups of male and female college students wearing conservative suits on campuses. Most of them, who are seniors, do not attend class, however. In the wake of job hunting they are on campus to exchange information with friends or on their way to and from job interviews. Some make the rounds of 10 or more potential employers, some even as many of 50. During the job hunting season they have no time to attend class. The large corporations many of these seniors aspire to join, employ new graduates only at specific times during the year. If they miss their chance, they cannot enter their desired firm. Furthermore, once they join the company, they are naturally expected to continue to stay with it until the age of mandatory retirement. Accordingly, they need to be

very cautious about choosing the firm. This is a matter of great importance which largely determines their working career. Perhaps it is quite natural to pump all their energy into job-seeking activities.

Large companies, on their part, must screen in order to get the right personnel, based upon the before-mentioned criteria, from among those college seniors who come in great numbers during the specific season. Firms must also be careful about who should be hired, since it is taken for granted that new recruits will be on the payroll until they reach the mandatory retirement age, in other words, since it is difficult to fire them even if they turn out to be unfit for the companies. In addition, trainability and cooperativeness are the key elements in the screening criteria, which cannot be discerned objectively and easily in quality. As a result, companies need to take time in choosing the right persons.

The needs on both sides, in other words for the students and the firm, require that job determining process be extraordinarily intense during the period of April to July. The frenzy over job hunting begins to subside around August when companies finish screening recruits and start promising them employment from April of the following year, through offers of *naitei*, or informal guarantees of employment. College and universities, on their part, see their functions as halls of learning to be seriously impaired by this type of process with seniors hardly attending class. The academic side therefore has to ask businesses to delay the start of recruiting. Businesses, on the other hand, need to control their frenzied recruiting. If no specific measures are taken, they may even need to compete for recruiting juniors or even sophomores. Thus, an agreement on when recruitment can start has been reached between the schools and businesses. In reality, however, this has produced no substantial results since it remains a gentleman's agreement without penalty. In fact, the 1990 agreement stipulated that August was the month in which hiring activities would commence; but company recruiting, in actuality, began around April and was finished in August at the large corporations.

The abovementioned features of hiring administration indicate that it is advantageous for both college seniors and companies to attempt to get a head start in job hunting and recruiting over the others. Furthermore various characteristics of personnel management, such as hiring management, intrafirm education and training programs and long-term employment, make it difficult for us to think that this phenomenon will go away very quickly. The growing demand for college graduates on the part of corporations stems from their need to develop business operations in the face of ongoing internationalization and innovation in information technology. At the same time they face a predicted decline in the number of college graduates resulting from slowing growth in population. On the other hand, there is a symptom of change, as will be mentioned below.

The other issue involving feature of hiring administration is the underdeveloped job market for midcareer recruits. This means that the practice of evaluating the vocational abilities of job hoppers and unemployed persons in order to actively employ them, has not yet taken root at large and middle-sized companies, thus putting midcareer employees at a disadvantage in the labor market. However, recent years have witnessed the problem gradually being solved because the ballooning of periodicals offering employment information. This has made job information plentiful for those looking for midcareer jobs. These job-information periodicals, however, mainly are useful for students and young people who change jobs and who are unemployed. On the contrary they are not oriented toward middle-aged and elderly women, who re-enter the job market after completing childrearing and domestic responsibilities, and older workers, who will continue to work after they have reached mandatory retirement age. As we have seen, large and middle-sized companies do not often hire middle-aged and elderly women and older workers as full-time regular employees. Middle-aged and older women are given part-time status, not full-time status, and come under the application of the wage as well as education and training systems that differ from those of regular full-time workers. Many middle-aged and older women, however, want to work as part-timers with less heavy responsibilities and shorter hours rather than regular full-time employees. Accordingly, there may be no need to make the pattern of part-time employment a controversial issue. One of the issues involving part-time work is that some persons can only work part-time despite their desire to work full-time. The greater problem involving part-time employment is that there are several types of part-time work and that the system of personnel management according to these types has yet to be consolidated. But no further discussion will be made of this here, since it oversteps the bounds of the main issue. Many elderly workers, when they seek re-employment after they have reached the age for mandatory retirement, are not duly evaluated in terms of their vocational ability and experience and are forced to work in non-skilled jobs. This is an extremely serious problem, if continued further aging of Japanese society in the years ahead is taken into consideration.

### **3. Changes occurring in Japanese hiring practices**

Japan's hiring practices and several accompanying problems are undergoing gradual change. The first of these changes is as follows. While adopting the fundamental policy of employing new school graduates, increasing numbers of large corporations actively employ young persons leaving work a few years after they have initially entered the job market (the number of such young workers is not small). Called *daini-shinsotsu* (literally, "second new graduates"), or "another class of new graduates," these young persons are employed by large corporations, together with new graduates. Against this backdrop lie, it appears, the dwindling number of college graduates in coming years, rising costs stemming from the overheated recruiting competition and the growing percentage of young persons who change

jobs. But here no major changes are found in the characteristics of employment of young people in particular with screening based on trainability and cooperativeness. In other words, there are no changes seen which will provide a solution for the issue of the premature labor market for midcareer persons. Yet the following changes taken place are significant.

The second of these changes is an increase in *shukko*, or transfers to subsidiaries and other related firms from the initial place of employment. Shukko means a job pattern in which the employee of a certain company signs an employment contract with another firm to work there (in some cases the employee terminates employment with the transferring firm). This form of employment is used for a variety of purposes, such as education and training, improvement of the management of other companies, strengthening of relations with other firms, assurance of employment for the elderly and diversification of business activities. Shukko, except for that of short duration, is a transfer between firms, or a job change from one firm to another, and this may be viewed as a type of midcareer hiring used by those firms which receive transferred employees. When the vocational ability of a transferred employee and the needs of a company are both scrutinized to offer the transferee a job, a position and treatment commensurate with his or her vocational ability, the aforementioned disadvantages accompanying midcareer hiring will be offset, to some extent.

The third change is the rising number of corporations which promote part-time employees just as they do regular full-time employees. This trend is observed in the supermarket companies where there have emerged part-time employees who are promoted to managerial and supervisory positions. This trend holds out the promise of application of personnel management similar to that for regular full-time workers, carrying with it the promise of regular short-time employment. The fundamental policy of hiring young persons in particular as regular full-time workers would thus undergo basic change.

The fourth change involves a rise in the number of the workers engaged in temporary help supply service. Firms which dispatch temporary staff to other firms contribute to the development of the organized labor market for midcareer recruits in the following two ways. First, temporary workers are normally employed to perform specific jobs at firms to which they are sent, and wages paid are directly linked to jobs. In employing such staff, dispatching companies place emphasis not on trainability and cooperativeness, but on knowledge and skills for doing specific jobs. They perform hiring management which is basically different from that adopted at many Japanese corporations. Dispatching firms, it is safe to say, offer those transferees and jobless persons who may have otherwise been midcareer recruits a chance to fully utilize their vocational abilities. Second, dispatched workers are classified into several types, one type being the worker who has become a temporary staff because of the unavailability of regular employment in the large and middle-sized companies. The possibility

is high that this type of worker is sent to a firm to take relatively long-term assignments, and that the firm in turn duly evaluates his or her vocational ability and will eventually want to employ him or her on a regular basis. It is partly because the cost of using temporary staff is quite high. Once again, the firm which dispatch such workers functions as an organ which offers midcareer persons an adequate job opportunity.

Lastly, it should be noted that we are now also seeing in Japan, more of those in managerial or professional posts being scouted or recruited away by other firms. This too prompts organization of the job market for those hired in midcareer, although this practice has not yet been popular.

## Statistical Aspects

### Recent Labor Economy Indices

Recent Labor Economy Indices

|                                  | October 1991         | September 1991       | Change from previous year |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| Labor force                      | 6,554 (10 thousand)  | 6,578 (10 thousand)  | 89 (10 thousand)          |
| Employed                         | 6,422                | 6,437                | 96                        |
| Employees                        | 5,047                | 5,016                | 118                       |
| Unemployed(S.A.)                 | 133                  | 141                  | - 7                       |
| Unemployment rate(S.A.)          | 2.0 %                | 2.2 %                | - 0.2                     |
| Active opening rate(S.A.)        | 1.33                 | 1.34                 | - 0.1                     |
| Total hours worked               | 169.9 (hours)        | 167.2 (hours)        | 2.8*                      |
| Total wages of regular employees | (Ythousand)<br>263.6 | (Ythousand)<br>262.4 | 3.8*                      |

Source: Management and Coordination Agency, Ministry of Labour.

Notes: 1. S.A. denotes seasonally adjusted.

2. \* denotes annual percent change.

3. From January 1991, data of "Total hours worked" and "Total wages of regular employees" are for firms with from 5 to 30 employees.

### *Age-wise scheduled Pay for Standard Workers with College Education and Gap between Males and Females*

**Age-wise scheduled Pay for Standard Workers with  
College Education and Gap between Males and Females**

| Age group | Scheduled Pay<br>(¥ thousand) |       | Gap between<br>the Sexes<br>(Men=100) |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-------|---------------------------------------|
|           | Females                       | Males |                                       |
| 20~24     | 178.3                         | 187.9 | 94.9                                  |
| 25~29     | 203.8                         | 226.7 | 89.9                                  |
| 30~34     | 249.9                         | 289.6 | 86.3                                  |
| 35~39     | 302.7                         | 368.8 | 82.1                                  |
| 40~44     | 372.0                         | 450.7 | 82.5                                  |
| 45~49     | 403.7                         | 541.2 | 74.6                                  |
| 50~54     | 457.2                         | 605.5 | 75.5                                  |
| 55~59     | 513.6                         | 594.8 | 86.3                                  |

Source: Ministry of Labour, *Basic Statistical Survey on Wage Structure* (June 1990)

Note: Standard workers mean those who joined businesses immediately after graduation from college and who have continued to stay with the same businesses.

**Trends in Number of Employed Workers**

**Trends in Number of Employed Workers**

| Year | Females  |                                   | Males  |                                   | Rate of<br>Females in<br>the total<br>number of<br>employed<br>workers(%) |
|------|--|-----------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|---|
|      | No. of<br>employed<br>workers<br>(10 thousand) | Year on year<br>percentage<br>(%) | No. of<br>employed<br>workers<br>(10 thousand) | Year-on-year<br>percentage<br>(%) |   |
| 1975 | 1,167  | -0.4                              | 2,479  | 0.5                               | 32.0  |
| 1980 | 1,354  | 3.4                               | 2,617  | 2.0                               | 34.1  |
| 1985 | 1,548  | 2.0                               | 2,764  | 0.6                               | 35.9  |
| 1986 | 1,584  | 2.3                               | 2,795  | 1.1                               | 36.2  |
| 1987 | 1,615  | 2.0                               | 2,813  | 0.6                               | 36.5  |
| 1988 | 1,670  | 3.4                               | 2,868  | 2.0                               | 36.8  |
| 1989 | 1,749  | 4.7                               | 2,929  | 2.1                               | 37.4  |
| 1990 | 1,834  | 4.9                               | 3,001  | 2.5                               | 37.9  |

Source: Statistics Bureau, Management and Coordination Agency, *Labour Force Survey*