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## General Survey

### **White Paper on National Life-Advent of Society with Fewer Children; Its Impact and the Response**

The 1992 white paper on National life, subtitled "the Advent of a Society with Fewer Children; its Impact and the Response," was submitted to a Cabinet meeting on November 13. The annual report points out the declining birthrate and resulting decrease in the number of children born in families to be a result of the tendency to have fewer children. The report examines this in virtually all its pages. In June 1990, a Ministry of Health and Welfare survey revealed that the average number of children born per woman of childrearing age was 1.57 in 1989, the lowest figure since the end of the 19th century when the Ministry began compiling its statistics. This was called "the 1.57 shock," and this became an "in" word in 1990. When the number surpasses 2.08, this enables the country to sustain its population. In 1991, the number further sank to 1.53.

According to the report, two of the factors behind the fall in the birthrate are that more people stay single and that fewer young couples have children. Young women are delaying marriage because of more education and to integrate themselves into a greater variety of jobs. Furthermore, they are discouraged by the difficulties of juggling their career with domestic chores and child-rearing. Even after getting married, they hold off starting a family because of the frenzy over sending children to prestigious schools and the spread of costly higher education, the report says.

The report analyzes the mid- and long-term economic impact caused by the falling birthrate. In view of the prospects for a declining labor force from the year 2000, it says that the tendency toward fewer children will likely lower the potential growth rate of the nation's economy. The report, however, predicts that the advance of more women into the labor market will increase their disposable income, expanding fields suited for them as well as improving household and childcare services.

The annual report concludes that the question of deciding upon whether or not to have children and if so, how many the individuals involved. In view of this principle and the above analysis, it calls for specific measures to be taken to cope with the present situation in which parents are unable to have children despite their desire to do so. The report recommends that the government and society establish better back-up systems to support bearing and raising children, including childcare-related facilities. Improved housing and social facilities for both parents and children, such as parks, are also important, it says. In addition, educating

children by putting emphasis on individuality and reducing parents' burden in educating their children are also necessary, the report notes.

■ It seems natural, however, that Japan, which declares "equality between the sexes" and "a nation with a better quality of life," as national goals should tackle all these policies particularly so amidst the declining birthrate.

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## **New Minister of Labour**



The second Miyazawa Cabinet was launched on December 12, 1992, with the major goal of regaining people's trust in politics. In the new Cabinet, Masakuni Murakami was appointed the new Minister of Labour. Murakami was born on August 21, 1932, in Fukuoka Prefecture and graduated from Takushoku University's Political Science Department. He served as secretary to the late Kazuo Tamaki, then Director-General of the Management and Coordination Agency, for many years before running for the Upper House, where he has served three terms. Murakami led his LDP's Upper House Diet Affairs Committee and endeavored to make the peacekeeping cooperation bill become law despite the fact that the Upper House is controlled by the opposition. Such energetic activity won him his first Cabinet appointment.

Much is expected of the new Minister of Labour on a variety of issues. There are first, shortening of work hours to realize an affluent and comfortable working life. Second, further promotion of measures to prevent industrial injuries. Third, consolidation of conditions for securing the workforce to cope with the shortage of workers expected in the mid- and long term. Fourth, issues involving labor administration, such as promotion of measures for part-time workers.

## **Working Conditions and the Labor Markets**

### **Ongoing Reduction in Working Hours**

The reduction in working hours is progressing. Average nonscheduled working hours in manufacturing at establishments with 30 and more employees fell by 23.3 percent, year on year, to 13.8 hours, the Ministry of Labour said in its recent Monthly Labor Survey (preliminary release). Thus, the decrease rate has been 20 percent and over for seven months running. Average nonscheduled hours in all industries (at establishments with 30 and more employees) dropped by 16.5 percent from the previous year to 11.7 hours, the 17th straight month to show the decline.

Affected by the economic slowdown, firms are eager to reduce working hours also from the viewpoint of rationalization and streamlining efforts of management. Starting in November, Toyota Motor Corp. will ask over 20,000 employees doing clerical work, in management, engineering and design to work no overtime. The company is currently making strenuous efforts to streamline and rationalize its production sites because of worsening corporate earnings stemming from the faltering economy. However, a sense of crisis resulting from poor earnings is hardly felt in nonproduction divisions such as general administration and management. Workers presently put in an average of an hour of overtime a day, but the company will reduce this to zero, thus encouraging a revolution in consciousness among workers, particularly in the white-collar sector. Toyota employs about 74,000 workers of whom 40,000 work on production lines. A little over 20,000 workers, including those in administration, management and design as well as some testing and development employees, will be asked to work no overtime. Beginning in November, managers in individual departments of these divisions will encourage workers to finish their work within the 8 scheduled daily hours. In 1991 Toyota workers put in total annual hours of 2,173 and in 1992, the company plans to reduce annual hours by 100.

### **\*Winter Bonus Freeze**

The economic slump is becoming increasingly severe. According to telephone-counseling cases dealt with by Rengo, due to the stagnant economy, some workers were suddenly fired in October while dispatched workers had their contracts cancelled. What is more, there has been a rapid increase in such cases. A report on the employment situation, compiled by the Fuji Research Institute, shows a rise in the number of "intrafirm unemployed workers," (employees engaged in jobs different from their original ones or those transferred to subsidiaries or other related firms).

The effects of the present recession are also observable on bonuses. By the evening of November 5, the 17 major electrical machinery companies, which act as pace setters in deciding on bonus amounts, all made combined winter and summer bonus offers. All firms recorded sharp profit decreases stemming from poor corporate performance. Therefore, they were obliged to make bonus offers, at the same or a lower level than in the previous year. Their offers were smaller than last year's in terms of the multiple of monthly wages, making the amount of money received the same as or lower than last year's levels. Matsushita Electric Industrial Co., which had thus far made the highest bonus offer in the sector, offered combined winter and summer bonuses equivalent to 5.44 months' wages, or 1,486,372yen. Hitachi Ltd. offered 1,325,358yen and Toshiba Corp., 1,360,724yen. Furthermore, Mitsubishi

Electric, Fuji Electric, NEC, Fujitsu and Sharp offered 1,356,000yen, 1,347,336yen, 1,314,400yen 1,306,600yen and 1,362,372yen, respectively. According to information released by Rengo, 35 percent, or 380, of 1,100 affiliated labor unions are now conducting negotiations on winter bonuses.

Under these circumstances, the media is full of talk that same bonuses will be paid partly in kind, and all eyes are on this topic. NEC Corp. announced that it will pay a portion of its winter bonuses to some 6,500 section and division managers in coupons good for the firm's own products. The company also suspended pay increase for executives and slashed summer bonuses for those in management positions by 5 to 10 percent in June. This is the first time that NEC will pay bonuses in kind. Sanyo Electric also said that it will pay 10 percent of bonuses for division managers and high-ranking officials in coupons exchangeable for the company's manufactured goods.

However, some problems over payment of bonuses in kind have been pointed out. The first problem is that payment of bonuses in kind may violate the Labour Standards Law, which stipulates wages must be paid in cash. If a bonus paid in kind is regarded as a portion of wages, it is necessary that this be paid in cash under the Law. Corporations which will pay bonuses to workers in kind insist that these are not wages, but fringe benefits. The second problem regards taxation. Income taxes on bonuses in kind are treated in exactly the same way as bonuses in cash. Thus, the pure bonus cut alone will not cause the money amount for tax purposes, to be reduced, leaving some workers in a pinch.

## Labor-Management Relations

### Labor and Management Gear Up for 1993 *Shunto*

Both labor and management have started to make preparations for the 1993 *shunto*, or wage hike talks. At a meeting of its Central Executive Committee, held on November 19, Rengo decided to demand a wage increase of 7 percent, or over 20,000yen per month. The demand for a 7 percent wage boost for the new fiscal year, which starts April 1, is 1 percent lower than that Rengo initially sought last year. In next year's negotiations, Rengo-affiliated unions will also continue to bargain for realization of annual work hours of 1,800. Also, they will demand an increase the rate of premium for overtime pay. In view of these unified requests, unions will materialize their demands.

The *shunto* is Japan's unique method of wage negotiations. Each year labor unions in almost all industries submit their wage hike requests to management for negotiations, in

which both sides agree on the amount of a pay increase. This naturally leads to pace-setting wage-hike levels. These come from the negotiations by 4 sectors of IMF-JC (Japan Council of Metalworkers' Unions), including electrical machinery, autos, steel and shipbuilding, with other industries following this pattern. In 1993, it is expected that unions in these 4 industries will receive replies to their demands on March 21 and 24. Based on these replies, unions of electric power firms, NTT, private railway companies and chemicals firms will receive responses from management to their wage boost demands.

Japan is in the midst of a recession following the bursting of the "bubble economy." For this very reason, Rengo demanded a 1 percent lower wage hike for the next year in comparison with last year's demand. With the nation's economy in a deep slump, labor is bound to face tough wage-hike negotiations with management. Takeshi Nagano, president of Nikkeiren (Japan Federation of Employers' Associations) earlier said that if asked about a wage raise for the next fiscal year, corporate executives of any industries would say "impossible," thus putting a restraint on labor's wage hike demands. Seigo Yamada, Rengo's secretary-general, on the other hand, said, "The current recession is like a flood rather than a typhoon. There is flood damage all over. Let's face it squarely." He thus appealed to a sense of crisis.

## Public Policy

### **Vocational Counseling Window to be Launched in Brazil**

Recent years have witnessed rapid growth in the number of South American seasonal workers in this country with Japanese ancestry. In June 1991 the number reached around 150,000, of whom Japanese Brazilians stood at approximately 120,000 and Peruvians of Japanese descent around 18,000. Those South Americans claiming Japanese ancestry are lawfully engaged in work, but sometimes they fall prey to nefarious underground brokers who intervene in their efforts to seek employment. After coming to Japan, South Americans of Japanese descent are forced "to take what they can get" and also often find themselves in trouble over working conditions at the workplace.

In August 1991, the Ministry of Labour, in cooperation with the Industrial Employment Stabilization Center, inaugurated an employment service center for ethnic Japanese South-Americans in Ueno, Tokyo, to offer them vocational counseling and job placement. It is thus ensuring that ethnic Japanese South-Americans can adequately seek employment. To further insure appropriate employment, it is necessary to provide information and counseling to South Americans of Japanese descent in their own countries so that they can come to Japan

without the necessity of relying on underground brokers. Toward this end, the Japan-Brazil Employment Service Center was established in October in Sao Paulo, and this entity sends the majority of seasonal workers.

The newly established Center, designed as an overseas office of Tokyo's Center, provides three major services. First, counseling to South Americans in the field of employment. Second, provision of employment information in Japan and information about trends in job offers. Third, complaint counseling to South Americans involving employment. The Center is staffed by about five members, including a person dispatched from the Tokyo office and some local people. The Center, initially opened in April 1992, has received about 750 counseling cases between then and October. Many cases are concerned with counseling on job applications in Japan, the Labor situation there, general information on Japan except, of course information about underground brokers. It is expected that the number of counseling cases will further increase as the Center begins full-fledged operation.

## Special Topic

### Role of Public Vocational Training in Society Characterized by Lifelong Education -Centering on Public Upgrading Training-

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#### Introduction

Recent years have witnessed the growing importance attached to education and training services for businesses in public vocational training. Training provided by public vocational training institutions (hereafter called public institutions)<sup>(1)</sup> includes 'basic training' for youth, such as new school graduates, 'occupational capability redevelopment training' mainly for unemployed workers and 'upgrading training' for employed workers. Training for employed workers dispatched from firms to improve their vocational abilities, or upgrading training, was the major aid to businesses extended by public institutions. But now, besides upgrading training, public institutions are vigorously offering such aids as dispatching of instructors for intrafirm training, training commissioned by companies and providing a location for corporate vocational training programs. Meanwhile, there have emerged in some large corporations moves to commercially provide their own education and training know-how to

outside facilities. This indicates the ongoing standardization of education and training offered by firms. Both public and intrafirm vocational training programs are going beyond their respective boundaries. Thus, a "borderless" phenomenon is occurring between the two. In the wake of the sophistication of technologies and skills, Off-the-job training (OFF-JT) to complement on-the-job training (OJT) is gaining in importance. To be sure, the roles played by public vocational training are important for smaller-scale companies which have no in-house OFF-JT plans. In view of the current situation of these two kinds of training, however, it seems that we are now at a time when we should review the significance of public vocational training. In 1992, the Human Resources Development Promotion Law (HRDPL) was revised to stress public vocational training. Public institutions are never large enough to house trainees, but the role of public vocational training has never been small as a supplier of skilled workers, particularly those in secondary industries such as manufacturing and construction. Taking this into consideration, it seems important to study the background of public vocational training, which is undergoing drastic changes, in understanding Japan's vocational training. The nation's public vocational training policy is designed to train on site workers mainly in manufacturing and construction. Virtually no training is offered to such white-collar workers as those in clerical work and management as well as those in professional and technological jobs. Review of the public vocational training systems is presently under study in this regard.

### **1. From 'Vocational Training' to 'Human Resources Development'**

Let us first clarify how the concept of 'vocational training' was changed and how it is related to public vocational training. The term 'vocational training' is customarily used for vocational skill education carried out under the auspices of labor administration, while on the other hand, a similar vocational skill education program under the setup of educational administration is called 'vocational education.' However, 'vocational training,' in a strict sense, only referred to education and training stipulated under the Vocational Training Law (VTL). In other words, public vocational training and authorized vocational training (of education and training programs provided by firms, are those the government has authorized as 'vocational training'). It meant what is called 'statutory vocational training.' Furthermore, for the 20 years since the establishment of the present vocational training system, in other words, for a period from the 1958 enactment on the VTL to its 1978 revision, vocational training was construed conceptually as primarily providing manipulative skills with a secondary emphasis on provision of technical knowledge. This was intended to set forth the uniqueness of vocational training by stressing that it means training of skills and is different from school education. What is more, the nation's vocational training was mainly designed to train blue-collar workers engaged in the secondary industry, which was different in nature from that of Western countries. From this, it is safe to say that Japan's vocational training was



different from 'vocational training' in an international, customarily recognized sense and was narrower in concept at least until 1978.

The situation changed, however. Structural changes in the socioeconomic situation, such as technological progress, the advent of an aging society, in a growing weight of the service sector in the economy, growth in the number of women workers and the ongoing internationalization of economic activity, have brought about the increasing importance of occupational and technological knowledge and job abilities with intellectual skills. This, then, prompted the expanded areas and contents of training, thus leading the nation to expand the conceptual framework of traditional vocational training. Consequently, in 1985 the VTL was renamed as the HRDPL. Thus term 'human resources development'<sup>(2)</sup> has come to be used to represent a new concept of vocational training. In addition, the new Law regards 'human resources development' as a comprehensive capability development of workers, incorporating trade skill tests, which is closely related to training, into the framework.

As we have seen, transition from 'vocational training' to 'human resources development' meant the transition of paradigm of Japan's vocational training, thus drastically changing public vocational training.

## **2. Development of a Lifelong Training System**

'Lifelong training'<sup>(3)</sup> may perhaps be the keyword for understanding vocational training, or human resources development, in today's Japan. Accordingly, let us consider where public vocational training stands in lifelong training while tracing the history of the nation's vocational training system.

### **(1) Age of 'vocational training' (idea in embryo)**

Public vocational training and in-house training were developed for totally different purposes from each other from the end of WWII to enactment in 1958 of the VTL. Public vocational training called 'vocational guidance' was initially aimed as a postwar measure to cope with unemployment and was different in nature from training designed to train skilled workers in large firms. However, the emphasis of public vocational training was shifted gradually from measures to cope with jobless to training of skilled workers, and thus two types of vocational training finally came to share the same purpose, namely, the education and training of skilled workers. At the same time, the VTL for the first time combined public vocational training and 'authorized training,' which is education and training of skilled workers provided by companies and recognized by the government as vocational training, to create a unified system of vocational training.

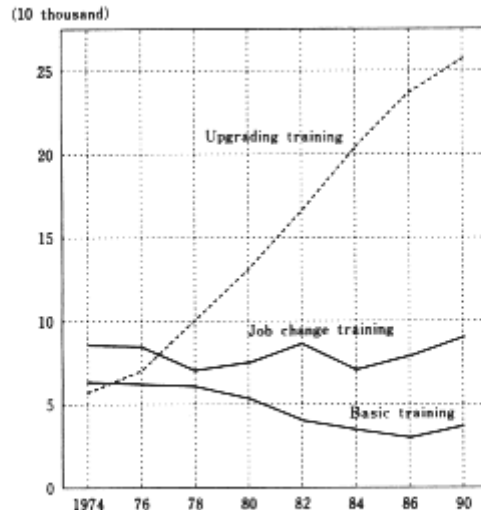
Amendment of the VTL effected in 1969 for the first time enabled adoption of the idea of lifelong training whose fundamental and underlying ideal is "to enable individuals to undergo adequate vocational training in a phased and systematic manner at all stages of their working lives." As specific measures and policies toward this end, 'upgrading training' intended for workers on the payroll was institutionalized as a legal type of training. This identified the system of vocational training as consisting of three types of training, including upgrading training, occupational capability redevelopment training and basic training. Furthermore, training standards, which had been different between public training and authorized in-house training, were unified to make the same training standards applicable to both. This still holds true today. Thus, the drastic revision of the Law in 1969, which led to the institution of upgrading training and unification of training standards for both public and in-house vocational training, was recognized as the first step toward the subsequent system of lifelong training.

In addition, enforcement in 1974 of the Employment Insurance Law (EIL) which grew out of the major amendment of the Unemployment Insurance Law (UIL), it is fair to say, further clarified the fundamental and underlying ideal of vocational training on which lifelong training is based. To prevent workers from being jobless and to stabilize employment, the EIL recognized a human resources development program as one of the projects implemented under the employment insurance system to encourage workers to develop and improve their capabilities. This step meant the shift in vocational training for workers from an emphasis on jobless workers in the period of the UIL to that on employed workers in the period of the EIL. Furthermore, the EIL clarified that vocational training projects under the VTL were operated by the special accounting of "employment insurance", and also the system of encouraging paid vacation for education and training toward the establishment of lifelong training was inaugurated, under the EIL. Thus, it may safely be said that enforcement of the EIL sparked development into the present system of comprehensive human resources development and establishment of lifelong training.

In the period from the 1974 institution of the EIL to the 1985 enactment of the HRDPL, the lifelong training system left much to be desired as compared with the present one. However, public institutions endeavored to expand vocational training programs for workers on the payroll in response to the institution of upgrading training. Under those circumstances, 1978 witnessed revision of the Law, which greatly changed the system and contents of public vocational training programs. The first feature of the amended Law was transformation of public institutions from vocational training schools intended mainly for basic training to special institutions called "Skill Development Centers (SDC)" designed mainly for upgrading training for employed workers. The transformation, which was started in the year following

revision of the Law, was completed in about 10 years, launching about 70 SDCs throughout the nation. The number of those who undergo public upgrading training offered by SDCs has been steadily increasing (See Fig.1). Moreover, revision of the Law led to relaxed training standards for upgrading training and also to a marked rise in the number of authorized upgrading training programs provided by corporations.

**Fig.1 Trends in Upgrading Training at Public Institutions**



Source: Kazutoshi Tanaka, The Presentation at 33rd annual convention of the Japan Society for the Study of Vocational and Technical Education

Source: Kazutoshi Tanaka, The Presentation at 33rd annual convention of the Japan Society for the Study of Vocational and Technical Education

## (2) Age of "human resources development"(systematization of lifelong training)

Public upgrading training programs offered by SDCs increased the number of those employed workers who receive upgrading training. As already mentioned, however, companies play a large role in education and training of the nation's workers. To specifically promote lifelong training, it has become an important task to recognize a wide range of education and training programs provided by firms in the expanded framework of "human resources development under the Law and to consolidate a system for promotion of and assistance to these programs. This was the primary purpose of the 1985 enactment of the HRDPL which was renamed from the VTL. This is given substance to by the fact that the HRDPL was approved by revision of part of the VTL and that the most important point of the revision was placed on measures taken by corporations to encourage human resources development. Assistance to in-house training as the role played by public institutions was already stipulated in 1978 when the Law was amended. However, with corporate steps to encourage human resources development clearly stated, public institutions have come to be recognized as aid organs for company-sponsored human resources development plans.

In addition, the second point of importance was to make training criteria flexible. As

stated earlier, public vocational training and in-house "authorized training" have been provided, based on the same criteria, since 1969. Flexible training criteria were realized to incorporate a variety of education and training programs, excluding in-house authorized training plans, into human resources development programs. This made it possible to offer subsidy and assistance to a wide variety of corporate education and training programs, while on the other hand, this also enabled public institutions to provide diversifying and flexible human resources development plans which are free from training criteria.

It can be said from this that the significance of enactment of the HRDPL lies in the shift in vocational training from an emphasis on public vocational training to that of in-house vocational training both in reality and in policy ideal to consolidate the system of human resources development, centered on in-house training.

Overviewing the aforementioned periods of development clearly shows that during the periods the abstract ideals of lifelong training were developed into concrete measures and policies. Also, this may perhaps be understood as the process in which, while emphasis was gradually placed on in-house training, both public and in-house vocational training programs were expanded and diversified and become more consistent under the fundamental and underlying idea of lifelong training.

### **3. Features and Significance of Revised HRDPL**

It can be considered that the HRDPL was so enacted as to legally place a variety of in-house education and training programs under the category of human resources development. Overemphasis on vocational training within enterprises will make companies the major actors in human resources development. However, in terms of the lofty idea of lifelong human resources development, workers must be the principal players in human resources development. It is undeniable that enactment of the HRDPL has made the principal actor of human resources development somewhat unclear. In this sense, the following may be cited as what should be noted in the 1992 revision of the Law.

(a) Training of the traditional three types were abolished; and instead, it was classified into two categories, "sophisticated training" and "ordinary training" in term of the degree. Also, training courses, which had been subdivided by training classification, were classified into two simple categories, "long-term course (one year and over)" and "short term course (less than one year)." This has enabled shortcomings, which arose from the fact that training programs did not necessarily adapt to workers' individual and diversified situations, to be atoned for and has also enabled more diversified and flexible training programs to be implemented.

(b) Public institutions "should endeavor to offer," instead of "can offer," assistance to enterprise-sponsored human resources development programs, thus strengthening the role of public institutions as aid organs.

(c) Assistance, such as counseling and provision of information and materials, offered by public institutions, which were only available for employers, is now also available to workers. Thus, the idea of lifelong human resources development, it is safe to say, has been further clarified.

(d) Vocational training can now be provided to individual employers. Only workers could so far undergo training. Though still restricted to individual employers, provision of vocational training is now extended to cover those other than workers.

(e) Training mainly for acquisition of knowledge can be offered as vocational training at other organs than public institutions. The new measures now enable white-collar workers to enjoy the full privilege of undergoing lifelong human resources development programs.

As we have seen, revision of the Law has led to measures for promotion of human resources development at public institutions, and this was intended, it can be construed, to remedy shortcomings involving human resources development offered by public institutions and to make training programs both within enterprises and at public institutions more consistent. Thus, the system of human resources development is still centered on in-house training, but it has become clear that the fundamental purpose of this policy is to encourage lifelong human resources development for workers.

#### **4. Future Role of Public Vocational Training**

As stated in the opening portion, public vocational training and in-house training are now going beyond their previous boundaries. In the wake of this situation, public institutions must grope for their public character, which is their *raison d'être*, in the years ahead. "The skills check clinic", one of the upgrading training programs, can be listed as one such clue to searching for public institutions' public character. This is a program designed for employed workers to compare their own skills with outside ones for improvement. Those employed workers who have received it find the program very important. They look to public institutions for skill standards for comparison to further improve their skills. In short, standards for the so-called in-house special skills may be one solution to the question of "what is the 'public character' that public institutions possess?"

The system of human resources development, it is safe to say, still remains unchanged; individual firms are left to develop workers' vocational capacities and are content for their workers to learn about and adapt to jobs they offer. True, because of this very situation, companies could easily accept technological innovation internally and could implement

relocation in a relatively free manner. But from a wider perspective of society characterized by "lifelong learning," it seems necessary to acquire social means for workers to improve their own skills independently, in other words, to "socialize" human resources development itself. In this sense, making public and in-house training programs go beyond their boundaries is welcome phenomenon, and the role played by public institutions will be far more important. Furthermore, toward this end, public institutions will need to consider what they should do in their relation to educational organs, such as schools and universities, as well as to corporations.

Notes:

- (1) Public vocational training institutions are classified into two major categories, one operated by local governments and the other run by the central government and commissioned to the Employment Promotion Corporation. The former number 257 and the latter 92 (68 Skill Development Centers, 23 Vocational Training Colleges and one Institute of Vocational Training). They can house 127,000 trainees for both basic training and human resources redevelopment training and approximately 250,000 trainees for upgrading training. Besides these facilities, there are 19 vocational training centers for the physically handicapped run by the central and local governments. For more details about the nation's vocational training facilities and their recent projects, refer to Toshio Ishikawa; "Education and Training in Japan," *Labour Issues Quarterly*, winter 1991, No. 10.
- (2) The established term 'human resources development' closest to the concept of this new vocational training is used for its English equivalent; however, it literally means "job ability development." The term 'vocational training' has not become extinct in Japan, and it is used to mean education and training for vocation and is used employed as such in this paper.
- (3) Since 1985, when the Human Resources Development Promotion Law was enacted, 'lifelong training' has been replaced by 'lifelong human resources development.'

## Statistical Aspects

### Recent Labor Economy Indices

	September 1992	August 1992	Change from previous year
Labor force	6,625 (10 thousand)	6,618 (10 thousand)	47 (10 thousand)
Employed	6,478	6,474	41
Employees	5,117	5,138	101
Unemployed	145	145	6
Unemployment rate	2.2 %	2.2 %	0.1
Active opening rate	1.01	1.02	- 0.37
Total hours worked	163.8 (hours)	156.4 (hours)	- 2.1*
Total wages of regular employees	267.6 (¥thousand)	266.5 (¥thousand)	2.0*

Source: Management and Coordination Agency, Ministry of Labour.

Notes: 1. \* denotes annual percent change.

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

Education-related Expenses by Type of School (per Person-Yearly)

(Unit : Yen)

Classification	Primary school (Public)	Junior high school (Public)	Senior high school (Public)	Senior high school (Private)	Kindergarten (Public)	Kindergarten (Private)
School education-related expenses	54,230	107,728	250,726	563,480	107,645	233,890
Textbook fees			5,215	5,390		
Fees for books other than texts	5,407	9,002	8,282	6,484	3,425	3,664
School supplies and experiment and practical/training material fees	16,288	23,132	17,112	21,088	6,202	7,366
Extracurricular activity fees	2,797	14,055	23,100	22,225	384	1,158
Health expenses	61	65	363	622	154	277
Transportation fees	1,018	9,792	40,050	88,373	4,071	11,744
School supplies fees	11,379	11,690	11,050	13,470	10,244	13,057
Others	3,262	4,957	10,418	5,027	4,552	7,183
Tuition			85,774	217,180	64,325	150,697
School excursion, Field trip and tour fees	5,720	20,820	25,999	39,683	2,719	2,993
Fees for class activities	3,727	3,465	3,721	3,195	2,210	288
Student council fees	103	1,324	5,553	5,176	21	0
PTA fees	2,595	3,236	5,101	8,882	4,387	4,909
Other fees paid to school	1,786	5,848	18,123	117,148	4,691	29,845
Donations	87	342	865	9,537	260	709
School lunch fees	34,959	30,019			14,070	18,935
Domestic education related expenses	120,463	125,268	70,648	88,780	83,592	121,193
Supplementary Study fees	41,807	99,205	51,624	65,381	29,920	34,864
Article fees	8,399	6,730	4,182	4,788	15,903	12,517
Book fees	16,375	26,927	12,308	15,222	9,537	14,788
Tutorial and cram school fees	15,657	55,397	22,908	34,863	3,999	7,260
Others	1,376	10,151	12,226	10,508	481	299
After-school study fees	78,656	26,063	19,024	23,399	53,672	86,329
Article fees	6,635	3,767	3,130	2,603	13,303	18,586
Book fees	2,941	1,035	652	494	1,250	1,565
Monthly fees	61,621	17,233	11,807	16,359	37,191	60,600
Others	7,459	4,028	3,435	3,943	1,928	5,578
Total	209,652	263,015	331,374	652,260	205,307	374,018
(Annual percent change)	(4.4%)	(6.2%)	(5.4%)	(1.1%)	(5.2%)	(1.4%)

Source : Ministry of Education, A 1990 Survey on Education-related Expenses Paid by Parent 1992 (Revised)